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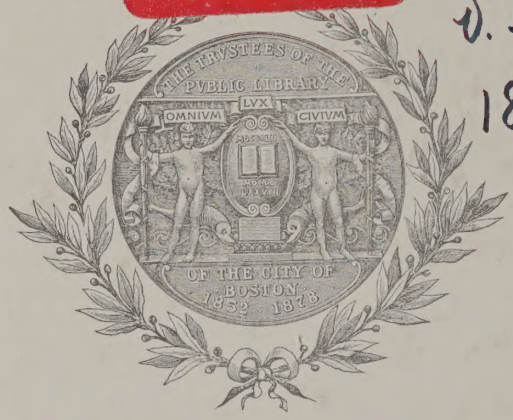

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## Books of the Week.

18, 36, 53, 70, 92, 109, 127, 148, 164, 184, 206, 222, 240, 258, 275, 292, 314, 332, 348, 371, 393, 415, 434, 452, 470, 488.

### *ERRATA.*

Page 9, col. iii., line 12. For "Gnome" read "Gomme."

Page 22, col. iii., line 40 from bottom. For "1891" read "1861."

Page 102, col. iii., line 18 from bottom. For "Wachernagel" read "Wackernagel."

Page 108, col. i., line 6 from bottom. For "Miss" read "Mrs."

Page 177, col. iii., line 30. For "Wolkowski" read "Volkonsky."

Page 192, col. i., line 18. For "Charity" read "the Charité."

Page 249, col. i., line 10. For "Mrs." read "Mr."

Page 289, col. i., lines 39, 40. For "the successor of Renan in the College de France," read "brother of the successor, etc."

Page 320, col. ii., line 16. For "£140,000" read "£140,000,000."

Page 332, col. i., lines 4, 25. For "Pennebacker" read "Pennypacker."

Page 357, col. iii., line 27. For "Merpes" read "Menpes."

Page 385, col. ii., line 35 from bottom. Omit "Banks."

Page 428, col. i., line 12. For "Sanford" read "Sandford."

Page 460, col. ii., line 15 from bottom. For "father-in law" read "step-father."

# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 5, 1894.

## The Week.

THE prompt action of Attorney-General Olney in putting forth all the powers of the law to move the United States mails is worthy of the highest praise. It stands, too, in remarkable contrast to the John Sherman interview published in the Sunday newspapers, in which the Ohio Senator makes an attack on the Pullman Car Company as a grinding monopoly. That this interview is an encouragement to rioters and a text for anarchists is perfectly evident. If we had not been led by long experience to expect such summersaults from Mr. Sherman in critical times, we should think that he had suddenly gone crazy, "This matter has no reference whatever to the strike," he says. Hasn't it? With twenty-two railroads in the hands of rioters at Chicago and vicinity, with all the railroads on the Pacific coast similarly situated by reason of the Pullman boycott, does Mr. Sherman think that his attack on the company will have no bearing on the strike? He can hardly be so simple as that. The rioters will assume at once that Mr. Sherman is on their side, and the public will assume that he intended the result which will follow.

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The matter of his talk is as devoid of logic as it is ill timed. He says that "the Pullman Company charges each railroad running its cars a cent a mile for every car, and this goes into the pockets of the Pullmans in addition to the rates paid by the passengers." This, as he puts it, is a great public grievance, as though the railroads did not know how to manage their own business, but needed Sherman or Debs to protect them against the extortions of Pullman. Another sad thing is "the system of tipping the employees." This, Mr. Sherman thinks, should be discontinued, but, reflecting that these employees also have votes, he adds that they "are not paid enough by the company; if they were paid adequate salaries, the passengers would not be expected to come forward to help them out." Poor passengers, poor porters! how they must thank Mr. Sherman for his statesmanlike efforts to go to the root of the trouble. Debs and his followers, however, seem to take more stock in Kyle than they do in Sherman, for they have telegraphed to their friends to support the Kyle bill to stop running Pullman cars on mail trains, and they have not rendered equal homage to Mr. Sherman's resolution to investigate sleeping-cars.

The man Debs who is managing the Pullman boycott has issued a manifesto, which is so much like the proclamations of Martin Irons in the great Southwestern strike that we could fancy that Irons was in control of the literary bureau. "The struggle with the Pullman Company," says Debs, "has developed into a contest between the producing classes and the money power of the country." That is a sonorous period. He then gives his version of the first trouble with the Pullman Company, but does not give any particulars. He deals with the matter in a broad, general way so as to palm off the largest number of lies without detection—again in the style of Martin Irons. For example, Mr. Pullman said that his company had taken a contract for 55 passenger cars for the Long Island Railroad at $300 per car less than cost, in order to keep the men employed, and that there was only 60 days' work in sight at any rate of pay whatever. Does Debs dispute this particular fact? Not at all. But he throws off another sonorous paragraph about the employees "mortgaging their bodies and souls as well as their children's to that heartless corporation." Then he tells how the Pullman strike became a general war against the railroads. By skilfully turning it around, end for end, he makes it appear that the railroads began it by insisting upon hauling Pullman cars. "The railway corporations," he says, "through the General Managers' Association, came to the rescue, and in a series of whereases declared to the world that they would go into partnership with Pullman, so to speak, and stand by him in his devilish work of *starving his employees to death.*" It is impossible that such lies should deceive anybody, but we shall probably have to cope with them in the old-fashioned way—that is, by delaying and expostulating and waiting for the rioters to gain strength and confidence till they begin to commit murder and arson, and then sending the militia to shoot them down and drive Debs into the seclusion of some liquor saloon, where Irons finally terminated his career as a Knight of Labor.

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The test vote on the income tax in the Senate on Thursday proves those to have been right who have asserted that this tax was stronger than any measure of its class before Congress. No tariff law could be drawn which would alienate but four Democratic votes and would win ten Republican votes. That fully one-quarter of the Republican vote should have been cast for the income tax shows how idle it is to expect its repeal at the hands of the Republican party. It is only twenty-two years ago that, as Senator Teller pointed out, twenty-five Republican Senators went on record in favor of the income tax. Whether we like it or not, therefore, we must admit the cold fact that the income tax has come, and probably has come to stay. Recognized by economists as, theoretically, a just and even an ideal tax, it has cunningly been put into a form to give it the greatest possible strength with the masses of a democratic country. Their inevitable answer to all objections is that made by the chairman of the Maine Democratic convention the other day, who said: "Give me the income, and I'll not quarrel about the tax." The logical outcome of that answer is spoliation, but democracy is not careful to be logical, and property has immense power on the defensive. Meanwhile, it must be said that many of the crudities of the law as it passed the House have been clipped off in the Senate. The exemptions made in favor of savings banks, of mutual-insurance companies, and of building and loan associations break the force of the severest attacks made on the law.

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It is becoming evident that the silver planks which are finding their way into the platforms of Republican State conventions are dictated by the congressional managers of the party in Washington. None of these deliverances has caused so much surprise as the declaration in favor of a "continued and extended use of silver in our circulation," which was made by the Republicans of Vermont, since the Green Mountain State is one which has never had the slightest sympathy with the silver craze. How did such a plank get into the platform? The Rutland *Herald*, a prominent Republican newspaper, says that it was not inserted in response to any sentiment in its favor among the delegates; on the contrary, it was read when members were hurrying from the hall to catch trains, and was neither considered nor even heard by the members of the convention. Moreover, the *Herald* declares that "it does not represent the Republican party belief in Vermont," and that "it actually misrepresents the home feeling." It declares its conviction that the proposed policy is not only wrong but foolish, and it believes that if the whole party goes that way, it will meet with disaster.

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Senator Cameron wrote a terrible letter to the national convention of the Republican Leagues at Denver on June 26. It appears that "the world stands on the edge of revolution, social and political," but, strange to say, "every one shrinks from it." Well, what is

the revolution to be about? About "the struggle between gold and silver." Why is this "struggle" so alarming? Because "the single gold standard seems to be working ruin with a violence nothing can stand." "Almost the whole world," or, to speak more precisely, "nine-tenths of mankind," is of this way of thinking. Well, why does "almost the whole world," or "nine-tenths of mankind," submit to all this state of things? Why do they watch "gold working ruin with violence"? Why do they "stand on the edge of political and social revolution" and yet shrink from it? Simply because "the bankers of London have said that we must submit, and we have submitted." As Mr. Cameron well remarks, "So strange a spectacle has never been seen in our history." "Something," he adds, "then, must be decided, and quickly, for delay itself is likely to be decision." This bedlamite nonsense, according to the *Tribune's* special report, was received by the Western delegations with transports of enthusiasm. "They went fairly wild with joy." We admonish the business men of the country, East, West, and South, who last year forced the Sherman repeal bill through both houses of Congress, that the silver question is of far more consequence than any tariff question or any party question, and that they cannot safely withdraw their attention from it at any time.

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It is risky business in these days to say a good word for either party as to its financial position. The Democrats of Pennsylvania on June 27 adopted a resolution on the money question which was so sound, and so fully in harmony with the traditions of the party, that it seemed as though the organization might be recovering its senses under the leadership of President Cleveland's administration, whose conduct was warmly endorsed. But the next day the Arkansas Democrats made a deliverance on this question which was simply shocking. The committee on resolutions reported a platform which called for "the free and unlimited coinage of both silver and gold at a ratio of sixteen to one." An amendment was proposed to substitute for this the words "free coinage without discriminating against either metal, upon such rates as shall insure the maintenance of a parity of both metals," but it was rejected by a vote of 359 to 92. Appropriately enough, after so unblushing a declaration in favor of cheap money, the convention treated with contempt another resolution endorsing the administration of President Cleveland. As he stands for sound money, praise from such a convention would have been hypocritical at best, and it is much to be preferred that the men who want to cheat their creditors should show exactly what they think about an official who stands for honesty. Even Michigan makes no better showing than Arkansas. The Democratic convention in the former State on Thursday declared in favor of free coinage "at a ratio that will permit the debtors to pay their debts upon the same basis in which they were contracted," and demanded that all the circulating medium be hereafter issued under the acts of Congress "and such amendments as the business wants of the country may require, and it shall be full legal tender." This is nothing short of calling for soft money in unlimited quantities. Where is this sort of thing going to end? Are both of the old parties destined to fall under the control of the silver fanatics?

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New Mexico was all but admitted to the Union as a State twenty years ago. At that time the Republicans controlled both branches of Congress by large majorities, and they favored the admission of the Territory because they thought it would be carried by their party. In the Forty-third Congress a bill looking in this direction passed the House of Representatives by a vote of 160 to 54. The Senate was as strongly in favor of it, 32 voting for the bill and only 11 against it. But a slight amendment had been made by the Senate, which sent the bill back to the House, where the pressure of business in the closing days of the session enabled its opponents to block its final passage. But for this hitch New Mexico would now be a State of twenty years' standing. The House has now voted for its admission, as it has already done in the case of Arizona and Utah. When these are brought in, there will be forty-seven States and ninety-four Senators. These States contained in 1890 a population of 61,202,896. Seven of the forty-seven had in all less than three-quarters of a million, as follows:

| | |
|---|---|
| Arizona | 59,620 |
| Idaho | 84,385 |
| Montana | 132,159 |
| Nevada | 45,761 |
| New Mexico | 153,593 |
| Utah | 207,905 |
| Wyoming | 60,705 |
| | 744,128 |

In other words, less than one-eightieth of the country's population is found in this mountainous section, and yet these seven thinly settled States will have 14 out of 94 Senators, one-seventh of the upper branch.

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Nor is this the worst of it. A majority of such a Senate would be 48, and here is almost one-third of that majority in the 14 men sent by this thinly settled region. On any question in which they have a common interest, as in mining, they need but 34 out of the remaining 80 to control the body, and half of these could be found in their immediate neighbors—Colorado, Nebraska, Kansas, and the two Dakotas on the east, and Washington, Oregon, and California on the west. In other words, the region west of the Missouri River, with only about six of the more than sixty millions, or one-tenth, will have 30 of the 94 Senators, or almost two-thirds of a majority. We say nothing about the character of the Senators from these new States. It does not look well for States which send Hills and Murphys, Quays and Camerons, to criticise the choice of others. We do not speak of the unsettling of the old order of things in the Senate as regards rules and traditions by so large an addition to its numbers. That can be arranged by a needed reform of the methods of procedure. But we can never deprive the sage-brush and mining-camp States of their equal representation in the Senate, when once they get it.

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It is announced that the controversy over the World's Fair medal has been "settled" by the adoption by Secretary Carlisle of a "composite design"; Mr. St. Gaudens's original design for the obverse being allowed to remain, while the much offending nude figure on the reverse is to be replaced by a very "composite" design indeed, created by Mr. Barber, the designer of our present silver coinage. Whether such a preposterous "settlement" as this will be allowed to stay settled, remains to be seen. It does not seem to have occurred to the settlers that Mr. St. Gaudens might object, with some show of reason, in our humble opinion, to being bracketed in this way with a vastly inferior designer, and might insist on the Government's taking all of his design or none. The whole chapter of its dealings with this distinguished artist is a disgraceful one, but this last action is of a coolness that takes one's breath away. We do not know whether the law affords any protection to an artist from this sort of mutilation of his work, but if it does not, it ought to. The joy of our artists over the passage by the Senate of the free-art clause of the tariff bill, thus removing one stigma from our civilization, is likely to be somewhat dashed by this revelation that the days of barbarism are not yet over.

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Why has such a profound silence fallen on the expounders of constitutional liberty in Hawaii? A commentary is urgently required on the present situation in the islands. We are not up to it ourselves, and can only state the facts. A provisional government, after having held office for sixteen months without a shadow of popular warrant, is at last shamed into calling a "constitutional convention" to establish permanent representative institutions. It fixes up a plan by which no one can vote for delegates, or be a member of the convention, without taking an oath of allegiance to itself, and by which, further-

more, an absolute majority of the convention is to be made up of members of the provisional government taking seats ex officio. Then they submit their ready-made constitution, adopt it by their own votes, promulgate it without submission to popular vote, and at once proceed to violate it by themselves naming a President for six years. Now it must be possible in some way to reconcile such proceedings with the Spirit of '76, and the Cradle of Liberty, and all the other sacred and patriotic things which we have been told have set up for themselves in Hawaii; but the official defenders of the Hawaiian brand of republicanism do not tell us how. We hope they will not be deterred by any little circumstance like the fact that they have denounced the Queen for the same thing that the patriots are now doing.

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Prof. Laughlin of Chicago contributes to the *Atlantic Monthly* for July a sketch of the scheme for monetary reform in Santo Domingo, which has just gone into operation, that contains a good deal of interest to every student of the currency question. As will be remembered, the Dominican Government, seeing its income, with a silver currency, diminishing with the value of silver, and domestic bankruptcy impending, employed a commission, of which Prof. Laughlin was the head, to devise a new and safe monetary system. The scheme prepared changes the currency system directly from a silver to a gold basis. The monetary unit of the country is a gold dollar of the same value as the American gold dollar. The gold coins are to be, however, only of the denominations of $5, $10, and $20; a silver dollar of 380 grains to supply the smaller currency. All the silver coins are to be exchangeable at their face value for Dominican gold coins, and all the coins are to be minted and issued by a "fiscal agency" created by the Government. Both bimetallists and monometallists have told us that gold is the currency for rich and powerful, and silver for small and weak communities, but here we see a little republic, whose total area is only twice that of the State of New Jersey, and whose total population scarcely equals that of Colorado, accepting the gold basis as the one way of escape from financial ruin. The Mexican dollars which formed the money of account on that island, fluctuated in value so much that sometimes it took one hundred and eighty-five and sometimes two hundred of them to equal one hundred dollars in gold. The new Dominican system was enacted last March and went into effect on June 1. Its practical operation will be an interesting subject for study, but there can be no doubt of its success.

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We hear much of the agricultural depression in this country, but it is doubtful if the most exaggerated accounts can equal the bare facts in regard to a farming region almost within walking distance of the Bank of England. A report on the agricultural crisis in Essex has lately been made public, in which is set forth a terrible story of abandoned farms and ruined farm buildings, of bankrupt landlords and starving laborers. Thousands of acres more will be left tenantless this year if the times do not mend, and if anything like the number of farmers who have served notices to quit act upon them. Specimen cases are given to show the extraordinary depression. A farm of 638 acres, which rented for $3,800 in 1875, brought only $2,300 per year from 1883 to 1886, and for the last five years has been let for *one pound* per annum—the tenant to pay the tithe, amounting to about $700. A farm of 600 acres (half under cultivation), which was bought in 1875 for $40,000, sold in 1885 for $2,100. The prime cause of such a disastrous downfall is the drop in the price of wheat. Essex is a wheat-growing county, and not easily adapted to market-gardening or dairying. Then the burden of taxation is crushing, in many cases the tithes being far greater than the rent. The tithe per acre and per capita seems to be peculiarly heavy in Essex, being four or five times what it is in several other counties. It is generally admitted that relief can come only by lightening taxation and diversifying crops; no sane person in England any longer talks about the possibility of shutting out foreign competition in agriculture.

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Only a few days before Carnot's assassination a leading French authority on criminal law published an article on anarchist crimes. In it he took the view that criminal anarchism is nothing more nor less than a form of the vendetta—a form, of course, enormously magnified. The vengeful Corsican was satisfied with killing a single enemy, or, at most, all his enemy's family, while the dynamiter's rage is directed against a whole class of society. Herein, says M. Tarde, lies the weakness of society's defence against the anarchists. Society can seize and hang only the individual, leaving untouched the collective hatred of government and the collective assault upon it. If the epidemic of anarchist crimes continues, this French lawyer thinks, we shall have to meet it by "retrograding to the penal methods of primitive times"—that is, by applying the vendetta to anarchists themselves, or at least holding a certain number of them as hostages for the good behavior of the rest. All this is more curious than practical. There is no brand on anarchists to mark them off from the rest of mankind; and after we had killed off or imprisoned all that were known, our most unsuspected neighbors might take to throwing bombs or poniarding the mayor. There seems little prospect of permanent relief, in fact, except in steadily demonstrating that all the bombs on earth will not reform society, and that there will always be officials left to string up the bomb-throwers as fast as they come on. This, in time, will rob the bomb of its attractiveness as an instrument of political reform.

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M. Stambuloff, the Bulgarian ex-premier, has been airing his grievances in an interview in the Vienna *Neue Freie Presse*. He complained of the ingratitude of his country, but assured Prince Ferdinand of his continued support, while reserving the right to oppose as a private citizen the new ministers, who "lack the ability to render the future of Bulgaria secure." M. Natchovitch, the new minister of foreign affairs, retaliates in the same paper with a frank and thorough arraignment of M. Stambuloff. He admits that Stambuloff did wonders in the beginning of his career, but says that much of the credit is due to the very able ministers with whom he surrounded himself, and who are all in office to-day. While these men were actuated by the loftiest patriotism, Stambuloff was consumed by personal ambition. On the accession of Prince Ferdinand, Stambuloff had to exchange the rôle of regent for that of constitutional minister—a bitter pill to swallow for a man "whose ideal of a statesman was a Turkish pasha." With his dissatisfaction his tyranny increased. Absolutely intolerant of criticism, he ruled Government officials and judges as well as the Sobranye with an iron hand. He manipulated elections solely in his own interest, "choosing his candidates personally, and ordering the chiefs of police to secure their election." Passing from the past to the present, M. Natchovitch promises that the cabinet in the first place will institute economic and financial reforms—in other words, that it will try to avoid a deficit. The Sobranye is to be dissolved, and elections are not to be interfered with by the Government. Russian influence, M. Natchovitch declares, is waning, in consequence of the doings of the Russian officials in Bulgaria, "who acquitted themselves of their task in the worst possible manner." However, the new ministry will "not needlessly wound Russian sensibilities." The Russian press, in commenting upon the situation in Bulgaria, professes to derive considerable comfort from the fall of Stambuloff. The *Neue Freie Presse* itself takes a very calm view of the situation, having full confidence in the prudence of Count Kálnoky, who brought about the independence of Bulgaria, while cultivating amicable relations with Russia.

*A RETROSPECT.*

THE adjournment of the Lexow committee until September seems to furnish a suitable occasion for bringing to public remembrance the extraordinary drama of which the investigation by this committee is the dénouement. The election of Grant in 1888 was one of the most important events in the history of New York, for he was distinctly a new kind of mayor. His novelty did not consist in his being a Tammany mayor, for there had been Tammany mayors before him. But they had, as had all mayors, been business men of greater or less prominence; men who had become conspicuous by following some reputable calling, and had thus given the public some guarantees of honesty and fidelity. His competitor, Mr. Hewitt, was not only a well-known merchant, but a man of real eminence in other fields, and had already served one term in the mayoral office, in spite of some mistakes, with real distinction. His defeat and Grant's election were accomplished by the old device of running a "straight Republican ticket," Mr. Erhardt having been nominated, to use "Johnny" Brodsky's acute remark, as a "running mate to Grant."

Grant's peculiarity lay in the fact that he came from an entirely new class, the obscure and liquor-dealing youth of the city. He was entirely unknown to the business world, or to any other world. He was young, had inherited some fortune from a liquor-dealing father, but had failed to acquire anything that could be called an education. He had been given the shrievalty by Tammany in order to reimburse him for electioneering losses when he ran against Mr. Grace in 1884, and had administered it in such a way as to call down upon himself subsequently a scathing presentment from the grand jury. What was most important was, however, that he represented, as no mayoral candidate had ever done before, what may be called the criminal and semi-criminal population of the city—the brothel-keepers and gamblers, the ward politicians, the corrupt police, and the large army of ignorant Irish, Germans, Bohemians, and Russians who are controlled by the police, constituting altogether the force with which Tammany ever since Tweed's day has contended for the possession of the municipal government. The nature of this force was at that time very well understood and had been fully described.

One would have expected that, under these circumstances, the Republicans would have refrained from running a candidate, and that genuine alarm would have been diffused among the taxpaying classes by Grant's election. But nothing of the kind happened. What did happen was extremely curious. A wave of hope and satisfaction with the new régime actually seemed to pass over the well-to-do classes. Grant received, if not a cordial, a well-marked welcome. He even obtained "social recognition." Attempts were made to make him a diner-out, and he "opened a ball" with Mrs. Astor. To people who asked him naïvely what kind of mayor he was going to be, he answered that "if he didn't prove a good mayor, it would be because he did not know how," and the word was passed round with congratulations. In fact, during the two months between his election and his assumption of office, there arose a belief that he was the coming man of a better era, and we were mysteriously assured that now at last we should have good government, for here was a mayor who had the masses behind him, and therefore could do what he pleased—"the masses" being the criminal and semi-criminal population aforesaid. Grant himself dexterously fostered the prevailing delusion by issuing a sort of manifesto in which he promised to select appointees for all vacancies "from the highest order of citizenship which the county affords." This was a very grateful announcement, because he was the first Tammany mayor to enjoy the absolute power of appointment, without the concurrence of the Board of Aldermen, which had been conceded to the mayor in 1884.

To crown all, he and his confederates in some manner procured the insertion in *Harper's Weekly*, Tammany's deadliest opponent in the Tweed days, of a long article announcing the appearance of a "New Tammany," with entirely new spirit and aims, governed by a "big four," consisting of Croker, Gilroy, Grant, and Cockran, whose portraits accompanied the article. This appeared July 13, 1889, after Grant had been some months in office. In it Croker owes his "preëminence" to "his political sagacity, political honesty, great knowledge of individuals, and spotless personal integrity," and "direct, downright strength of purpose." Cockran owes much to "his handsome presence, polished manners, and gift of rare eloquence," and is "an important and growing man." Grant is young, but won fame by refusing a bribe from Sharp, and is "a well-educated and tolerably astute politician." He is "shrewd and far-seeing," remarkable "for personal honesty and trustworthiness," "entirely fearless, and his party loyalty is beyond question." Gilroy is "a genial, pleasant, obliging man" and "remarkably gifted with business ability." These short extracts give but a very feeble idea of the brilliancy and integrity of the group into whose hands the government of the city had passed. It was all the more gratifying because at that period we were expecting a Columbus Fair in this city, in the management of which these gifted men were to figure largely, and Grant often sat in state at the city hall surrounded by an admiring council of city notables who were preparing for the occasion.

At this point the *Evening Post* took upon itself to make a stand against what it thought to be the prevailing madness, but it had to take it single-handed. It pointed out that Grant was not "well educated," but illiterate, that little or nothing was known about him, that his associations had all been low, that his administration of the sheriff's office had been disorderly and corrupt, and that it was extremely reckless to express any opinion about him till it was seen what his appointments would be. He made his appointments in due course. They were probably the worst lot the city had ever seen in public places, and were exactly of the old Tammany type. Gilroy, and "Barney" and "Jimmy" Martin were among them. Apropos of all this, the *Evening Post* pointed out, day after day, under reiterated charges of violence and exaggeration, that the idea that there could be a "new Tammany" was absurd on its face; that the nature of the organization was such that it could not change without ceasing to exist; it was necessarily supported and maintained in its lower strata by the criminal and semi-criminal portion of the population, and drew its revenues mainly from levies on vice. It said: "The society is simply an organization of clever adventurers, most of them in some degree criminal, for the control of the ignorant and vicious vote of the city in an attack on the property of the taxpayers. There is not a particle of politics in the concern any more than in any combination of Western brigands to 'hold up' a railroad train and get the express packages. Its sole object is plunder in any form which will not attract immediate notice from the police."

To justify these assertions, and if possible countervail the impression produced by the article in *Harper's Weekly*, that "the new Tammany" was composed of estimable youths struggling, under adverse circumstances, to give the city good government, the *Evening Post* collected evidence regarding the character and antecedents of the members of the executive committee, or governing body of the organization, with the following results, which were embodied in a pamphlet with extended biographical sketches of the whole gang:

| | |
|---|---|
| Professional Politicians | 28 |
| Convicted Murderer | 1 |
| Tried for Murder and Acquitted | 1 |
| Indicted for Felonious Assault | 1 |
| Indicted for Bribery | 1 |
| Professional Gamblers | 4 |
| Former Gambling-House or "Dive" Keepers | 5 |
| Liquor-Dealers | 4 |
| Former Liquor-Dealers | 5 |
| Sons of Liquor-Dealers | 2 |
| Former Pugilists | 3 |
| Former "Toughs" | 4 |
| Members of the Tweed Gang | 6 |
| Office-Holders | 17 |
| Former Office-Holders | 8 |
| Former Car Conductors | 3 |

| | |
|---|---|
| Former Plasterer | 1 |
| Former Navy-yard Caulker | 1 |
| Former Carpenter | 1 |
| Lawyer | 1 |
| Nominal Lawyers | 2 |
| Favored City Contractors | 2 |

The appearance of this pamphlet touched the leaders on the raw. Their first plan of defence was to have the editor of the *Evening Post* arrested for criminal libel by each of the gifted men composing the committee, in the hope that the annoyance would lead to the suppression of the pamphlet; but, after four failures to get an indictment from the grand jury, this was abandoned, and they apparently came to the conclusion that there was nothing for it but to seem as wicked as they really were. Since then they have attempted no resistance, though the English language has been exhausted by several prints in describing the vileness of their lives. They pocket their money and swallow the abuse.

All this occurred during Grant's first term. It was meant to show the city the real character of the man and his backers, and to prevent, if possible, the great calamity of having all the city offices filled by Tammany men, which would be the sure consequence of giving him a second term. Every one knows what followed. Scott was nominated in opposition to Grant, and the Republicans made a pretence of endorsing him; but 30,000 of them who registered stayed away from the polls, and Grant easily defeated him, and Gilroy in 1892 was elected. And now mark the consequence. Before Gilroy had been two years in office, it had to be generally admitted that so solidly entrenched behind the offices had Tammany become that it would be useless to elect a reform mayor this year without legislation enabling him to dismiss nearly all the city officials.

Let us observe that the evidence taken during the last few weeks by the Lexow committee has established in the fullest manner every charge or insinuation the *Evening Post* ever made against the Tammany organization or its members. At many things, of course, it could only hint. If, for instance, it had said that the police force of the city, from top to bottom, derived a large revenue from the wages of prostitutes—the lowest form of degradation to which civilized man can descend—only few persons would have heeded it, and yet this appears to be the simple truth. The organization is, and has been for twenty-five years, based on vice and crime, and lives by revenues furnished from this source. To suppose, therefore, that two or three men at the top could give it high aims without changing its subordinate agents or its inducements to join, is almost like supposing that something can be made out of nothing, or grapes be made to grow on thorns. Yet this great delusion has prevailed among us for nearly six years. Will the next generation fall a victim to it again?

*THE PULLMAN BOYCOTT.*

THE present boycott of the Pullman Car Company had its beginning in a reduction of wages which was forced upon the company last year by the panic. The company promised to restore the old rates as soon as business conditions would permit. Car-building is subject to competition, like other trades. Railroad companies buy cars where they can get them cheapest. Under the influence, or rather the inexorable law, of competition, the prices of cars have fallen in the last two years 24 per cent., and work is very slack at the reduction. Every car-builder, large or small, is anxious to keep his men together, both as a matter of humanity and as a means of taking advantage of the revival of business when it comes. It is for the interest of employer and employee alike to "grin and bear it" for a while, especially seeing that wages do not grow on trees and cannot be had except upon the condition of meeting the market. These conditions are sometimes hard. In fact, they are so hard in some countries that large numbers of people perish for want of sufficient nourishment every year. Anybody who fights against them, or who assumes that they do not exist, or who spends his time cursing the "iron law of wages," will go supperless to bed and will get no other reward for his pains. He may deprive some other people of their wages at the same time that he is losing his own, and that is what we are witnessing now on a pretty large scale.

On the 7th of May last the workmen of the Pullman car works made a formal request for a restoration of the wages they were receiving before the reduction of last year. Mr. Pullman met them two or three days later and gave the reasons why the conditions of business would not allow the restoration of the old rates. He said that the business depression and the reduction of orders for cars had compelled the company to reduce their force from 5,816 men in the beginning of 1893 to 2,000 on the 1st of November; that by hard struggling and by underbidding for work he had been able to keep the latter number employed and to increase the number gradually until he had 4,200 employed. How he had done this he explained in detail. He took an order for 55 passenger-cars for the Long Island Railroad at $300 per car less than the actual cost to the Pullman Company. He took an order for 300 cattle-cars and 250 refrigerator-cars for the Northwestern Railroad at $12 per car less than cost, and 25 cars for the Lake Shore Road at $79 each less than cost.

"I mention these particulars," he said, "so that you may understand what the company has done for the mutual interest and to secure for the people at Pullman and vicinity the benefit of the disbursement of the large sums of money involved in these and similar contracts, which can be kept up only by the procurement of new orders for cars; for, as you know, about three-fourths of the men must depend upon contract work for employment." He added that there was less than sixty days' contract work in sight under all orders, and no possibility of getting any more work at prices measured by the wages of May, 1893. In order to provide work and wages for the town of Pullman, where the company's largest interests lay, he had closed the Detroit works altogether. Furthermore, the company had expended $160,000 in internal improvements which, under normal conditions, would have been postponed or spread over a number of years.

On the day following this exposition of the company's affairs the local committee of the employees ordered a strike, which was at once carried into effect. Mr. Pullman was very much relieved by the removal from his shoulders of the responsibility for the bread and butter of those 4,200 men and their families. The Pullman Savings Bank had on deposit $488,000, nearly all of which belonged to the workingmen. The deposits immediately began to run down, having been reduced by the sum of $32,000 since the strike began—a much smaller reduction than might have been expected, seeing that the pay-rolls before the strike amounted to $7,000 per day. Probably some of the men got work elsewhere.

What followed is well known. The American Railway Union made a demand that the Pullman Company should submit to arbitration the question whether it could afford to raise wages at a time when it was building cars at less than cost merely in order to give the men employment at some rate of pay. An arbitration accepted voluntarily presupposes an agreement to abide by the decision of the arbitrators, but a decision in favor of the employees would not put the company in funds. It would not furnish new orders for cars at higher prices than before. As a decision adverse to the company could not be complied with in any event, an arbitration would have been not merely useless but a downright mockery, and, if adverse, would have left the company in a still worse position—a position implying bad faith. Probably the Railway Unionists had this fact in view when they insisted so strongly on arbitration, and when they refused the company's offer to submit its books to examination by a committee of the employees.

The present boycott is an attempt to starve out society. The whole population subsists by the movement of trains, and cannot exist more than a few days without such movement. When the pinch comes, it will be not merely the duty but the dire necessity of everybody—lawyers, doctors, merchants, and all who depend upon their labor for their

bread—to offer their services to the railroads as guards, or switchmen, or trainmen or what not. In passing judgment upon the enormity of the offence which the American Railway Union is committing, it must be remembered that not only is the strike which it has ordered entirely a "sympathetic" one, but that no warning was given to the different railroad companies which would have enabled them to meet the situation.

### *THE REAL PROBLEM OF THE UNEMPLOYED.*

IT is pleasant to note that the general nervousness and vague fear of last winter in reference to the unemployed have now so largely given way to a season of reflection and analysis. It is no longer enough for a set of men to exhibit themselves as an Army of the Unemployed to inspire sympathy or terror in the staid citizen and to make him feel that Congress or the State or city government should "do something." The time has come to cross-examine the unemployed, to ask them how they came into their present evil estate, what work they ever did and how they came to lose their jobs, and what work they could or would do now if it were offered them. Such questioning is the surest way to rid ourselves of the notion that there is anything new or particularly threatening about the matter as it presents itself today, but that it is simply the old question over again of what society is to do with the incapable and unwilling who cannot, or will not, earn an honest living.

We recently had occasion to refer to several interesting reports from American municipalities and charity organizations, which help to a cool understanding of who the chronic unemployed are and how they came to be so, and now we find strong corroboration of American experience in an article published in the June *Charities Review* on "The English Municipalities and the Unemployed." The writer, Mr. Edward Porritt, gives a running account of the reports which seventy-three municipalities made to the Local Government Board in regard to providing work for the unemployed within their bounds. The experiment is no novelty in England. Ever since the labor agitators "threw a scare" into the politicians of both parties in 1885, the demands and threats of the unemployed have been steadily intensifying, and the Local Government Board has issued a circular ever since 1886, urging vestries to give work to idle men. This work was to be of a kind which would not "involve the stigma of pauperism," which "all can perform," which "does not compete with that of other laborers," and "which is not likely to interfere with the resumption of regular employment in their own trades by those who seek it."

The results reported by the seventy-three municipal authorities cannot be claimed by the most enthusiastic advocate of state labor as furnishing any water for his mill. In a great majority of the cases the work was unsatisfactorily done and at an increased cost. The Hanover Square vestry for some weeks kept forty men at work repairing roads. The surveyor in charge reports that "the result has been simply to benefit the men employed at an increased expenditure of £2,000 over the annual estimates for labor and material." The Hampstead vestry hired snow-sweepers, and they were reported to be "idle, incapable of hard work, and not amenable to discipline." Carpentering work was offered by the Hackney Board of Works, but the "carpenters struck the first day for trades-union rate of wages." Some of the suffering unemployed were offered work at Finchley at fivepence an hour, but declined it on the ground that "their ordinary wage was sixpence." Mr. Porritt sums up by showing how the class of men described in the Government Board circular, "who honestly dread the pauper stigma," do not come within the scope of any of these schemes to provide work by municipalities. One report states that the men belonged to "the class of permanently unemployed"; which, says Mr. Porritt, "is the official and English way of stating that they were corner men, loafers." It is also clear from the English experiments that the popular use of the term "unskilled labor" is very inaccurate.

> "According to the reports of the municipal engineers, sewering, road-making, the grading of parks and gardens, and even stone-breaking, gravel-digging, and street-sweeping, cannot any longer be classed as unskilled work. Strength and endurance are needed for all this class of work, and also some degree of skill. Yet in the past it has all been carelessly grouped under the one comprehensive term of unskilled labor, and popularly regarded as work upon which any man may be put if nothing better or more suitable is offering for him."

All these investigations show how idle it is to imagine that any amount of work offered by Government or individuals would solve the problem of the permanently unemployed. Mr. Charles Booth, who knows more about the London unemployed than any man living, has justly said: "Lack of work is not really the disease; and the mere provision of it is, therefore, useless as a cure." In a recent address the Rev. Canon Barnett, warden of Toynbee Hall, that home of Christian socialism, made the following absolutely correct statement: "The unemployed, calmly considered, is not an army of willing workers; but is rather a body largely made up of those half employed, those unfit for employment, and those unwilling to be employed." It is clear that the real problem, therefore, is not to provide work, but to make men competent and willing to work. But that is a problem as old as civilization, as old as life itself. Nature's remedy is well known. Work or starve is the sharp dilemma she offers. Society's solution has hitherto been, Support yourself or go to the workhouse, or, if you are diseased or crippled, go to an asylum. The new system of coddling is no improvement. It makes men both more incompetent and more unwilling to work. If the State is to interfere at all with the operation of natural law in this matter, it should be in the aim to raise incompetence into fitness, to brand unwillingness as a crime. How to do that is the real problem of the unemployed.

### CAUSSES AND GORGES OF THE CÉVENNES.

MONTPELLIER, May 16, 1894.

EVERY reader of Stevenson knows intimately the region through which he took that memorable journey 'With a Donkey through the Cévennes'—the bleak uplands over which Modestine so unwillingly bore the traveller's sleeping bag, among Trappists and surly peasants and psalm-singing Camisards. Whatever part of this strange mountain country Stevenson chose to describe became the most interesting part; but man and nature evidently had helped to draw him further south, where the historical monuments are more numerous, and where are to be found three kinds of remarkable scenery, the plateaus of the Causses, the gorges, and the singular rock formations. Between the direct railway lines from Paris to Nîmes and Perpignan lies the saddle of the southern Cévennes, a region about fifty miles square, unpenetrated by a railway. Few travellers descend at the stations of Mende, Millau, or Anduze, whence the roads lead inland; but here at Montpellier I heard strange tales of roaring caves, unfathomable pits, narrow defiles, and rock cities, and three hours by rail took me to Pont d'Hérault, the southern gateway of the mysterious land.

The first day's journey was devoted to crossing the Aigoual, the highest mountain of the southern range, and a point of view over the *causses*. As far as Valleraugue, ran one of the astonishingly cheap and correspondingly dirty post-omnibuses which connect the principal towns. Thence a long ascent on foot gave opportunity for some generalizations on French highways. The road was a splendid hard *chaussée*, zigzagging up the desolate slope, the sections looking like the *disjecta membra* of a sea-serpent. It is a route little travelled and without great military importance; but French engineers do not know how to make a steep, irr gular, rough, or unsafe road. Substantial walls protect the outer edges, solid stone bridges cross the streams, distance is increased if necessary to secure an easy grade. Over the very summit of the Aigoual, a little more than five thousand feet high, runs the curious immemorial highway called the Draye; it is a broad track, marked by low walls, and indented by the travel of herds and carts for twenty-five centuries. Like the Rennstieg in Thuringia and the early highways in New Hampshire, it avoids bridges and détours by boldly following the comb of the mountain ridge from south to north. The country is a kind of historical exhibition of road systems: near this pre-historic unmade road are remnants of the steep and direct Roman highways, the rough mediæval mule-paths, the narrow and irregular wheel-tracks of the last century, and the

park-like modern *chaussées*. The causses region, with the numerous wide gorges, compel such Alpine engineering skill that an American hangs his head to think how much easier and better these highways are than the best country roads at home.

From the broad open dome of the Aigoual, the only granitic interloper in the family of the Cévennes, the topography of the country is manifest. A nearly level area, about three thousand feet above the sea, and probably an ancient "base-level," is underlaid by horizontal and pervious strata of limestone. The comparatively new streams have cut down deep cañons, back to their sources; but the lateral streams are hardly developed: hence between the gorges of the Tarn and its affluents, the Tarnon, Jonte, and Dourbie, stand the causses, enormous mesas, sometimes twenty miles across, and everywhere breaking off into imposing cliffs. It is a country such as the plateau of the Colorado is described to be, yet habitable and easily reached.

To begin the day's walk was easier than to end it, for the big farm-house at Sext-les-Cabanes was already overflowing with a household of thirty people—inmates and invited guests—and I was compelled to cut short the pleasure of sitting at the great open fire and talking to the hospitable host; an undue fastidiousness took me past the hostelry on the neighboring hill, and I was at last obliged to surprise the proprietor of a roadside *auberge* by knocking for a lodging. Yet, though he could give me only a rough place in the loft, I had the experience, usual in the Cévennes, of finding a clean and comfortable bed, tolerable food, and kindly people. There appear to be no summer stations in this part of the Cévennes; but the village inns, in spite of their dirty public rooms, leave rather a pleasant memory.

The road to Sainte-Enimie passes from the *auberge* through an elaborate tunnel, down a wild Alpine ravine to the Tarnon, and thence along the gorges of that stream and of the Tarn. Although it skirts the perpendicular walls of Causse Méjean nearly all the way, the road is more interesting for the passers by and the villages than for the scenery. The host at the *auberge* had served in the war against the Prussians, and had views as to the wastefulness of a three-years' peace service. All the way along, pleasant country folk were passing —carters, farmers, even a young man wearing the cap of the "Armée du Salut." It is rather a commonplace people, with little that is unusual in dress or manners, but habituated to dialects beyond the understanding of a foreigner. At the mid-day station of Florac there were even the regular commercial travellers, audibly partaking of soup and chattering over the wholesale price of wine.

Yet Florac was a Catholic stronghold in the fierce war of the Camisards, which showed the people of the Cévennes to be a tough and unconquerable race. The causses seem remote, but they have had their part in many of the world's great events. Across them marched armies over the two Roman roads; among the causses in 1627 Rohan made his desperate and unsuccessful attempt to resist the King of France; in the causses flamed up the memorable rising of the Protestants in 1702, the most stubborn of the protests against the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. When one sees the country, one understands something of the tenacity of Roland and his guerilla force, and his successful resistance to a marshal of France. The whole countryside is a stronghold; the causses are fortresses, the cañons impassable passes. It was only by building twenty roads across the country and by destroying more than four hundred houses that the insurrection was subdued; and yet Protestantism lived through all that persecution. Perhaps the women who wore out their lives in the prison tower at Aigues-Mortes for the crime of attending Protestant conventicles, were strengthened in their stubbornness by the sight of the distant Aigoual, whence Cavalier had descended to scatter the King's armies. At any rate, after a hundred years during which no marriage was possible except for adherents of the Church, when Protestant worship had apparently disappeared, the flame relighted spontaneously, and ever since the Revolution a considerable part of the population of the Cévennes has been strongly Protestant.

All the way from Ispagnac, six miles below Florac, the gorge of the Tarn deepens and narrows; but it was reserved for the third day's journey, from Sainte-Enimie to Peyreleau, to reveal the peculiar beauty of the valley. From the guide-books, both Baedeker and Miriam, one gathers that the gorge is a dark and gloomy chasm, shut in between beetling black cliffs, spanned by a narrow strip of sky, and resounding with the roaring of cataracts. In reality, the river flows easily and unbrokenly (except for two dams and one rapid) through a cañon smiling with green, abounding in singing-birds, and breaking out in cliffs of superb color, crowned with fantastic and beautiful rock formations. The walls rise in successive giant steps, leaving a green edge along many parts of the stream, and thickly wooded shelves and slopes higher up. There is a footpath all the way, usually on the edge of the river, but several times rising to terraces five hundred feet above, so as to avoid the overhanging buttresses of the mountains. Quaint villages appear, Chely du Tarn, and Hauterive, and La Sablière, almost indistinguishable from the gray rocks upon which they are perched. Caves are hollowed in the upper cliffs or near the stream, and one of them is walled in for a human habitation. Abundant springs gush out at the foot of the cliffs, fed by secret channels from the causses above. Here and there appears a château such as the beautiful La Case, a castle straight out of Turner's pictures, set within a pocket of the cliffs, in the midst of luxuriant trees, overhung by a cavern, hemmed in by the river; its gray towers looking less artificial than the red rocks above.

Below La Malcue the path becomes more capricious, and where it plunges upward the weary traveller took a broad and easy way which he knew runs into an "impasse," at a lonely farm. The only visible inhabitant was a girl in a cherry-tree, who consented to be the mouthpiece of a request for a boatman; and her clear, musical voice rings out across the gorge to an invisible person more than half a mile away. Voices reverberate, and in due time two men appear—for the shallow and rapid river is navigable, and more luxurious travellers descend in boats all the way from Sainte-Enimie. Presently one of these boats poked its shovel nose over the edge of the bank; it is shaped like an elongated flat-iron, with perfectly flat bottom, set with rows of big wrought-iron nails, and straight sides. An ordinary chair receives the passenger, while the boat, which draws about three inches, is guided or propelled by short stakes in the hands of two gondoliers. No motion could be smoother or more luxurious, no shallows more limpid, no deep pools more clear. The trout, plainly visible as they make their swift way up stream, were not more at home than we. Thus we slipped along through the magnificent defile of the Détroit. There are many deeper gorges—the edges of the causses are only about eighteen hundred feet above; there are many wilder ravines—the river is only at two places actually hemmed in on both sides by high cliffs. But one seldom sees such lavishness of form and color. The cliffs, grey, blue, brown, purple, golden, and black, are partly clothed with feathery trees; everywhere, up to the very top, are the carvings left by running water; caves of several stories; flat arches eight hundred feet high against the face of the rock; shelves with overhanging rocks a mile long; natural arches; rows of yellow pinnacles two hundred feet high, planted at intervals up a long slope, and a fretwork of fantastic rocks all along the top of the regular cliff. At the narrowest point the cliffs so overhang the stream as to look like an enormous broken vault, within which all the Baths of Caracalla might be set. The current too rapidly carries the traveller through these wonders to the point where the stream disappears into the tumbled mass of rocks caused by a mountain fall, the Pas de Souci. It is the precise spot where Sainte-Enimie, in a somewhat undignified pursuit of her and her convent's arch enemy, called on the mountain to stop him, and the big rock called the Sourde obligingly pinned him down, and still bears the mark of his burning claw. Below this point the gorge renews its stately beauty, but the mind is satiated with grandeur, and the body gratefully accepts the kitchen fire and the fried trout of the comfortable inn at Peyreleau.

The town is one of the most picturesque in the region. Like nearly all of them, it is grouped about and beneath a castle; but the old town walls and towers have been removed in all these villages, and, except at Nant, there is no remarkable church. Millau still possesses a mediæval town-hall, cathedral, and a timber house which may have been built when Millau was a frontier stronghold for the English. Above Peyreleau lies the gorge of the Jonte, similar in character to that of the Tarn, and penetrated by a road lying high up under the wall of Causse Méjean. Above Meyrucis—a Protestant centre in the war of the Camisards—the road winds up through one of the few old forests of the Cévennes to the plateau of the Causse Noire. A kindly farmer gave the pedestrian a lift, and told him that the peasants of the causses were contented and even well-to-do. It shows in them a cheerful character, for the outlook was cold and barren; low, flat hillocks of naked limestone made up a treeless and waterless waste; the immature valleys were dry, or led to sink-holes; the village of Lanuéjols was dirty and depressing. Yet from the well-made *chaussée* were visible good fields of grain, and there are abundant flocks. In fact, the peasants of the causses furnish a droll connection between two of the best-known French industries, the cheesemaking of the neighboring Roquefort, and the glovemaking of Millau; for the week-old lambs sacrifice their skins in order that their mothers' milk may go to the cheese factory.

The causses and the cañons make and supplement each other; it still remained to examine the curious rock-formations which in so many places mark the line where the plateaus break off. By common consent the most remarkable group of these formations is the labyrinth known as Montpellier le Vieux, almost ten miles from Millau. A climb of an hour from the road along the Dourbie brings one suddenly into this uncanny place. The

first impression is one of personal injury. Is this the "rock city" which the guide-books promise, this group of white rocks, indistinguishable from below, unknown ten years ago, and only one of half-a-dozen neighboring groups scattered along the edge of the Causse Noire? Are these spaces, between the rocks, the corridors and streets and arcades of which people talk? It is only after wandering about, penetrating the mass, and climbing to the Douminal, the highest and most majestic pinnacle, that one begins to appreciate the extraordinary grandeur of nature's architecture. It stands above the level of the causse behind it, and looks almost straight down fifteen hundred feet into the gorge of the Dourbie. The base is a soft, regular green mound, upon the slopes of which rise a wilderness of detached and giant rocks, from twenty to three hundred feet high; on this absolutely waterless spur of a waterless causse, every rock bears the mark of the carrying power of a running stream. The resulting forms are not only fantastic and beautiful, they are on a scale and of a kind not commensurate with human language, because not comparable with any works of man. Gradually one sees a kind of plan in it all: about the central group lie four basins, the shallow heads of ravines; in each are arranged long parallel ridges, which are subdivided by cross alleys into detached blocks, many of them perforated by caves, and some opened into magnificent gateways. It is not a city, for what city has streets set on either side with buildings a hundred and fifty feet high? It is not a sanctuary, for even in Egypt there are no monoliths that cover an acre. It is not a fortress, for no artillery could batter such breaches through walls a hundred feet thick. Imagine all the tombs and ruins of the Campagna, all the broken piers and arches of the aqueducts crowded together into a space of five hundred acres, the lower part still hacked and cut away by the Barbarians, and you have some conception of the magnificence of Montpellier le Vieux. All this is set on a mountain top, in absolute loneliness, with views of similar majestic forms in every direction. To the geologist it must be a puzzle, and at the same time a remarkable instance of the power of water and wind to shape solid stone. To the layman it is the most fascinating of all the beauties of this remarkable region.

ALBERT BUSHNELL HART.

# Correspondence.

## THE BUREAU OF ROLLS BULLETIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In No. 1513 of the *Nation*, June 28, very fairly reviewing the Bulletin of the Bureau of Rolls and Library of the Department of State, you say, of the miscellaneous index, "in No. 3 it ranges from Adam to Zeisberger (the last entry being a repetition, by way of correction, of the same item entered in Bulletin No. 1 under 'Feisberger,' but, alas! a fresh error is perpetrated by misspelling 'Ziseberger')."

Will you kindly allow me space for a correction, and a word more? The spelling "Ziseberger" is correct; no fresh error has been made, although it is easy to see how the reviewer has been led to think so. The index, of course, bears the name found in the autograph signature of the letter indexed. In the two letters mentioned in Bulletin No. 3 the autograph signature is "D. Ziseberger."

In the Introductory Note to the Documentary History of the Constitution, to be found with the title-page for volume i., at the end of the Appendix, Bulletin No. 3, the following statement is made:

"The purpose in view being to avoid controversy and to meet the demand of historical scholars and students by presenting the contents of the papers themselves, as classed and filed in the Department, and as verified by the records, and nothing more, the editorial function is confined to the general form of the text, and to such notes as may be indispensable to clear display."

This purpose was not determined upon without very careful consideration of other views, and the attitude assumed would seem to be justified both by circumstance and example. As it is the purpose to add nothing, so it is the purpose to withhold nothing; at the same time only official and authentic records can be properly used in the Bulletin to amplify or explain the Archives. ANDREW HUSSEY ALLEN.

WASHINGTON, D. C., June 29, 1894.

## THE NILE CORVÉE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: At last her Majesty's Government have acknowledged the deception practised upon the civilized world by the pretended abolition of forced labor in Egypt. In 1891 Lord Cromer said: "The corvée has been wholly abolished." In the same Parliamentary Report, Sir C. Scott-Moncrieff said: "In 1890, for the first time, perhaps, in all history, there was no corvée in Egypt." Lord Cromer now states that these assertions were absolutely and unqualifiedly false. He concedes that the Powers placed at the disposal of the Public Works Department £400,000 ($2,000,000) annually because "the laborer is worthy of his hire." He knew that the assertion, made with every guarantee of truth, that this money had been applied to the extinction of forced, unfed, and unpaid labor, to the suppression of a serfage in comparison with which any such corvée as that of the French peasant before the Revolution was the lightest of burdens—was universally believed to be true. In the last Parliamentary Report, Lord Cromer states that the corvée is used in guarding the Nile banks; that it is "a hardship" and "an evil"; that it amounted last year to a total of over six million days' work of forced, unfed, and unpaid labor; that peasants, arbitrarily selected—"in the usual manner"—were required to work, "on an average," for eighty-five days, in Lower Egypt.

He seeks to minimize the wrong by saying that "the work was done at a time when, the country being more or less flooded, the mass of the agricultural population cannot work on their fields." This is a mean subterfuge. Lord Cromer knows perfectly well that, during the three months of high-Nile, the peasants of the Delta are at work in their fields, and that no considerable part of Lower Egypt is ever flooded. Fifty-two thousand peasants were taken from their fields as well as their homes, even if a considerable part of the thirty thousand peasants of Upper Egypt would have been awaiting the falling waters to sow their inundation crop.

There is no longer any pretence that the laborers cannot be obtained. "The people willingly come out and work for payment." "It is possible to insure each man employed receiving his daily wage." Lord Cromer fixed the amount of winter corvée in 1884 at 5,100,000 days' work. Conceding that it was not diminished by changes in the irrigation system, as we were assured that it had been, these five million days' work were paid for out of two millions of dollars, practically of land-tax, granted by the Powers. But Lord Cromer now states that a day's work can be redeemed for fifteen cents; which would make a total for the winter corvée of $750,000. This would leave $1,250,000 to redeem the Nile corvée, which is estimated by the English inspectors-general of irrigation at only $900,000. Is it surprising that a demand is constantly made for the subjection of the accounts of the Public Works Ministry to an independent auditor, when such glaring discrepancies are disclosed by even such a relatively superficial inquiry as that which we are enabled to make from reports in whose most solemn asseverations, as we have seen, not the slightest confidence is to be placed?

To any suggestion that the debt of Egypt had been increased by 25 per cent.; that the cultivation of tobacco had been prohibited; that crime was rife; that five millions of Sudanese had perished by agonizing deaths in four years; that the troops amnestied at Tel el Kebir as a condition of surrender had been deported to Darfur, and not a man was left alive of more than twenty-five thousand of Arabi's soldiers; that the cruel tax invented and imposed under the title of *rachat militaire* was a monstrous abuse of delegated powers—to all and sundry of the administrative errors which could not be denied or concealed, England answered: "We have wholly abolished the corvée." And now it is admitted that this has never been done. An illusion has been dispelled. COPE WHITEHOUSE.

LONDON, June 22, 1894.

## "BACK AND FORTH."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: This phrase is generally characterized as an Americanism, and, inasmuch as its use is now confined to America, is correctly so characterized. To judge from the treatment of it by the *Standard Dictionary*, however, it is current English; an opinion which is supported by an unfortunate mistake resulting from the carelessness of one of Dr. Murray's multitudinous readers.

Dr. Murray gives only two quotations for it, one of them being from Mr. E. P. Roe, and the other running as follows:

"1839. *Anecd. & Trad.* (Camd). Young girls . . . dance over the candle *back and forth*."

To satisfy my curiosity, I have consulted the book thus referred to, and have there found:

"The young girls in and about Oxford have a sport called Leap Candle, for which they set a candle in the middle of the room, in a candlestick, and then draw up their coats in the form of breeches, and dance over the candle *back and forth*, with these words:

"'The Taylor of Bisiter he has but one eye;
He cannot cut a pair of green Galagaskins, if he were to try.'

"This sport, in other parts, is called dancing the Candle Rush." Bp. White Kennet (died 1728), in W. J. Thoms's *Anecdotes and Traditions* (1839), p. 96.

For *back and forth* I can produce but one other quotation from any English author:

"But the Marriners, having once gotten them aboard, did make their ships as so many prisons, or houses of torture, to wrest their wealth out of their hands, lengthning the time by circular and vnnecessarie turnings, *backe and forth*," etc.—Rev. Dr. Thomas Jackson, *Commentaries vpon the Apostles Creede*, vol. i., p. 196 (1613).

That *back and forth* was ever better than a provincialism is unlikely. I have met with no notice of it in anything that has been written on the English dialects. Yet a neighbour of mine, a clergyman, informs me that, in Devonshire, of which he is a native, when a person goes on showing the palm and the back of his hand alternately, he is said to turn his hand *back and forth*.

*Back and fore*, "the hinder part foremost or before," is mentioned in Mr. F. T. Elworthy's *West Somerset Word-book*. *Back and to*, "to and from," is entered in Mr. Robert Holland's *Glossary of Words used in the County of Chester*. *Forth and back* is heard in Cornwall, on the authority of a writer in *Notes and Queries*, February 17, 1894. *Voar an' back* is used in Devonshire, according to Mr. R. Pearse Chope's *Dialect of Hartland*.

Did we get *back and forth* from England? Or was it altered, among us, from the *back and fore* which many immigrants must have brought over from Scotland, where it has been for many generations familiar? So far as at present appears, our colonial forefathers knew nothing of it; at any rate, neither Dr. Witherspoon nor the Rev. Jonathan Boucher records it as one of the eccentricities of speech which marked Americans between 1761 and 1775. Mr. Pickering, in 1816, calls it "a very common expression in New England," adding, "but it is used only in conversation." Of late years, as all are aware, it has invaded our literature frequently. Whether Mr. S. G. Goodrich, Dr. J. G. Holland, Mr. G. P. Marsh, Mr. Richard Grant White, Mr. J. R. Lowell, Mr. W. D. Howells, Mr. C. D. Warner, Prof. T. R. Lounsbury, and others have adopted it from ignorance, or, if not so, with design to lend their aid towards establishing a new dialect, is matter of speculation. F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, March 21, 1894.

P. S. In No. 1456 it was pointed out that the adverbial *back of* is not peculiar to the United States, but has been long prevalent in Ireland. Now it turns out that it is known in at least one part of England, also, shortened from the dialectal *aback of*. See Mr. R. O. Heslop's *Northumberland Words*.

Subjoined is a quotation for a colloquial Hibernianism, hitherto unnoticed, *to the back of*, "immediately after," in which sense there was, of old, *on the neck of*, *in the neck of*:

"He made her drink a bumper, and another *to the back of it*." Anon., *History of Ned Evans* (1796), vol. i., p. 185.

To my letter in No. 1497, it may be added, that in Fielding's *Tom Jones*, *at all* occurs thirty-two times, and sixty-five times in Cardinal Newman's *Apologia*.

# Notes.

MERRILL & BAKER, New York, have in preparation a number of new editions with illustrations in photogravure—George Eliot's 'Mill on the Floss,' in two volumes, McCarthy's 'History of Our Own Times,' in four volumes, More's 'Utopia,' and Anacreon.

A biography of Bismarck by Hans Blum will be published during the present year in five volumes, at five marks each, by C. H. Beck in Munich. The part which has already appeared contains an interesting account of Bismarck's life as a student at Göttingen in 1832 and 1833, where his skill in fence won for him the surname "Achilles the invulnerable." In three terms he fought twenty duels and received only a single wound, of which the scar on his lower jaw near the lip is still perceptible; but as this was caused by his adversary's blade flying from the hilt, it was contrary to the code, or *Comment*, and declared to be a "Sauhieb" (foul blow), and therefore "invalid," so that his reputation for invulnerability remained technically unimpaired. Indeed, he became so notorious in this respect that the University authorities forbade him to fight certain projected duels, on pain of expulsion; and a month later he was sentenced to three-days' incarceration for a like offence. His first duel was with an Englishman, who had spoken in derision of "the German Michael with his night-cap over his ears and in a motley dressing-gown made up of thirty-six shreds and patches"—alluding to the many petty States of Germany. With an American student he made a bet that Germany would be politically united in twenty years. The wager was twenty-five bottles of champagne, to be drunk in the country of the winner. After the lapse of this score of years, in 1853, Bismarck was preparing to cross the sea in order to pay the bet, when he learned that the American had died, and adds: "The name he bore did not presage a long life—Coffin."

'Beyond the Rockies,' by C. A. Stoddard (Scribners), is the somewhat vague designation of a book which is better described in its subtitle, "A Spring Journey in California." It is a very superficial glimpse of southern and central California as seen by a Raymond tourist. Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona come in for brief mention by the way, and one chapter describes a visit to an Indian school. Santa Barbara, with its Spanish quarter and flower festivals, is well described, but the chapters on the Yosemite are chiefly a record of the misfortunes and fatigues which prevented the writer from seeing anything. No doubt the Southern Pacific Railway does manage things very badly, but when one writes a book on such a region, he ought to make himself independent of time-tables and excursion parties. We are surprised that so hasty a traveller should have a chapter on the seldom-visited Hetch-Hetchy Valley; but the description proves to be a copy of a friend's letter. The twenty-three full-page photogravures are the best things in the book.

'The Garden that I Love,' by Alfred Austin (Macmillan & Co.), is a sort of vent for the author's opinions on all topics—a book which might have been written in response to a certain child's naïve request when entertaining an older person, "Please tell me all you know." However interesting such books may be to the author's friends, they run some risk with the public. This one will not please a gardener more than a poet or a silversmith. It contains something about a garden, to be sure, and also something about a house and the furnishings thereof; something about a tea-urn, about Veronica, Lamia, and "the poet," with specimen poems thrown in; but not enough about any one thing to gratify any special taste.

Contrary to established precedent, from Æsop down, the animals in 'The Jungle Book,' by Rudyard Kipling (The Century Co.), have not learned to talk merely for the sake of delivering moral lectures. This will recommend the book to young people who are not in special search of improvement, as well as to their elders, who presumably never need it. Relieved of all fear of having a moral sprung upon them, they can give themselves up to undivided enjoyment of these genuinely interesting creatures, and feel a pleased surprise at the end to think they have learned so much about the "jungle folks" without having to read a single dull sentence. The chief personage is Mowgli, a boy who was carried off by a tiger and rescued and brought up by a genteel family of wolves. Their education of him was so judicious and successful that we should hardly be surprised to hear of a prosperous jungle boarding-school for boys under their direction, when these stories become well known.

'Children's Singing Games, with the tunes to which they are sung,' collected and edited by Alice B. Gnome (Macmillan), is the first book of a series of which a second is promised for next Christmas. It is tastefully printed, and so freely adorned with pictures that it will interest even such children as do not care much for the poems, prose, or melodies that make up the bulk of it.

'The Inflections and Syntax of the Morte d'Arthur of Sir Thomas Malory' (Boston: Ginn & Co.) is a monograph which does the author, Dr. C. S. Baldwin, much credit. Some of the remarks about forms are of no great moment, but the syntactic matter will all be welcome to specialists. Malory's position, chronologically and "litteraturgeschichtlich," makes so good a study of his syntax as Dr. Baldwin's an important contribution to a neglected department of English linguistic history. One may pick a flaw here and there, but only Momus would make much of such trifles in view of the general excellence of the book. The material is abundant and arranged with remarkable clearness and method. We hope Dr. Baldwin will continue his syntactic investigations.

The aftermath of the World's Fair at Chicago which has been a whole year in gathering is represented at this moment on our table by four solid volumes. One of these emanates from the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education, and contains the proceedings of Section E of the World's Engineering Congress, July 31–August 5, 1893, on the subject of engineering education. Another and larger volume is the Proceedings of the International Congress of Education, July 25-28, 1893, edited very conscientiously and intelligently by N. A. Calkins (Washington: Z. Richards, 1301 Corcoran Street). It is a reference work of permanent value, and is well printed and indexed. There is no teacher in any grade of instruction who could not profit by this classified collection of papers from all quarters of the globe. Huger still in appearance, though containing fewer than the 1,000 pages of the volume just named, is 'The World's Congress of Representative Women, May 15-22, 1893,' edited by May Wright Sewall (Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.; New York: J. A. Hill & Co., 44 East Fourteenth Street). Here the striking feature is the large number of portraits, mostly of the women who participated in the congress. The text offers much food for reflection in ways intended and in others. The last volume on our list is also the most elegant: 'Memoirs of the International Congress of Anthropology, August 28-September 2, 1893,' edited by C. Staniland Wake (Chicago: Schulte Publishing Co.). The divisions of the contents are physical anthropology, archæology, ethnology, folk-lore, religions, and linguistics, besides a supplement consisting of two papers in German. The names of a portion of the writers—D. G. Brinton, Franz Boas, Otis T. Mason, Carl Lumholtz, Walter Hough, John C. Fillmore, Alice C. Fletcher, Frank H. Cushing, W. W. Newell, Horatio Hale, Washington Matthews, Cyrus Adler, Morris Jastrow, jr.—suffice to indicate the worth and readability of these memoirs.

'Die Medicinische Wissenschaft in den Vereinigten-Staaten,' by Dr. S. Placzek (Leipzig: Thieme), is a little volume of "Reisestudien" made in connection with a visit to the Columbian World's Fair. The author does full justice to the evolution and application of medical science in the United States, and pays a warm and willing tribute of praise to whatever he finds worthy of commendation in arrangements for the prevention of disease or for the cure and care of the sick. He saw much to admire in our hospitals, especially in those founded by private beneficence or connected with universities, as, for example, at Johns Hopkins, but speaks in severe terms of the sanitary condition of our large cities, which seem to have made an unfavorable impression upon him, both architecturally and hygienically. As the regulations on paper are sufficiently strict, he does not understand why the streets of our chief metropolis should be in such a filthy state. Dr. Placzek has a chapter on "The American Physician" and the ethics of the profession. The work is profusely illustrated.

Among the several excellent articles which compose the volume 'Nouvelles Études de Littérature et d'Art,' by M. G. Larroumet (Paris: Hachette), the last, on Max Nordau's two-volume arraignment of literary men and artists, 'Entartung,' will certainly attract attention. As a matter of course, M. Larroumet, himself a writer, was not likely to accept without examination and discussion the startling statements made by the Hungarian doctor of medicine. The discussion is contained in this new volume and is vivacious, to say the least. Ibsen also has an article devoted to his genius and his plays, the performance of which in France marks, in M. Larroumet's opinion—and he is a competent authority—a step in the history of French dramatic art. The other articles are, with two exceptions, on French writers and artists.

The sixth volume of 'La Bataille Littéraire,' by Philippe Gille (Paris: Victor-Havard), treats of books which appeared in 1891 and 1892, and will be useful as an occasional reference, but it is not equal to Ginisty's publication, and is, besides, not sufficiently up to date.

Prof. Giuseppe Rossi of Pisa has just added another to his valuable series of monographs on the philosophers of the Renaissance. It is a brief but interesting study of Nicholas of Cusa, in whom the author professes to find a critical monism not unfairly suggestive of Kant and Hegel. Prof. Rossi feels that the Renaissance—the cradle of modernity—has been ignorantly slurred over by historians of philosophy. He believes, moreover, that in the custom of thinkers of that time simultaneously to profess physics with metaphysics, concrete experiment with abstract speculation, lies the one possibility of a sound method. If in his zeal the Italian scholar occasionally confuses his own lights for the lights of his author in hand, he is, nevertheless, we believe, in his main contention right, and we commend his arguments to the notice of students supersaturated with German systems or English want of system.

Mr. George S. Boutwell writes of "Kossuth in New England" in the *New England Magazine* for July. Mr. Boutwell was Governor of Massachusetts at the time, and is one of the group of the reception committee portrayed on page 531, of whom four out of the five attained great prominence in national affairs—Wilson, Banks, and Burlingame, besides the future Secretary of the Treasury. Mr. Boutwell is singularly ill-informed about Kossuth's relations to the abolitionists, and fails altogether to notice Kossuth's bid for the support of a slaveholding republic by refusing to give any countenance to the anti-slavery movement. A brief paper, in the same magazine, on "The First Abolition Journals," by Samuel C. Williams, is a valuable contribution to the history of the precursors of the *Liberator*.

*La Réforme Sociale* for June 1 opens with the address of M. Georges Picot of the Institute before the Société d'Économie Sociale, in which he defends the organized efforts to better the condition of the poor from the attacks of the socialists. Other articles are one upon the manner in which the artisans of Berlin are lodged, and one upon the work of the Société Foncière of Canada in founding French villages on the line of the Canadian Pacific Railway in Manitoba. The most important paper, however, is M. Maurice Barrat's account of the French possessions on the Congo. The inhabitants he divides into two classes, the aborigines and the invaders. The former have nearly disappeared, though singularly their language has survived and has become the commercial language of the colony—the only medium of intercourse between the Europeans and the negroes. Of the material resources of the country, whether mineral or agricultural, he speaks with unusual soberness and caution, calling attention to the fact that though there are abundant evidences of the presence of copper, silver, and iron ores "of great richness," and much of the land is well adapted to the cultivation of coffee and cacao, yet the lack of means of transport to the coast will for a long time prevent the working of the mines or cultivating the land to advantage. It is not the place for the colonist to make a home for his family; only companies with large concessions of territory can accomplish anything. The impression left is that the chief energies of the French authorities hitherto have been directed rather to the extension of their possessions in the interior than to the development of the regions near the coast.

A not much more encouraging account of French colonial enterprise is to be found in the anonymous article on Timbuctoo and the future of the Sudan, in the *Vie Contemporaine*. The principal military events leading to the occupation of this city are briefly sketched, together with the measures taken to bring the western Sudan under the French influence and to unite it with Senegambia on the west and Algeria on the north. The writer frankly acknowledges the worthlessness of much of the territory acquired, especially as compared with the English sphere of influence, but hopes that, with the construction of a trans-Saharan railway, either to the Niger or Lake Tchad, the whole commerce of the Sahara will be turned into French channels.

The persons, chiefly politicians and missionaries, who write with such confidence as to the duty of the European governments immediately to construct railways from the coast to the interior of Central Africa, should ponder a statement just submitted by the Belgian Government to the Chamber regarding the Congo Railway. The work of building a railroad to connect the head of navigation on the river with Stanley Pool was begun in 1890, and at the end of three years "of almost superhuman effort" only the first section of 40 kilometres, about twenty-five miles, has been completed. "The main obstacles to progress have been the climate, the soil, the conformation of the country, and the impossibility of finding capable workmen." It is probably not too much to say that these obstacles would prevail to an even greater extent on the east coast, where the British and Germans are urged to build roads to the great lakes, as well as in the French road across the Sahara, stretching for 1,600 miles through an almost foodless and waterless desert. In each of these cases the difficulty of provisioning the working parties must undoubtedly prove far greater than the providing for the Belgians on the Congo.

A remarkable journey has just been completed by a Frenchman, M. Lionel Decle, who was intrusted by his Government with a scientific mission to study the anthropology and ethnology of the various native races of south and east Africa. Leaving Cape Town in May, 1891, he made his way north through Matabele and Mashonaland to the Zambesi. Thence the transit by way of the great lakes to Uganda proved to be no very difficult task. At Uganda he joined Major Owen's detachment of the British expedition against the King of Unyoro, and accompanied this officer to Wadelai on the Nile, being the first traveller to reach this river from the Cape of Good Hope. Returning to Uganda, he passed through the Masaï country, arriving at the coast in May, just three years from his time of starting.

"Caligula" is the title of the leading article in *Die Zukunft* for June 2, a weekly journal edited by Maximilian Harden and published by Häring in Berlin. No sooner had Dr. Quidde's pamphlet on the crazy son of Germanicus begun to excite attention than Herr Harden wrote a letter to the author urging him to become a regular contributor to *Die Zukunft*, and expressing his regret that the essay had not been printed originally in this paper. Dr. Quidde declined the invitation, on the ground that he was already overburdened with literary work, and added that his political views differed so radically from those of Herr Harden as to render such a journalistic collaboration undesirable. Thereupon Herr Harden reviewed Dr. Quidde's pamphlet in the above-mentioned article, denouncing it as "a gross and utterly worthless caricature" and "a malicious and insidious lese-majesty," and expressing a very unfavorable opinion of a scholar who could put forth such a libel (*Schmähschrift*) and call it an historical study. One thing, however, disturbs him, namely, the eagerness of the German public to buy the pamphlet, of which twenty-one editions have been sold.

We have received from the publisher, H. Laurens, 6 rue de Tournon, Paris, Nos. 10–12 of *Le Modèle*, a fortnightly portfolio of plates labelled "artistic documents and ideas easy to apply or to work up, and intended for artists, amateurs, and industrials." Prof. G. Fraipont presides over the selection, which embraces animal and human figure studies, landscape, and various conventional essays in decoration. There is no proper text, but the cover is used for instructions how "to apply or to work up" the designs of the number, as well as for answers to correspondents.

From Dyrsen & Pfeiffer we have the first five *livraisons* of Maspero's new 'Histoire Ancienne des Peuples d'Orient,' volume one embracing Egypt and Chaldæa. There will be 150 parts like these, or three volumes for the entire work. The typography is worthy of the house of Hachette. The illustrations are very numerous, and exemplify the every-day life of the people or give the characteristic scenery of the East. This history needs no praise from us, but we cannot well examine it until it is further advanced.

In a Note in No. 1507 we described the new

map of France issued in convenient sheets by the Department of the Interior, and stated that the price per sheet folded into a lettered cloth case was one franc. We followed last year's circular, but the price appears to have been raised to one franc five centimes, as we perceive from a sheet dated May, 1894. This means but a cent additional in our money.

—The site of Chicago originally was intersected by a sluggish river flowing into Lake Michigan. In 1848 the Illinois and Michigan Canal was completed, connecting the south branch of Chicago River with the Illinois River. The canal was, in part, supplied with water for its locks by pumping from the South Branch. As Chicago River became more and more foul the pumping facilities were enlarged, and sufficient current from the lake was established to mitigate, and at times to remove, the nuisance; but, during freshets, so strong an outward current was established as to carry sewage to the intake of the water works. During all this time, Chicago had been dreaming of a ship-channel to the Mississippi. Finally, this commercial ambition became so effectively reinforced by the crying sanitary evils that a majestic project, no less than for a huge channel leading from the lake, without pumping, through Chicago, to the Illinois River was adopted, and is now in active construction. This "drainage channel and waterway"—of course, the largest in the world—is to cost some $22,000,000 for about 37 miles. In its engineering aspect the work is of the greatest interest. The highest land to be crossed is about 23 feet above the level of Lake Michigan. The summit rock, over which, before its upheaval, the waters of the lake once flowed 20 feet deep, on their way to the Mississippi Valley, is now only 30 feet above the bed of Niagara River near Buffalo. Across this divide the canal is to be cut with a depth of channel of 18 feet, a bottom width of 160 feet, and a velocity of flow not to exceed three miles per hour. This ultimately constant flow of pure water from Lake Michigan of 600,000 cubic feet per minute will suffice to remove all sewage, to maintain Chicago River in a state of purity, and for ever to obviate the contamination of the city's water supply, which recently caused such a fatal and widespread epidemic of typhoid fever. The history, description, and illustrated details of the work are fully set forth in G. P. Brown's 'Drainage Channel and Waterway' (Chicago: R. R. Donnelley & Sons)—an excellent book, with the most inadequate index that it has been our fate ever to find in any work on a technical subject.

—Apropos of the recent discussion in our columns as to whether or not the Dred Scott case was "the first in which an act of Congress was *decided* by the Supreme Court to be unconstitutional for reasons not relating to its own judicial department," the second part of Prof. James B. Thayer's 'Cases on Constitutional Law,' which has just appeared (Cambridge: Charles W. Sever), contains on pages 480–496 a painstaking compilation of historical and judicial note and comment regarding the case. It supports the view that the only *decision* of the court in the case was that of Justice Nelson, as concisely summarized in the critical review of the case published in 1857 by Messrs. (afterwards Justices) Horace Gray and John Lowell: "A slave taken by his master into a State or Territory where slavery is prohibited by law, and afterwards returning with his master into a slave State and acquiring a residence there, if deemed by the highest court of that State, after his return, to be a slave, must be deemed a slave by the courts of the United States, and, therefore, not entitled to sue in those courts as a citizen of that State." Seven of the nine judges concurred in this conclusion, which was originally intended to be the *opinion* (as it was the *decision*) of the court, until Justice Wayne conceived the idea that the slavery question could be settled by a judicial essay on the whole question, and the case was accordingly remitted to the court for the several justices to write their individual opinions upon. In Judge Nelson's own words, concurred in by all the majority judges, "Our opinion is, that the question is one which belongs to each State to decide for itself, either by its Legislature or courts of justice; and hence, in respect to the case before us, to the State of Missouri, a question exclusively of Missouri law, and which, when determined by that State, it is the duty of the Federal courts to follow. In other words, except in cases where the power is restrained by the Constitution of the United States, the law of the State is supreme over the subject of slavery within its jurisdiction." "The question involved is one depending solely upon the law of Missouri; and . . . the Federal Court sitting in that State . . . was bound to follow it." The case, by a consensus of all the majority judges, being thus disposed of, Judge Taney's famous opinion is shown to be *obiter* and extra-judicial. Judge Curtis seems to have recognized this in the opening words of his dissenting opinion: "I dissent from the opinion pronounced by the chief justice, and from the judgment which the majority of the court think it proper to render," etc. And Prof. Thayer quotes voluminously instances where the opinion of the justice was not the judgment of the court. He makes a strong case for his contention, which seems to have been adopted by Bryce ('American Constitution,' i., pp. 256-7, 1st ed.); but, whatever the *judgment* of the court, it was the chief justice's "*dicta* on various other points touching the legal status of negroes and the constitutional views of slavery," and the intent of the majority to declare the Missouri Compromise unconstitutional, that gave the case its importance in history, and will for all time, rightly or wrongly, cause it to be referred to as "The Dred Scott *decision*."

—At the May meeting of the Royal Astronomical Society of London, that eminent scientist Dr. David Gill, her Majesty's astronomer at the Cape of Good Hope, presented his final results of determination of the sun's distance by measurements on the small planets Victoria and Sappho, and concluded his paper with significant suggestions which are already under consideration by the council of the society. First, he inquires whether, in the opinion of astronomers generally, steps should be taken for a more complete and harmonious organization and partition of the astronomical work of the world from the year 1900; and, second, whether astronomers are ready to enter upon a preliminary study, discussion, and experiment on the practical methods by which the art of observation may be raised to a higher level of accuracy, and its results be derived and published in a more systematic and homogeneous system. If these questions are answered in the affirmative, he further suggests an International Astronomical Congress, say two years hence, to discuss and make the necessary preliminary arrangements, the definitive programme and partition of the work to be undertaken at another general congress in the year 1899. Dr. Gill will be recalled as the originator of the Astro-photographic Congress, first established at Paris about seven years ago, the important work of which is now in progress in a score of observatories in different parts of the world, with the object of mapping the entire heavens photographically near the conclusion of the present century. Surely there is urgent need of convening the congress now proposed by Dr. Gill, and very material advancement of scientific interests would follow.

—Between Mr. W. E. Hall's 'Foreign Powers and Jurisdiction of the British Crown,' which has just issued from the Clarendon Press (New York: Macmillan), and Mr. Piggott's 'Exterritoriality' of two years ago, the British lawyer and the British consular and diplomatic agents are now fairly equipped with specialized treatises in that rather indefinite field. In the part relating to Eastern States ("Oriental" would be a much better term) Mr. Hall's book in its subject would seem to overlap Mr. Piggott's; but somehow we appear to have two thoroughly different books. In looking for light on one or two of the topics made important by current events, we notice that Mr. Hall well says (p. 191), of the powers of consular courts, that they "spring remotely from a delegation made by a sovereign of the territorial state"; yet one would not suspect that this involves the fundamental and much-disputed question of the theory of exterritoriality, and for a full vindication one must seek Mr. Piggott's book. On p. 193 we read that "the territorial sovereign, if he chooses to bring an action in it [the consular court], submits himself, by doing so, as absolutely to the jurisdiction as any other litigant." But in a very important respect this sentence may or may not be law, according to the decision to be given before long by the Privy Council in the *Chishima-Ravenna* case, which is likely, through the imperial rank of one party and the profundity of the principles involved, to be one of the noted cases of modern times. The chapter on "Protectorates, Spheres of Influence, and Barbarous Countries" is timely, and says what can be said of a subject as yet undeveloped and sadly in need of common-sense and systematic regulation. The instinct of the Anglo-Saxon race to hold back from settling a legal incongruity until it becomes unendurable, and its readiness at any time to sacrifice plain justice to respect for nightmare technicalities, are seen to great advantage in these questions of jurisdiction and conflict of authorities; and this chapter will cause the unsophisticated reader to wonder whether, after all, the refinements of "civilized" justice do the world any better service than the legal crudities of "barbarous" countries.

—M. Jules Lemaitre, in one of his recent "Figurines"—a title he gives to a series of very pleasant little impressions which he is contributing to the *Temps*—says that the fame of Virgil in France rests in great part upon three fine sentences which are in everybody's mouth, and which constantly renew his memory. The first of these is the sibylline verse:

Magnus ab integro sæclorum nascitur ordo.

This, he says, is almost always mangled in quoting, and appears as "Novus rerum nascitur ordo." The second is what he calls the "inevitable" "Sunt lacrimæ rerum," which, ever since the time of the early Romanticists, has been intrepidly mistranslated. "Les choses elles-mêmes ont des larmes" is what they take it to mean, and some are fain to as-

sert that they find the whole sum and substance of modern poetry in the phrase. The last quotation of the three is cited in French only: "On se lasse de tout, excepté de comprendre." This is certainly a fine saying, worthy of Sainte-Beuve or of Renan. It possibly belongs to Virgil, for Virgil is often enough surprisingly modern in his thought. Silenus, in the Eclogue, is a good enough evolutionist, and the pantheism of Father Anchises in the sixth 'Æneid' is above reproach. But we cannot be sure that the saying is Virgil's, since it does not appear in any work known to be his, though it is attributed to him by the commentator Servius. It appears, then, that Virgil's popular glory in France rests upon two misunderstandings of his words and one uncertain tradition. It may, however, be said of the misquotation, "Novus rerum nascitur ordo," that it is not quite made up out of the whole cloth. The line in the fourth Eclogue, which M. Jules Lemaitre quotes, may easily have been confused with a line in the seventh 'Æneid,' "Maior rerum nascitur ordo," which fits the French quotation somewhat more closely, and which may not have been in M. Lemaitre's mind as he wrote.

—There is grist for many mills in Strabo's geography, but his colossal work is rather for reference than for reading. It must be confessed, however, that Mr. Tozer's 'Selections from Strabo' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) are really readable as well as a serviceable introduction to the merits of the most scientific and important of ancient geographers. Strabo's accurate powers of observation and description, his fund of legend and folk-lore and historical tradition, are well exemplified in these excerpts made by an editor who has travelled widely with Strabo in his hands. Not only the student but the traveller who retains some tincture of Greek may dip into this volume and find a true spirit of scientific research—descriptions as accurate and authentic as Baedeker's mingled with anecdote and legend and an occasional spice of Marco Polo. The selections, chosen from each of the seventeen books, offer characteristic tours, as it were, in Europe and Asia. In Gaul, for instance, the pious Stoic points out the advantageous arrangement of the river system, which he considers an evident mark of "Providential design and harmony"; he has a word to say of the Gallic character, its proneness to gasconade, its aptness for civilization, although just emerging from the period of bards and Druids and human sacrifice, when "a good crop of criminals laid in the ground was popularly thought to bring a good crop of grain"; finally, he can tell of Marseilles that it had already become a resort for distinguished Romans, and the rival of Athens in learning and culture. In other passages, we may turn from a careful description of the craters of Vesuvius and Etna to the mention of the Camaræ of the Black Sea, or of the snowshoes, glissades, and tobogganing on the Caucasus. In the midst of an enumeration of the natural and artificial conveniences of the site of Rome, we light upon a remark so acute and characteristic as the following: "Whereas the Greeks in their settlements looked to the natural beauty and strength of sites and harbors, the Romans gave heed to what the Greeks neglected—that is, to the building of roads and drains and aqueducts." This exemplifies the scope, variety, and interest of Mr. Tozer's selections from a treatise teeming with important facts. The details of some of these are constantly shifting under the light of fresh discovery and explorations. For example, "the fourteen vertical shafts between the Copais lake and the sea" (note, p. 237) are now reported by M. Kambanis as sixteen. But in general Mr. Tozer has been able to avoid treading on "the hot ashes" of recent controversy. The preface, the foot-notes, and the maps provide much helpful matter for the elucidation of Strabo's life, his style, and the points of topography and geography involved in the extracts.

## WHARTON'S REVOLUTIONARY DIPLOMATIC CORRESPONDENCE.

*The Revolutionary Diplomatic Correspondence of the United States.* Edited under direction of Congress by Francis Wharton, with preliminary index, and notes historical and legal. Published in conformity with Act of Congress of August 13, 1888. (Six volumes.) Washington: Government Printing Office. 1889.

ALTHOUGH the title-page of these volumes bears date 1889, the work was not really issued from the Government Printing-Office until within the last six months, nearly five years after the death of the distinguished editor. This fact ought to acquit him of responsibility for such errors of the press as appear in the work, since it is improbable that he supervised the proof-reading. A few of these errors may be noticed at haphazard. In the last paragraph of the preface the date 1816 is given with reference to Sparks's publication of the Revolutionary correspondence, instead of 1829, the date of the first Boston edition; on page 443 of vol. i. a sentence reads without sense because of the omission of the word "owing"; further on we find "Russeau" for "Rousseau"; and on page 511 the text says that of the zeal of John Adams there could "be question," which is doubtless meant to read "no question." Errors of this kind are numerous, and are the more to be regretted as they are found in a publication of rare historical value.

The first volume opens with a discriminative and appropriate sketch of Dr. Wharton's life by Prof. John B. Moore, and this is followed by Dr. Wharton's last essay, 'Patches on the Constitution,' from the *Independent* of January 10, 1889, an insertion which was never contemplated by the editor, and which might easily have been omitted without lessening the value of a work with which it has no real connection. The rest of this volume, if not the most valuable, is certainly the most interesting of the whole work, for it embodies in narrative form Dr. Wharton's own version of the diplomatic history of the Revolution.

The two parties of the Continental Congress were, according to his definition:

"(1.) The 'liberative' or 'expulsive,' whose sole object was to get rid of British authority, and which, from abhorrence of the British executive, had come to regard all executive authority as a tyranny; and (2) the 'constructive' or 'remedial,' whose members sought to set up a constitutional system of coördinate legislative, executive, and judiciary, in the place of the British Government."

The first school sought to govern through congressional committees, and believed that "earnest, untutored force would, in every contest, crush the minions of the despot. By the other school it was believed that force without system must, sooner or later, succumb to system directing force." Of the first school Samuel Adams was the leader, and to it John Adams belonged, until after the Revolution, when his views changed and he became a strong advocate of the constructive policy. Their chief coadjutors were the Lees. The chief of the "constructives" was Washington, and next to him came Franklin, the most prominent of their associates being Robert Morris, Robert R. Livingston, and John Jay. Jefferson and Hamilton, Dr. Wharton thinks, were both of the constructive school during the Revolution, their antagonism not developing until they were "pitted against each other like fighting-cocks" in Washington's cabinet.

Taking up the conduct of military affairs, the author declares that "the Lees and Adamses"—that is, the "destructives"—favored the militia system, while the "conservatives" favored regular troops enlisted for the whole period of the war. The same principle extended to the Revolutionary diplomacy:

"On the one side it was maintained that our relations with foreign nations ought to be freed from the artificial shackles which international law had imposed, and that we should approach them with blunt simplicity, demanding not only recognition, but aid. In other words, 'militia,' to use John Adams's illustration, 'sometimes gain victories over regular troops, even by departing from the rules.'"

The result of this "militia diplomacy" was humiliating, and was only saved by Franklin from being disastrous.

After discussing the case of the revolutionists against Great Britain, and her attitude towards the United States, from an extreme anti-British standpoint, Dr. Wharton examines the attitude of France towards this country. He traces the desire to assist America to the treaty of 1763 between France and England, by which the former lost Canada, certain West India Islands, and the domination of India. After this, France watched for an opportunity to retrieve her humiliation. Vergennes, therefore, "favored the American insurgents merely as engines for breaking down British supremacy, not as propagandists of cosmopolitan republicanism." But

"other motives came in and exercised a decisive influence. . . . There was, again, an enthusiasm among the young nobility and among officers in the army for America, which, even aside from the bitterness towards Britain with which it was mingled, had great effect on people as well as on court; and to this was added the sympathy of doctrinaire political philosophers who then and for some time afterwards had great power in forming French public opinion. By the enthusiasm of the young nobility the Queen—brilliant, bold, weary of the traditions of the old court, inconsiderate as to ultimate political results—was affected, and through her her husband was reached. But above this was the sense of right, which was uppermost in the breast of the unfortunate sovereign who then, with little political experience but high notions of duty as well as of prerogative, occupied the throne."

In order to help the American cause, the French Government secretly established, through Caron de Beaumarchais, the fictitious firm of "Hortalez & Co.," for the purpose of "selling" military supplies, and it was with Beaumarchais, the "merchant," that Silas Deane had his first material transactions. This episode Dr. Wharton dwells upon at some length, and it is one of the most interesting of the sections of the introduction. The correspondence itself is printed in the second volume. Much of it was omitted from Sparks's earlier work, and appears here for the first time. Similarly, the movement to have Count de Broglie appointed commander-in-chief of the American forces—a topic to which Sparks, for reasons which were probably justifiable at the time of his editorship, excluded all allusion—is brought out. Under date of Decem-

ber 6, 1776, Deane wrote to the committee of secret correspondence as follows:

"I submit one thought to you, whether, if you could engage a great general of the highest character, in Europe, such, for instance, as Prince Ferdinand, Marshal Broglie, or others of equal rank, to take the lead of your armies—whether such a step would not be politic, as it would give a character and credit to your military, and strike, perhaps, a greater panic in our enemies. I only suggest the thought, and leave you to confer with Baron de Kalb on the subject at large."

Kalb was preparing for his voyage to America at the time, and seriously believed that it would be possible for Broglie to be made temporarily a dictator in America; but he abandoned the whole idea as soon as he realized, from actual contact with them, the temperament and character of the revolutionists. The incident is chiefly interesting as showing the stupidity of our own representative in France.

After considering the attitude of Spain and other European states towards the United States, Dr. Wharton gives brief commentaries upon the Americans identified with the diplomacy of the Revolution. Of Franklin's despatches he says:

"It is questionable whether any diplomatic papers equal to them exist. They do not give, it is true, the exhaustive views of local politics which are to be found in Jay's letters from Spain, nor the elaborate summaries of European news to be found in the letters of Adams from Holland. They have not the element of gossip which made Malmesbury's Russian letters so entertaining, nor do they indulge in a rhetoric so majestic as that we meet in some instances in the papers of Webster. But for fitness for the purpose for which they were written, it may be questioned whether, taking them as a body, there are any diplomatic papers equal to them."

With Franklin, John Adams had no sympathy, and he became inordinately jealous of the lion of Paris. While giving Adams full credit for his great services in the Revolution, Dr. Wharton declares his nature unfitted him for diplomatic duties. Arthur Lee, on the other hand, is left with only his personal honesty as a redeeming quality. The correspondence shows him to have been of poor judgment, ambitious far beyond his deserts, of a jealous, insubordinate disposition. He was a positive injury to the cause as long as he had any connection with its diplomacy. Of Silas Deane Dr. Wharton says:

"Whatever we may think of Deane's early services in the Revolutionary cause, there is no doubt that he left Philadelphia [after his recall from his mission] thoroughly embittered by the unjust and insulting course of Congress towards him, and that, on his return to Europe, he soon fell under British control and accepted British pay."

To prove this, George III.'s letters to Lord North are quoted, in one of which the King speaks of Deane having been intrusted with £3,000 "in goods for America."

Of Robert R. Livingston, the first secretary for foreign affairs, who conducted the most important Revolutionary correspondence after 1781, Dr. Wharton gives the opinion that he "possessed not a few of Franklin's characteristics," and "did more than any one in the home Government in shaping its foreign policy."

A few words are devoted to the "British spies," and here it may be noticed that in speaking of Paul Wentworth the author has apparently entirely overlooked the conclusive evidence of his having been in British pay to be found in Stevens's 'Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America.'

The correspondence embodied in the five succeeding volumes was gathered chiefly from the archives of the Department of State, and it is no reflection on Mr. Sparks's pioneer publication of sixty-three years ago to say that it is given now in a fuller and more satisfactory form than it was then. Other MS. sources are the Franklin correspondence in the American Philosophical Society at Philadelphia, the collection of the late George Bancroft, the John Paul Jones papers in the Library of Congress, the papers of Arthur Lee in Harvard College, the American Philosophical Society and the University of Virginia, and the extensive Sparks Collection in Harvard College. Of course, the diplomatic correspondence of the Revolution will never be complete until the intercepted despatches now in European archives have seen the light of day; but what we have here is undoubtedly one of the most important contributions to the history of the Revolution that have appeared for many years.

## A MOUND OF CITIES.

*A Mound of Many Cities;* or, Tell el-Hesy Excavated. By Frederick Jones Bliss, M. A. Macmillan & Co. 1894.

TELL EL-HESY is an ancient ruin mound in the rolling country "between the foot-hills of the rocky Judæan mountains and the rich plain of Philistia, sixteen miles east of Gaza, a little to the north and twenty-three miles west of Hebron," generally supposed to represent the ancient city of Lachish. This site was selected for exploration in the spring of 1890 by Dr. W. M. Flinders Petrie, because its steep eastern side offered an opportunity of examining each stratum of its accumulated ruins without the necessity of digging down from the top. His excavations themselves were small and the "finds" insignificant, but Dr. Petrie knows how to make every potsherd speak. The mound was 120 feet in height, the lower 60 feet attributable to the hand of nature, the upper 60 consisting of the débris of a long series of cities, built for the most part of unbaked brick or adobe. This series of cities, the explorer concluded, covered a period of at least 1,200 years, from an "Amorite" city of about the seventeenth century down to a post-Israelitish city of the fifth century B. C.

It was in consequence of these excavations of Dr. Petrie that the directors of the Palestine Exploration Fund resolved to conduct more systematic and extensive excavations at this point. After much difficulty a firman was obtained, and Mr. F. J. Bliss, son of Dr. Bliss of the Syrian Protestant College at Beirut, was chosen to take charge of the work, a man who to a thorough American training adds a familiarity with the Arabic language and an intimate and sympathetic acquaintance with the people of the country, due to early and long residence among them. This little book of 201 well-spaced pages is the record of the excavations conducted by Mr. Bliss at Tell el-Hesy in the years 1891–'93. Mr. Bliss states that his object in writing the volume "has been to present facts with as slight an admixture of theory as possible"; and he has adhered to his purpose quite consistently. The book is a concise and exact statement of the results of his excavations, but told with such admirable logical and literary skill that the facts embody their own theory, the scattered bones gathering themselves together to form a complete skeleton, apparently of their own volition. The first chapter, "The Anatomy of a Tell," explains what is doubtless a source of perplexity to many even of those who have read much about the excavations of ancient ruins, how a ruin mound grows, in what way débris comes to be heaped up, and how excavations are or ought to be conducted, and the objects found interpreted. This chapter is really a valuable monograph in popular language on the subject of ruin mounds and the proper methods of excavation.

Following this are four chapters in which Mr. Bliss deals with the eleven cities whose remains he found in the mound, starting at the bottom and coming upwards, following the logical order instead of the order of discovery. His method of excavation, undoubtedly the best to be pursued in excavating a mound of the size and character of Tell el-Hesy, was to cut a great slice out of the side of the mound, very much of the shape of a quarter section of a pie, and study this carefully by strata, excavating one stratum entirely before proceeding to the next. Owing to the precipitous character of the eastern side of the mound, this could be done with peculiar ease at Tell el-Hesy; and the dirt removed, once thrown over the edge of the cliff, was in no danger of proving later to have been deposited on some spot important to be excavated, as is so often the case in the best conducted excavations. These chapters are provided with plans of the ruins laid bare in the excavations, so arranged as to admit of easy comparison one with another, and admirably supplied with cuts of the objects found, which are explained and commented on in the text.

The sixth chapter, "The Chronology of the Tell," deals with the dates of the cities unearthed and the method of determining those dates. Mr. Bliss found but few inscribed objects—one inscribed clay tablet, a couple of insignificant Greek and Phœnician inscriptions on pottery, consisting of a few letters only, and some Egyptian scarabs. Outside of these he was compelled to rely on the succession of strata and the amount and character of débris in each, on the pottery found, and on the use of iron, bronze, and stone utensils. In fact Tell el-Hesy was very barren in archæological finds, but what was found has been treated with great skill, so that Mr. Bliss is able to give a sort of synopsis of the history of the place, assigning to each city a fairly well-established date. The lowest city, agreeing with Dr. Petrie, he assigns to a period at or before 1700 B. C. It precedes, therefore, by some centuries, the occupation of the country by the Israelites. The four following cities also belong to the period preceding the Hebrew conquest. It was in the last of these, numbered "City III." by Mr. Bliss, according to a very cautious plan which recognizes a "Sub. I." and a "Sub. II.," that he discovered the tablet with a cuneiform inscription which was the most important find of his expedition.

In an article published in the Journal of the Society of Biblical Literature and Exegesis in 1887, it had been pointed out that in the thirty-second chapter of Jeremiah, in the account of the purchase of a piece of land by Jeremiah from Hanamel, his cousin, the original text shows that the record of the purchase was written on a clay tablet, covered with an envelope of clay, on which the contract was repeated, enclosed in an earthen jar, and buried in the earth, after the method pursued in Babylonia. From this the writer argued that the Hebrews had the same method of writing on clay as the Babylonians, and that some day inscribed tablets would be found in Palestine. Prof. Sayce had already reached the same conclusion on other grounds, particularly because

of the discovery of clay tablets inscribed with cuneiform characters in Cappadocia, and at Tell el-Amarna in Egypt. It was in the autumn of 1877 that a peasant woman discovered at Tell el-Amarna those famous 320 clay tablets inscribed with Babylonian cuneiform script. They proved to be letters written by various potentates to the Egyptian king, and among them were letters from the Egyptian governors of various subject cities, including Jerusalem, Gaza, and other Palestinian towns well known in Bible history. In these letters mention is made of a certain Zimrida, who was Governor of Lachish for the Egyptian King about 1450 B. C. The tablet found by Mr. Bliss at Tell el-Hesy was of the same general appearance as the Palestinian tablet found at Tell el-Amarna, written in the same script and composed in the same dialect. The name Zimrida also occurs in this tablet, but, owing to the mutilated condition of the inscription, it is impossible to determine certainly whether it was written to Zimrida or by him or about him, and Mr. Bliss does not feel, therefore, that this discovery settles finally the question whether Tell el-Hesy is Lachish or Eglon, which seems to be the possible alternative. As the first cuneiform tablet ever found in Palestine, this possesses a peculiar interest. It is also by many centuries the most ancient inscription yet found in any part of the Holy Land. In view of what we now know about the use of such clay tablets in Palestine in the most remote period, it seems strange, not that one such tablet has at last been found, but that none were found earlier, and that only one was found. Prof. Sayce, meeting Mr. Bliss in Egypt before he began his excavations, assured him that he would certainly find tablets at Tell el-Hesy. Nevertheless, Prof. Sayce was almost incredulous when the discovery was first announced to him, and would not believe that the tablet was genuine until he had received and studied a squeeze sent to him by Mr. Bliss. Mr. Bliss, on the other hand, seems to have been more or less sceptical about tablets at the outset, but greatly disappointed when he found but one. However, archæologists everywhere recognize that the discovery of this one tablet has established beyond gainsaying that the systematic excavation of Palestinian sites will give us ultimately contemporary written documents of the times of the ancient prophets and kings of Israel. It must be remembered that outside of Jerusalem practically no excavations had ever been conducted in Palestine before.

This tablet dates the fifth city before the conquest of Palestine by the Hebrews, as already pointed out. The Israelite period probably began with the sixth or seventh city and continued through the ninth. Unfortunately there are no inscriptions from this period excepting four letters in Phœnician script on one potsherd and three on another, and seven Greek letters rudely scratched on the base of a lamp-stand. The last two cities, the tenth and eleventh, belonged to the period succeeding the exile. They are dated by Mr. Bliss at 500 and 400 B. C., chiefly on account of the polished Greek pottery ware found among their ruins, and his more complete excavations accordingly corroborate to a remarkable degree the conclusions reached by Dr. Petrie.

The seventh and eighth chapters are entitled respectively "Sketch of the Expedition" and "The Arabs and the Fellahin." They are delightful and amusing as well as instructive reading, and to the general reader will probably constitute the most interesting part of a very interesting book. In the former of these two chapters Mr. Bliss relates how, on receiving his appointment to conduct the expedition, he went to Egypt and spent a month with Dr. Petrie at the pyramid of Meydûn, watching "that most energetic of excavators," and studying his methods. It was towards the end of his stay there that Dr. Petrie's book, 'Tell el-Hesy (Lachish),' arrived, upon which Mr. Bliss "retired with it for two days into the sculptured tomb of Ra-Hotep, which furnished an atmosphere both artistic and serious, as befitted such archæological studies." That he profited by the book and by Dr. Petrie's instructions is evident from the work which he did; and he has told the story of that work as archæologists seldom succeed in doing, in a manner equally edifying to the savant and charming to the lover of good reading and pure English. He is, moreover, very modest and self-contained, and scarcely lets you see that he had any difficulties to overcome, or hardships or dangers to encounter, or serious illness to undergo.

It is gratifying to know that on account of the admirable manner in which Mr. Bliss conducted his work at Tell el-Hesy he has been selected by the committee of the fund to conduct the excavations at Jerusalem for which a two years' firman has been obtained. It is to be hoped that some day Mr. Bliss will have the good fortune to report the discovery in Palestinian soil, not of one inscribed tablet, but of a hundred; and if such tablets are not found at Jerusalem, they will be at Samaria, or Gaza or other similar sites, which ought to be explored before long, now that Turkish jealousy of any work in the Holy Land seems to be relaxing.

## A CAVALRY OFFICER UNDER WELLINGTON.

*The Diary of a Cavalry Officer in the Peninsular and Waterloo Campaigns.* By the late Lieut.-Col. William Tomkinson, Sixteenth Light Dragoons. Edited by his Son. London: Swan Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan.

THIS volume is full of interest, especially to the student of military history. The Diary is remarkable for its simplicity and directness, as well as for its evident accuracy and for the absence of all exaggeration. It is accompanied by portraits, maps, and a plan of the field of Waterloo.

William Tomkinson, the youngest son of a Cheshire squire, joined the Sixteenth Light Dragoons, now called the Sixteenth Lancers, just a year before the opening of the campaign in Spain and Portugal. His regiment left England in April, 1809, and, shortly after landing at Lisbon, was, with the rest of the British army, reviewed at Coimbra by Sir Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington. The inhabitants of Coimbra, dreading the ravages of the French, received the British troops with acclamation, and showered flowers upon them as they marched through the city. The French were indeed ruthless in their destruction of fine buildings. Tomkinson says that they employed regular working parties, who used scaffolding to reach the tops of the decorated pillars. He adds, in reference to the great convent of Alcabaça: "It exceeded anything I ever saw as a work of destruction. They had burnt what they could, and destroyed the remainder with an immense deal of trouble. The embalmed kings and queens were taken out of their tombs, and the fine tesselated pavement picked up."

Soult, in command of the French, was then at Oporto, and the British forces, amounting to some 17,000 men, advanced from Coimbra without delay. In almost the first skirmish Tomkinson, then only nineteen, was severely wounded. His life was saved by his horse, which went full gallop to the rear. Although shot in the neck and through both arms, he kept his seat until out of the range of the enemy's fire. He suffered greatly from his wounds, and for some time could get nothing but tallow as a dressing. After the lapse of a month the surgeon found that one of the large plated buttons, weighing nearly half an ounce, on Tomkinson's jacket had been driven by a shot into the fleshy part of his left arm. When the button was removed he felt instant relief, but he had to be invalided to England. Always hardy, he declared that his own recovery, like that of other severely wounded officers, was due to the scanty fare and the little rest, or frequently none at all, which they got. The surgical knowledge of the present day would probably not support his opinion. During his voyage home, which lasted a month, the forty-five French prisoners on board the transport were more than once on the point of overpowering the English crew and passengers, who numbered fifteen in all, and taking the vessel into a French port.

Tomkinson was soon back from his enforced rest. During the remainder of the Peninsular campaign the duty was very severe. Officers and men seldom undressed, but slept on the ground close to their horses, which were kept bridled all night. Tomkinson does not give his opinion of the French marshals, but Wellington was accustomed to say that although Clauzel was, on the whole, the most formidable, he could never sleep comfortably when Masséna was in the field. Wellington thought that Marmont, otherwise an excellent general, was apt to spread his army too much. This caused his defeat at Salamanca, for Wellington made a sudden attack on the French centre with his whole force, and, as he said, "defeated forty thousand men in forty minutes." Soult complained that there was no beating the British soldiers, for they would not run; and when Badajos fell he was so much enraged that he broke all the plates and dishes in his house. The French troops subsisted entirely on the country, requiring from the Portuguese rations for their men and forage for their horses, besides taking every baggage-animal they could find, all without payment. The British forces drew nearly all their supplies from England, through Lisbon, and paid ready money for whatever they bought in Portugal. The French burned every town and village through which they passed, and killed numbers of the peasants. The English soldiers not unfrequently found the dead body of a peasant at the bottom of one of the large wine casks out of which they had been drinking. The Portuguese endeavored to hide their grain, but the French generally discovered these stores by flooding the houses and digging in the places where the water sank. Tomkinson considered the advance of the British army through such an exhausted country a wonderful exploit. From October, 1810, to the following April he did not see one village in which the inhabitants had remained; they flocked to the towns, where many died of fever, and more of starvation. The English officers gave them soup and bread once a day, and Tomkinson says that this single meal enabled many to walk who had not been able to move from weakness. The British troops also suffered from want of food; meat could be got, as the Portuguese were glad to part with the oxen which they could not feed, but there was

scarcely any bread or biscuit. The horses were frequently eight or nine days without corn; they ate the straw out of the peasants mattresses, and then were reduced to withered grass, which, according to Tomkinson, "they ate with so much avidity that they swallowed many of the stones at the roots, and died in consequence."

Wellington was very popular with his troops. Some of the soldiers called him "that long-nosed beggar that licks the French." He was up every morning at six, and wrote till breakfast at nine. He saw officers and received reports until three, then rode till six, and wrote again from nine till midnight. One of the commissaries complained to Wellington that Gen. Crawford had threatened to hang him if the supplies were not produced by a certain time. Wellington replied, "Then I advise you to produce them, for he is quite certain to do it." Tomkinson gives careful accounts of all the battles and sieges during the Peninsular war, at most of which he was present. Some of the storming parties at Ciudad Rodrigo found that their ladders, made out of a rotten Spanish car, gave way; they stuck their bayonets into the sod walls, and by that means carried the works. Mrs. Dalbiac, the wife of an English colonel, accompanied her husband throughout the campaign, sleeping in his tent, or even in the open air. After the battle of Salamanca, when above five thousand of the troops under Wellington were killed or wounded, she passed the night on the field searching for her husband, who happily was not among the dead. Tomkinson adds: "I cannot conceive a more unpleasant position for a woman to be in, particularly at night." Tomkinson gives an interesting account of his friend Somers Cocks, a most promising young outpost officer, who seemed "to grow in his saddle." Cocks's men were devoted to him, and he was indefatigable in his duty. He was always careful of his men's comfort, and when nothing could be found in which to cook their beef, made a capital frying-pan out of the top of a French brass drum. Cocks was killed at the siege of Burgos, to the great regret of Wellington, who said that "if he had outlived his campaigns, which from the way he exposed himself was morally impossible, he would have become one of the first generals of England." Tomkinson rode the same horse, "Bob," through all the five campaigns in the Peninsula, and when, after nearly five years of service in the field, "Bob" was sent back to Cheshire, he knew his way at once to his old stable. He lived for many years, and carried his master with the pack of harriers which Tomkinson kept on leaving the army.

Tomkinson spent a year in England on the conclusion of the Peninsular war, and in April, 1815, he embarked for Ostend in order to take part in the Waterloo campaign. Wellington, when in the Peninsula, had said that if Napoleon had taken the command there his name alone would have been equal to an additional 40,000 men. Tomkinson observes: "Napoleon has only the Duke to beat that he may say success has attended him with every general in Europe. It is an anxious time." Tomkinson's account of the battle of Waterloo is particularly graphic and full of details. His regiment was the only cavalry regiment in the service that went through both the Peninsular and the Waterloo campaigns. For a day or two before the 18th of June, the day of the battle of Waterloo, the weather had been extremely wet. Tomkinson's regiment selected a field of clover-root as a dry spot, but it was soon knee-deep in mud; there were no tents, and the fires would not burn. Men and horses were drenched, but Tomkinson lay down in his cloak, and, having been up and hard at work since two in the morning of the 17th, managed to get a couple of hours' sleep. As soon as it was light on the 18th of June Wellington posted his troops. He had, according to Tomkinson, nearly 32,000 infantry and 7,000 cavalry on which he could rely; the cavalry being, as Wellington told Blücher, the finest in the world. Wellington's opinion of the Dutch and Belgian troops was not high. The Prince of Orange and the Spanish General Alava had served on Wellington's staff in the Peninsula. The Prince said to Alava, "Well, Alava, what do you think your Spaniards would have done had they been present at Waterloo?" Alava replied, "Your Highness, I do not think they would have run away as your Belgians did before the *first* shot was fired." Tomkinson adds that men belonging to the Netherlands troops would hasten to carry a wounded comrade off the field, and then begin plundering in the rear. The Netherlands and Hanoverian cavalry did nothing but plunder in the rear, riding alongside the road and cutting at the men in charge of the baggage. Tomkinson's regiment saved their baggage by their swords.

The whole of the field of Waterloo was covered with the finest wheat, and the ground was so deep that numberless shells burst where they fell, and many round shot never rose from the spot at which they first struck the earth, instead of, as usual, hopping for half a mile. It was past eleven on the morning of the 18th of June before the French army assembled. Tomkinson says: "We had not long been on our ground before the cannonade opened and became general along the whole line. . . . The cannonade continued along the line through the day." Repeatedly the artillery, charged by the French cavalry, "had to leave their guns and take refuge in the squares of infantry, and the instant the French cavalry turned to the rear they ran to their guns, firing at them in their retreat." Tomkinson describes the last desperate effort of Napoleon's Old Guard, which had overawed every other army by their steady regular advance. When the British infantry charged instead of retreating, the Old Guard "set off down the hill and were seen running away on every side in the greatest confusion." The pursuit ended at ten o'clock at night. Tomkinson calculated the strength of the French army as 66,000 infantry and 12,000 cavalry, not including 30,000 men under Grouchy, and he was convinced that, in spite of Napoleon's statement that Grouchy disobeyed his orders in not coming up on the 18th of June, Grouchy really had received positive orders to attack the Prussians only and to move on Wavre. On the morning after Waterloo, Tomkinson rode over the field, which he says had more the appearance of a breach carried by assault than an extended field of battle. The peasants for miles round had assembled, and were plundering all they could get, and stripping the wounded as well as the dead. On entering Paris, Tomkinson writes: "Looking at our present march to dethrone the great Napoleon, and our commencement on a strip of land in the lines of Torres Vedras, then the only army he had not subdued, and that army but a handful in comparison with his hordes in every part of Europe, we can scarcely believe ourselves the same."

Tomkinson, during his six years of active service, was at least a hundred times under fire, but he was only once wounded. The button which was on that occasion driven into his arm is still preserved: the shank, which the surgeon was most anxious to probe for, remains on the jacket. Tomkinson received the Peninsular and Waterloo medals, with clasps for the actions of Busaco, Fuentes, Salamanca, and Vitoria. He retired on half-pay in 1821, and in 1872 he died at the age of eighty-three. The Diary is dedicated to the colonel and officers of his old regiment.

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*Arthur Schopenhauer's Sämmtliche Werke.* Six volumes.—*Arthur Schopenhauer's Nachlass.* Four volumes. Herausgegeben von Eduard Grisebach. Leipzig: P. Reclam.

"My curse on any one who, in future issues of my works, deliberately makes any changes in them, be it a period, or even a single word, a syllable, a letter, a punctuation-mark."

"I believe I can claim the honorable title of an *oligograph*, since these five volumes contain everything I ever wrote, and are the fruit of my seventy-three years of life. The reason is that I wished to be sure of the uninterrupted attention of my readers, and therefore never wrote unless I had something to say. Were this principle adopted generally, literature would undergo a great shrinkage."

The above sentences occur in a sketch of a preface to a complete edition of his works which Schopenhauer wrote shortly before his death, and which Herr Grisebach prints complete for the first time ('Werke,' vol. vi., 281). Schopenhauer made his apostle Frauenstädt his literary executor, although he knew him to be somewhat careless in citing from his works, and once wrote to him that he wished he had some of Kilzer's "noble fanaticism" for accuracy. On another occasion he thus admonished Frauenstädt: "Clip ducats and louis d'ors, but do not clip my sentences, as is now the fashion. I write as *I* write and no one else; here every word has its value and its necessity, even if you do not feel or recognize it."

Such being Schopenhauer's sentiments, it is easy to imagine his indignation could he have known how Frauenstädt would edit his works, and how much inaccurate and spurious matter would for thirty years be accepted as genuine. The expiration of the copyright on his works was the signal for the appearance of a large number of reprints of all or parts of them. Among these new editions by far the best and most authentic is that of Grisebach, who seems indeed to possess the "noble fanaticism" for accuracy which Schopenhauer desired in his editor. Grisebach has compared Schopenhauer's books word by word with the original manuscripts in the Berlin Library, and has ascertained that the older editions literally swarm with errors; indeed, he speaks of Frauenstädt's "inexcusably slovenly treatment of the text," and as he gives full particulars in each case, the reader is able to see that this is not too strong language. Not only did Frauenstädt adopt a different plan from Schopenhauer's (with which he was acquainted) of arranging the sequence of the different treatises, but he altered or suppressed sentences, added notes of his own, and either deliberately or from carelessness often changed the language and style. No less than 1,619 corrupt passages are enumerated, and, on pages 389–392, specimens are given.

Accuracy is by no means the only merit of this edition. It includes, in the four volumes of the 'Nachlass,' much admirable matter that has never been in print at all, or only in a mutilated condition. Volume six of the 'Werke' contains a concise biographic sketch of forty pages; Schopenhauer's own fifteen-page sketch of his life, in Latin, and 114 pages of bibliographic notes, which are a marvel of German

industry; and, most welcome of all, an excellent index of fifty-three pages, covering the six volumes of the 'Werke,' while the 'Nachlass' has another index for the remaining volumes. The first index is based partly on Schopenhauer's own index to his manuscript-books; and these entries are distinguished from those made by the editor by a difference in the type.

The first volume of the 'Nachlass' is a little book of 178 pages, containing Schopenhauer's translation from the Spanish of Balthasar Gracian's 'Oráculo Manual, y arte de prudencia.' It was made in 1832, but although it was infinitely superior to any other translation of this famous little book of maxims, and was commended as such by one of the leading Spanish scholars in Germany, no publisher could be found for it till thirty years later, when Frauenstädt had it printed. Grisebach's edition not merely is more correct, but includes a characteristic literary note of several pages, written by Schopenhauer for the publisher's instruction. In reading these maxims of Gracian, as in reading the works of Lichtenberg, one often comes across germs of ideas which Schopenhauer developed and presented in a new light in his own writings. Along with Kant, Plato, and Goethe, they appear to have been his favorite authors.

The second volume of the 'Nachlass' contains fragmentary matter relating to Schopenhauer's university lectures and his method; the last sixty-four pages being devoted to a violent onslaught on slovenly journalists and other murderers of the German language. These pages are by no means antiquated, as good taste is still painfully absent in most German writing, although much progress has been made since his death. The third volume is devoted to notes and comments, mostly brief, on Plato, Locke, Kant, and the post-Kantian philosophers. The appendix includes several letters written in English.

By far the most interesting and important of the volumes of the 'Nachlass' is the fourth, which the editor has entitled "New Paralipomena." It is longer than the others (510 pages), and consists chiefly of short and pithy aphorisms and paragraphs on philosophy, history of philosophy, the intellect, logic and dialectics, philosophy of nature, ethics, politics and law, death, pessimism, suicide, religion, style, criticism, authorship, etc. The origin of this collection is a matter of interest. It seems that Schopenhauer had among his MSS. ten bound ones which he called "manuscript-books," and which bore the following titles: Reisebuch, Foliant, Brieftasche, Quartant, Adversaria, Cogitata, Cholerabuch, Pandekta, Spicilegia, Senilia. In one of these, "Cogitata," he intimates that if he should not survive a new edition of his principal work, these writings should be printed as supplementary matter in confirmation and elucidation of that work. Fortunately he did survive it, and when the second edition was put into type, he inserted whatever he could find an appropriate place for. This process was repeated in his later books, all the matter thus transferred being crossed with a lead pencil. Much, however, remained unpencilled, and of this the new volume of "Parerga" is principally made up. It contains much that has never been in type before, and is on the whole one of the most suggestive and thought-stimulating of his works. Few of the paragraphs cover as much as a page, and we should not be surprised if this conciseness should make the new "Paralipomena" the most popular of all these volumes, as it will appeal to the large class whose limited knowledge of German or lack of time does not allow them to plunge into the more elaborate treatises. Here the reader will find samples, as it were, of all of Schopenhauer's idiosyncrasies and views—his unbounded belief in his own genius; his contempt for his contemporaries who ran after such "charlatans" as Fichte, Schelling, and Hegel, while ignoring him; his general pessimism; his love of art; his preference for Buddhism over Judaism and Christianity; his wonderful insight into psychological problems, and fearless exposure of shams and humbug; his admirably clear and graphic style, degenerating sometimes (especially when Hegel is in question) into blackguardism—and so on. It may be added that these ten volumes are neatly printed and bound (size 5½ by 4 inches), and cost, together, only $3.25 in Germany.

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*The Voyages of Capt. Luke Foxe of Hull and Capt. Thomas James of Bristol* in search of a Northwest Passage, in 1631-2. London: Hakluyt Society. 1894. Maps and illustrations.

THE eighty-eighth publication of the Hakluyt Society, in two large volumes, comprises the voyages of Foxe and James to Hudson's Bay, edited, with copious annotations, by Miller Christy. The narratives of these two explorers are remarkable as being almost the first separately published English works describing voyages in search of a northwest passage. The narrations of most of their predecessors are incorporated in the collections of Hakluyt and Purchas. The volumes of Foxe and James describe explorations in the same region, undertaken in the same year and with the same object in view. Both have now become scarce and valuable, a perfect copy of either being very rare and worth a considerable sum. The reasons for reprinting them together in the series of the Hakluyt Society are, therefore, obvious. The work of Capt. James originally appeared as a small quarto of 150 pages in 1633. It consists entirely of an account of his voyage, and is chiefly remarkable for its exaggeration of the dangers of his navigation and wintering. Foxe's narrative was published in London in 1635; it is a small quarto of 275 pages, with the punning title of 'The Northwest Fox.' Less than half of the work is occupied by the author's account of his own voyage. The remainder comprises abstracts of the explorations of fifteen of the principal navigators who had preceded him in the search for a northwest passage from the earliest times. Many of them are of course derived from the collections of Hakluyt and Purchas, but three of them, relating to the discoveries of Gibbons, Hawkridge, and Sir Thomas Button, are of especial interest, inasmuch as they contain almost all the extant information respecting the voyages they describe. The explorations of Button are of much importance, and Foxe deserves no little credit for rescuing them from oblivion.

Hudson, as every schoolboy knows, had sailed westward through a noble strait some 600 miles, and had then entered the vast bay which bears his name. The eastern part of this he explored before (his provisions running low) the mutiny arose which cost him his life. It must have seemed to him probable that there were other passages leading from this bay or sea to the main Western Ocean. The mutinous survivors of his expedition on their homeward passage ran upon a rock near Cape Digges, and remained fast for about eight hours, when a "great floud (which they, by this accident, took first notice of) came from the westward and set them on flote." This flood or tide was regarded at the time as strong evidence of an opening into the Western or South Sea. In search of it, accordingly, Button at once set forth, proceeding with energy and discretion, and in all but his main object his exploration was remarkably successful. He completed the discovery of the whole coast line of Hudson's (or, as it was long known, of Button's) Bay, except that part between Cape Henrietta Maria and Port Nelson, where, however, no passage could be hoped for. He also, as noted prophetically by Purchas, "found the variation of the compasse to rise and fall in admirable proportion, as if the true Magneticall Pole might be discovered."

About three months after Button sailed, in 1612, the King granted to the Adventurers who had sent him out, a royal charter of incorporation as "The Company of the Merchants' Discoverers of the Northwest Passage," with Prince Henry as "Supreme Protector." After Button's return, though the disappointment must have been keen to those ardent seekers for a passage to Cathay, hope was not wholly quenched, and his voyage was followed by that of Gibbons in 1614 and those of Bylot, and Baffin, and Hawkridge. From 1619 to 1630 effort seems to have ceased, when in the latter year Foxe, who was a thoroughly able and judicious seaman of much experience, aided by Sir Thomas Button, Sir John Brooke, and Henry Briggs, the celebrated mathematician, made application through the Adventurers for the use of the *Charles* pinnace for a voyage of discovery on the west of Hudson's Bay. The grant was made, but, owing to the lateness of the season, Foxe did not sail until May 5, 1631. Meanwhile the friends of Captain James of Bristol were stirred into activity by the proposed voyage, and fitted out, with the endorsement of Thomas Roe, the ship *Henrietta Maria* on a rival exploration. James was an excellent astronomer but an indifferent seaman, though otherwise a man of more learning than Foxe. The *Henrietta Maria* sailed two days before its rival.

Foxe's crew was not left to him to choose, and he was hampered by instructions not the most judicious; his vessel appears to have been rather defective also. In spite of these disadvantages he carefully searched the west shores of Hudson's Bay, explored the hitherto unknown southern extreme, and then sailed northward and explored Foxe's Channel to lat. 66° 47′ N. Illness broke out among his men, so he turned back, late in September, and on the 31st of October reached England; in his own words: "I came into the Downes with all my men recovered and sound, not having lost one man, nor boy, nor any manner of tackling, having been forth neere six months." Mr. Miller Christy remarks with justice that this bears powerful testimony to the skill with which he had conducted the expedition. Yet, for sensibly returning in the same year that he sailed, Foxe was ridiculed and abused by those who either were partisans of Capt. James or losers by his failure to discover a passage.

James, in fitting out, though advised to the contrary, refused to take any men of previous arctic experience. He was well equipped, and everything he desired seems to have been liberally provided. His story is a veritable book of Lamentations; and the imminent perils to which he was constantly exposed, according to his own account, become almost comic in their monotony. He explored the west and southern shores of Hudson Bay and what is now known as James Bay, was overtaken by winter at Charlton Island, where he built several houses on shore and adopted the unique plan of sink-

ing his ship to preserve her from injury. Luckily he was able to raise her in the spring, and after various harrowing adventures, he reached Bristol October 22, 1632. He was well received on his return and appointed to a king's vessel in the Irish Sea, where he did good service. His death occurred in the spring of 1635, and a few weeks later Foxe followed him, being buried at Whitby July 20, 1635.

The present publication is in the usual excellent style of the society, and the editorial contributions of Mr. Christy, if less concise and clear than might be wished, will nevertheless afford a store of useful information to those whose studies lead them to make use of these volumes.

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*Johnson's Universal Cyclopædia:* A New and Enlarged Edition. Charles Kendall Adams, Editor-in-chief; Assisted by a corps of thirty-six Editors, composed of the ablest and most distinguished scholars in the United States, etc. Vols. I.—IV. D. Appleton & Co. 1894.

JOHNSON'S CYCLOPÆDIA was first published in 1874, and was the first small cyclopædia which adopted the plan of many departments with a very eminent specialist at the head of each. There are advantages and disadvantages in such a plan. The great end which it is possible to bring about in that way is a broad and comprehensive view of human knowledge, by men who are able to inform us what is the present state of ideas in their several departments. The great danger lies in a want of unity, proportion, and consistency. Moreover, a large part of the substance of such a work, *e. g.*, the biographies, is not amenable to effective control by specialists. Hence the scientific portions of the original Johnson were much the best, and were peculiarly within the province of the editor, F. A. P. Barnard. In the new edition the Cyclopædia preserves a good deal of its spirit of life, and has been brought up to the times. We must say, however, that the last volume which has appeared, the fourth, while it is an improvement in some respects on those that went before it, is less like the original edition. It is a great mistake to suppose—if anybody does suppose so—that no great literary art is called for in a short cyclopædic article. There is no art in which success requires more peculiar original powers nor a more severe or longer training. It is safe to say there are not thirty real masters of it in this country to-day. But there are 300 contributors to the fourth volume of this Cyclopædia. Some of the least meritorious articles it contains, dreary and antiquated, bear very eminent and deservedly famous names.

Comparing the different departments of the work, if we must select one part as distinctly inferior to any other, it will be logic, which, though written by different hands, is pretty uniformly out of date and feeble. But incomparably the most interesting articles are those relating to linguistics. Those which carry the signature of Prof. Wheeler are all excellent, and there are others which really convey something worth remembering. The legal articles are very clear. The articles on physics are well enough; but there is nothing one will not find everywhere. The mathematics (excepting the débris of former editions) is not nearly so well done as the physics. The biological papers are of various degrees of merit. Some are very learned, others very instructive. The plan of distributing the biography among the thirty-six editors does not work well, especially in the case of living persons. The illustrations, which are confined to wood-cuts in the text, are of a wide range of merit. The maps will not bear comparison with those of Brockhaus.

This new edition, being in eight volumes and costing $48, can no longer be reckoned among the small encyclopædias. It has about as much matter as the new edition of 'Brockhaus's Konversations-Lexikon,' in sixteen volumes, and the total price is the same. There is still room for a methodical encyclopædia, not too large to be read through by an industrious person, say, in a year, and readable, withal; a work which should aim to convey information of large truths rather than of minute facts, and which should be written with something like the Peter Parley art, so as to be read with pleasure by old and young—the whole to be the product of not more than half-a-dozen masterly pens.

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*Victor Hugo après* 1852. Par Edmond Biré. Paris: Perrin & Cie.

WE have here the fourth and last volume of M. Biré's *éreintement* or showing-up of Victor Hugo. There is not much left of the great poet, and nothing at all of the man, when M. Biré has done with him. In the brief preface to the present volume, the author tells the story of his work, begun, he states, through admiration of the poet and continued through love of truth. No doubt M. Biré is sincere in thinking and saying that love of truth has alone actuated him, but no reader can be long in coming to the conclusion that M. Biré soon blinded himself to his own motives as thoroughly as Victor Hugo to his. The vindictive animus is too plain, especially in this last volume; the writer plays too evidently the part of *advocatus diaboli:* he takes a savage pleasure in blackening the private character of a man who was the idol of France and is one of her greatest literary glories. He presents his facts and construes them like a special pleader. He has allowed himself to be drawn, almost unconsciously, into a virulent defaming of a great name under pretext of revealing to the world the true Victor Hugo. It is this virulence of speech, this vindictiveness of purpose, which minimizes the value of the work. That Hugo had many faults, that he was outrageously vain, that he had been a weathercock in politics, a shallow thinker, a follower instead of a leader of men, that his private life was not above reproach, others, more temperate than M. Biré, had already told the world and in a more decorous and convincing manner. That much of Hugo's work is poor, a large part ridiculous, that his drama has, in the main, lost its hold on the public, and that his novels are not models of their kind, able critics have long since fully stated. The fierce light which, in M. Biré's book, beats upon the poet, brings out startlingly every defect of the man and his works, magnifying and even darkening them, and, at the same time, destroying by its glare the real and numerous beauties which these works contain.

Faguet and Morel-Fatio, to name two only, drew sufficient attention to the weak points of Hugo as a writer, a scholar, and a man, and their criticism is on its face unmarked by bitterness. The mass of information collected by M. Biré in his four volumes is of high and undoubted worth—no student of Hugo and of romanticism can afford to ignore it; but it could and should have been presented with impartiality and a just sense of proportion. M. Biré quotes an approving notice of his first volume, 'Victor Hugo avant 1830,' by M. Brunetière, but in his method of quoting he sins precisely as Hugo sinned, for he says nothing of the qualifying remarks of the great critic, and he makes no mention whatever of M. Brunetière's admirable review of the next two volumes, 'Victor Hugo après 1830,' which was published in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of October, 1891. Nevertheless, students of French literature are indebted to M. Biré for the information he has supplied, which will enable them better to understand and appreciate the work of Hugo. Bearing in mind the reservations which must absolutely be made in reading this volume, as well as the three preceding ones, there is large profit to be had from the series.

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*Slav and Moslem.* By J. Milliken Napier Brodhead. Aiken, S. C.: Aiken Publishing Co.

THE natural inference from the title of this work would be that it dealt with the relations of the Russian and Turkish Empires, with possible side glances at the difficult questions connected with the Balkan Peninsula. The reader who begins it with any such delusion will be severely disappointed. It is a hotch-potch of Russian history, with no excuse for existence. Large slices of Rambaud's 'History of Russia' are copied and juxtaposed in a manner which amply deserves the inelegant term higgledy-piggledy; the result being often that events are wrenched out of their connection and hurled into impossible attitudes a hundred years or more away. Writers upon Russia of the most miscellaneous description have been drawn upon with little discrimination, and their utterances have been combined in the most bewilderingly incoherent, crazy-quilt pattern, both as to chronology and correlation, which it has ever been our fortune to witness. Nearly every proper name in the book is spelled wrong, and there is no uniformity of spelling, even in such ordinary words as Czar, Tzar, Byzance, Byzantium; while grossly careless errors like "Herzegovonia" are lamentably frequent. Every time that the writer "Stepniak" is referred to, what the author supposes to be his real name is supplied in parenthesis, and is always wrongly spelled. It is time that the public understood that Prof. Dragomanoff and "Stepniak" are not identical. The blame cannot be laid on the printers, though the proof-reading is as remarkable as the rest, and though the punctuation is of so extraordinary a character that Lord Timothy Dexter's plan of having none in the body of the book and a large assortment at the end seems preferable.

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*A Student's Text-Book of Botany.* By Sidney H. Vines, M.A., D.Sc., F.R.S., Sherardian Professor of Botany in the University of Oxford. First Half. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 8vo, pp. x, 430.

ABOUT fifteen years ago there was published, under the supervision of Prof. Vines, an English translation of Prof. Prantl's 'Lehrbuch der Botanik,' an elementary text-book which had already met with considerable success in Germany. When it became necessary to revise this translation, it appeared best to Prof. Vines to increase the matter of the book considerably, so "that while retaining all that has made it of value to beginners, it might be more useful to those engaged in the advanced study of the science." The result is, that in this first half the portions covering 130 pages in the edition of 1881 have been rewritten and augmented until they have come to occupy 430 pages. Consequently, while the general

plan and treatment are retained, this revision has resulted in practically a new book emanating from an English rather than a German source.

The volume just issued contains Part I., on "Morphology," Part II., on "The Intimate Structure of Plants," and Part III., on "The Classification of Plants," up to the flowering plants, the classification of which, together with the chapters on physiology, are to appear in the second half. The chapters on morphology and histology are very carefully rewritten and the treatment is consistently comparative throughout. The embryological characteristics are everywhere properly considered, and are given their due prominence in the arrangements and discussions which follow. This comparative method, which has not been employed either so fully or so harmoniously in any English or German text-book before, has necessitated the use of a considerable number of technical expressions taken directly from special treatises and not familiar to the average student. With the aid of such terms, carefully selected, the homologies of the various structures among the higher plants are accurately and concisely indicated in phraseology readily intelligible; and the adoption of these terms in a text-book destined to be widely used will help greatly toward putting the comparative anatomy of plants upon as firm a basis as that secured by zoölogists for the animal kingdom.

This volume is compact and handy, the typography is excellent; the illustrations are all familiar, but are duly accredited, and introduced with excellent discrimination. It is to be hoped that the second volume, with index and glossary, will soon be forthcoming.

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*An Historical Geography of the British Colonies.* By C. P. Lucas. Vol. III.: West Africa. With maps. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1894. 8vo, pp. 283.

THE story of the West African colonies forms the least creditable chapter in the history of modern times. It is the record, not of victories of civilization over barbarism, of the development of natural resources, of the foundation and upbuilding of states, but of mere mercantile enterprises, in which the principal source of gain for more than two centuries was human lives. The colonies still consist mainly of detached trading settlements in which neither manufacturing, agriculture, nor mining is encouraged. This condition is, no doubt, largely owing to the climate, but it is also an inheritance of the slave trade, which stereotyped savagery and paralyzed industry. In the first half of the volume before us the operations of all the European nations, the Portuguese, Dutch, and French, as well as the English, on the West Coast, from its discovery to the present time, are narrated. This general review is followed by separate chapters on the different British colonies, the Gambia, Sierra Leone, the Gold Coast, Lagos, and the Niger Protectorates. From this it appears that the most satisfactory condition is to be found in Lagos, the least in Sierra Leone. Among the extraordinary variety of races which people the latter (sixty different languages are said to be spoken in the streets of Freetown), Mohammedanism is increasing more rapidly than Christianity, education is making no progress, and, at a short distance from the coast, slavery and barbarism are rife which the civilized natives make no effort to overcome. This is a disheartening outlook, especially considering the peculiar interest attaching to this colony as the headquarters in Africa of the abolition movement.

A short but interesting account is given of the islands of the South Atlantic, Ascension, which is garrisoned by marines and rated as a ship of war, and St. Helena, whose decrease in importance and consequent gradual decay since the opening of the Suez Canal is the most noteworthy fact, and Tristan d'Acunha and Gough Island. Several useful maps and lists of reference books and an excellent index add to the value of this volume, which contains, besides historical facts, accounts of the government of the various colonies, their present commercial condition, and their relations to the rest of the world.

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*Oliver Cromwell:* A History, comprising a narrative of his life, with extracts from his letters and speeches, and an account of the political, religious, and military affairs of England during his time. By Samuel Harden Church. With portraits and maps. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1894. Pp. 524, 8vo.

"WHEN reading Hume's 'History of England' some years ago," says Mr. Church, "his severe treatment of Oliver Cromwell impressed me as being unjust and overdrawn. In turning to Thomas Carlyle for a fairer view, the supernal garb in which he dressed the hero was found equally unsatisfactory." Mr. Church accordingly determined, very judiciously, to adopt a middle course. Between the Epicurean scepticism of Hume and the transcendental hero-worship of Carlyle it is not so difficult to sail as between Scylla and Charybdis, and Mr. Church's barque has safely made the passage. But we looked for a special essay on the life and character of Cromwell. Instead of this we have a general history, which, being much condensed, cannot be very lively or flowing. The spirit of the work is fair enough, but we do not see that new light is thrown on any picture of Cromwell's character or on any point of his often enigmatic career. Mr. Church occasionally quotes Mr. Gardiner in his notes, but he does not mention him in his preface, and he does not seem to be aware that Mr. Gardiner had done the work. He tells us that he has formed a very complete library of Cromwellian literature. He would have done us a service by giving us a catalogue, with a critical estimate, as far as possible, of the value of the different authorities.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alma-Tadema, Laurence. The Wings of Icarus. Macmillan. $1.25.
Annals of the American Academy. Vol. IV. June, 1893—June, 1894. Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science.
Appleton, Robert. After the Manner of Men. Boston: Franklin Publishing Co. $1.
Atkinson, James. The Loves of Laili and Majnún. London: David Nutt.
Ayres, Alfred. Acting and Actors. Appletons.
Baldwin, C. S. The Inflections and Syntax of the Morte d'Arthur of Sir Thomas Malory. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Bangs, J. K. Three Weeks in Politics. Harpers. 50 cents.
Bertheroy, J. Le Mime Bathylle. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Bishop, W. H. A Pound of Cure: A Story of Monte Carlo. Scribners. $1.
Bormann, E. Das Shakespeare-Geheimniss. Leipzig: E. Bormann; New York: Westermann.
Brooks, Noah. Tales of the Maine Coast. Scribners.
Bourget, P. Steeple Chase. Paris: Lemerre; New York: Meyer Frères & Cie.
Cameron, Prof. A. G. Mérimée's Colomba. Henry Holt & Co. 60 cents.
Chambers, R. W. In the Quarter. Chicago: F. T. Neely.
Chaperoned. Cassell. 50 cents.
Chatard, Rev. F. S. Occasional Essays. Catholic Publication Society.
Classical Studies, in Honor of Henry Drisler. Macmillan. $4.
Colmore, G. A Daughter of Music. Appletons.
Conder, Major C. R. Judas Maccabæus and the Jewish War of Independence. New ed. Macmillan. $1.25.
Davis, R. H. Van Bibber and Others. Harpers. 60 cents.
Dodd, Anna B. Struthers, and the Comedy of the Masked Musicians. Lovell, Coryell & Co.
Dornis, Jean. La Voie Douloureuse. Paris: Lévy; New York: Charles Eitel.
Emmons, S. F. Geological Guide-Book for an Excursion to the Rocky Mountains. John Wiley & Sons.
En Pique-Nique, 1894. Publication Annuelle du Comité de la Société des Gens de Lettres. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Firth, C. H. The Memoirs of Edmund Ludlow. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press: New York: Macmillan.
Frye, A. E. Primary Geography. Boston: Ginn & Co. 75 cents.
Greenidge, A. H. J. Infamia: Its Place in Roman Public and Private Law. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Harlow, W. B. Columbia Redeemed from Slavery: Poetry. Buffalo: Charles Wells Moulton.
Hastings, George. A Tale of the Town. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Hill, W. K. William Henry Widgery, Schoolmaster. London: David Nutt.
Hoffman, Prof. F. S. The Sphere of the State. Putnams. $1.50.
Howells, W. D. Five o'Clock Tea. Harpers. 50 cents.
Jackson, J. The Theory and Practice of Handwriting. Revised ed. Wm. Beverley Harrison. $1.25.
Lafontaine, H. La Jolie Painepolaise. Paris: Lévy; New York: Charles Eitel.
Larned, J. N. History for Ready Reference. Vol. II.—El Dorado to Greaves. Springfield: C. A. Nichols Co.
Le Gallienne, R. Prose Fancies. Putnams. $1.
Le Mariage de Chiffon. 14th ed. Paris: Lévy; New York: Charles Eitel.
Lombard, L. Observations of a Traveller. Utica, N. Y.: The Author. 50 cents.
Maspero, G. Histoire Ancienne des Peuples d'Orient. Tome I. Paris: Hachette; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.
Maxwell, W. H. First Book in English. American Book Co. 40 cents.
Maxwell, W. H. Introductory Lessons in English Grammar. American Book Co. 40 cents.
Memoirs of the International Congress of Anthropology. Chicago: Schulte Publishing Co.
Miller, Olive T. Our Home Pets: How to keep them well and happy. Harpers. $1.25.
Moore, George. Esther Waters. Chicago: C. H. Sergel Co. 50 cents.
Moore, G. Esther Waters. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Myer, Isaac. Scarabs: History, Manufacture and Religious Symbolism. Edwin W. Dayton.
Naville, Prof. E. La Définition de la Philosophie. Geneva; Georg & Cie.: New York: Brentanos. $1.50.
Newton, Rev. W. W. A Run through Russia: The Story of a Visit to Count Tolstoi. Hartford: Student Publishing Co. $1.
Our Wonderful Bodies and How to Take Care of Them. First Book, 30c. Second Book, 50c. Maynard, Merrill & Co.
Peard, Frances M. An Interloper: A Novel. Harpers.
Pennypacker, S. W. Hendrick Pannebecker, Surveyor of Lands for the Penns, 1674—1754. Philadelphia: Privately printed.
Perry, Prof. A. L. Origins in Williamstown. Scribners.
Posse, Baron Nils. The Special Kinesiology of Educational Gymnastics. 3d ed. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $3.
Prévost, M. Les Demi-Vierges. Paris: Lemerre: New York: Meyer Frères & Cie.
Proceedings of the International Congress of Education at Chicago, 1893. National Educational Association of the U. S.
Putnam-Jacobi, Dr. Mary. Common Sense applied to Woman Suffrage. Putnams. $1.
Ramsey, M. M. A Text-Book of Modern Spanish. Henry Holt & Co. $1.80.
Ramsay, Prof. G. G. Latin Prose Versions, contributed by Various Scholars. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Richardson, F. B. Six Months' Preparation for Reading Cæsar. 2d ed. Henry Holt & Co. 90 cents.
Rothwell, R. P. The Mineral Industry: Its Statistics, Technology and Trade. Vol. II., 1893. Scientific Publishing Co. $5.
Ruskin, J. Verona, and Other Lectures. Macmillan. $2.50.
Russell, W. Clark. The Romance of a Transport. Cassell. $1.
Rutgers, L. On and Off the Saddle. Putnams.
Salomons, Sir David. Electric Light Installations. Vol II. Apparatus. 7th ed. London: Whittaker; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $2.25.
Savage, R. H. The Princess of Alaska. Chicago: F. T. Neely. 50 cents.
Selections from the Poems of Arthur Hugh Clough. Macmillan. $1.
Shakespeare's Comedy of Errors. [The Temple Shakspere.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 45 cents.
Shakespeare's Measure for Measure. [The Temple Shakspere.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 45 cents.
Simcox, E. J. Primitive Civilizations: Outlines of the History of Ownership in Archaic Communities. 2 vols. Macmillan. $10.
Stevens, B. F. Christopher Columbus: His Own Book of Privileges, 1502. London: B. F. Stevens; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.
Stevens, Dr. A. H. Cure by Polarized Electricity. Philadelphia: The Author.
Stevens's Facsimiles of MS. in European Archives relating to America, 1773-1783. Vol. XXI. London: B. F. Stevens.
Stuart, Ruth McE. Carlotta's Intended, and Other Tales. Harpers. $1.50.
The Hon. Stanbury, and Others. Putnams. 50 cents.
The Major in Washington City. Second series. Chicago: F. T. Neely.
The Red House. Rand, McNally & Co.
Tompkins, A. The Philosophy of Teaching. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Thompson, Annie. A Moral Dilemma. Longmans, Green & Co. 50 cents.
Thompson, Langdon S. Educational and Industrial Drawing. Series. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Thurston, Prof. R. H. The Animal as a Machine and a Prime Motor. John Wiley & Sons. $1.
Valdés, A. P. The Grandee: A Novel. London: William Heinemann.
Venn, Mrs. The Husband of One Wife. Harpers. 60 cents.
Wallace, E. R. Descriptive Guide to the Adirondacks. Revised ed. Syracuse, N. Y.: E. R. Wallace. $3.50.
Way, Arthur S. The Tragedies of Euripides, in English Verse. Vol. I. Macmillan. $2.
Weed, C. M. Fungi and Fungicides: A Practical Manual. Orange Judd Co. $1.
Wells, A. R. Business: A Plain Talk with Men and Women Who Work. Fleming H. Revell Co. 35 cents.
Wolf, Emma. A Prodigal in Love. Harpers.

# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 12, 1894.

## The Week.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND'S proclamations are the voice of the nation declaring that the law must be maintained, and that all persons who set themselves against it will be swept out of the way, and out of existence if need be. It is probably useless to expect that the proclamations will keep all idlers out of danger, but those who put themselves in the line of fire hereafter will do so at their own peril.

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President Cleveland's method of dealing with Gov. Altgeld is a model one. He wastes no time in arguing with him, or in defending himself against his attacks, but in a few terse sentences sets him before the country in his true light as the friend and champion of disorder. Altgeld is probably as unconscious of his own bad manners as he is of the bad odor of his own principles; but boorish, impudent, and ignorant as he is, he can scarcely fail to wince under the treatment which he receives from the President. He is probably unable to comprehend that what gives the President's words their crushing weight is the fact that American public opinion is in a solid mass behind them. The President is speaking for the American people and for the preservation of their Government, and his words are suitable to the case. Altgeld's tirades are serving the useful purpose of showing to the people, not only of Illinois, but of all other States, the folly of putting the administration of public affairs into the hands of professional blatherskites, who are either too ignorant or too unprincipled to conduct themselves in accordance with the spirit of American institutions.

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A disheartening aspect of this troublous time is the cowardice of Congressmen at Washington. A few Senators have spoken out like men, but it has been impossible to get a positive expression of opinion from any Representative of standing. While the respectable press of the country is a unit in applauding and sustaining the President, and while the great mass of the people are delighted and relieved at his firm attitude, Congress sits by shamefaced and cowering. The only resolutions introduced are the firebrands of Populists, and it is only the rule requiring their reference to a committee which saves us from incendiary speeches by our lawmakers. If Congress had any men left in it it would have passed before this a joint resolution holding up the hands of the President and rebuking and warning anarchists. But the anarchists have votes, and the most valiant Congressman, who remembers that election day is only four months off, runs away from the interviewer in a fright. This is not only contemptible but senseless. It takes a purblind demagogue, in the Washington haze which always distorts popular opinion, to think for a moment that there is a vote to be gained by anybody in crawling before the anarchists. Everybody with the cobwebs out of his eyes sees that the men who are not afraid, like Senator Davis and the President himself, are the men whom this nation delights to honor, and that there never was so much public contempt for the trimmer who haws and hums and dodges when a national crisis comes.

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The dearth of convictions and courage among our public men has enabled Senator Davis of Minnesota to reach fame and popular approval at a bound. He has simply done his duty and told the truth; but it is so long since anybody at Washington has had, or dared to avow, a clean-cut belief on any important subject, that his action takes on almost an heroic quality. Especially is it so long since any one holding an elective office in this country has ventured to resent the orders of a demagogue labor leader with votes behind him, that Mr. Davis's dash of cold water into the face of that portentous person, "President of 209 A. R. U.," is as grateful a surprise as a northwest breeze with the mercury at 92. It is a pleasure to reprint his direct and pungent words:

> "I have received your telegram. I will not support Senator Kyle's resolution. It is against your own real welfare. It is also a blow at the security, peace, and rights of millions of people who never harmed you or your associates. My duty to the Constitution and the laws forbids me to sustain a resolution to legalize lawlessness. The same duty rests upon yourself and your associates. The power to regulate commerce among the several States is vested by the Constitution in Congress. Your associates have usurped that power by force at Hammond and other places and have destroyed commerce between the States in these particular instances. You are rapidly approaching the overt act of levying war against the United States, and you will find the definition of that act in the Constitution. I trust that wiser thoughts will regain control. You might as well ask me to vote to dissolve this government."

Out of a Senate where Republican Sherman and Democratic Call are vying with Populist Kyle in kneeling to rioters and beclouding the issue, such language comes with double effect. It not only shuts the mouth of the man to whom it was addressed, but it is a standing rebuke to the supine or truckling colleagues of the man who was not afraid to speak. We could hope that it marks the beginning of a new era, or, rather, a return to an old one, when Senators shall again have positive opinions and again have the courage to declare them.

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A noteworthy feature of the situation is the hearty support which the federal executive receives from that part of the country where the State-rights theory was once carried to absurd lengths. The *Herald* has been interviewing the Governors of many States, and the most significant deliverance is the one from Gov. Stone of Mississippi:

> "This is a species of lawlessness that should and must be suppressed. I heartily approve the President's proclamation, and believe federal troops should be used to protect the lives and property of citizens of the United States in every instance where it is necessary."

That the Governor represents public sentiment in that latitude is shown by the declaration of the Vicksburg *Commercial Herald* that "the South will be solid for law and order and the national government." When the Governor and the people of Jefferson Davis's old State thus sustain the President of the Union, it is made clear that the spirit of nationality has taken possession of the whole country.

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It is an interesting circumstance that one of the federal officials who have come into collision with one of the mob governors is an ex-Confederate. Gen. "Jo" Shelby, who won his title by fighting to overthrow the federal government thirty years ago, is now United States marshal for the Missouri district. In that capacity he despatched a posse of deputies to the place where a lot of Debsites had seized a mail train, to release the train and preserve the peace. Gov. Stone, who seems ambitious of enrolling himself with Altgeld, Lewelling, Pennoyer, and Waite, immediately sent a protest against the marshal's action as a bit of impertinence and an unwarranted interference with the authority of the State of Missouri. Gen. Shelby promptly replied that he was acting for and under the instructions of the United States Government, and he informed the Governor that if he desired any additional particulars, he should make application to the attorney-general at Washington; meanwhile he (Shelby) would continue to do his duty under the laws. The Governor concluded to content himself with "criticising" the attitude of the federal authorities.

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"It is the unexpected that happens." Looking back ten or fifteen years, we behold an enterprise started in the vicinity of Chicago peculiarly in the interest of working men. It was not a charitable institution—quite the contrary. If it had been such it would have failed from the start, since it

appealed specially to independent, intelligent, self-respecting men—men who scorn to accept anything that they have not earned. It was Mr. Pullman's aim to offer to this class of men superior accommodations and more of the comforts of life than they could obtain elsewhere for the same amount of expenditure, but to do this in a scientific and business-like manner, so that the investment should pay its own way and every tub stand on its own bottom. Gratitude was not looked for. In fact, it was not called for under the circumstances, but it was expected that the men drawn together by the superior civilization of the town of Pullman would be of too high an order of intelligence to insist, for example, that the company should build cars at less than actual cost, when the new dollars taken in would not replace the old ones paid out, or to refuse to examine the company's books to determine the facts of the case. Of all the things that might be expected to happen, this was the last. If the Pullman shops had simply been closed, as those at Detroit were, nothing would have ensued. There would have been no strike, as there was none at Detroit. But because the Detroit shops were closed in order that the Pullman shops might run a little longer at some rate of wages, the men at Pullman struck, and then the followers of Debs struck all the way to California. Nothing more unexpected could have happened.

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It is an astonishing revelation that Debs, the manager of the strike, was under treatment for dipsomania two years ago, and that it is a question whether he is at present entirely sane. The physician who treated him then says he was suffering from alcoholism in its worst form, and was a physical and mental wreck. He says that he telegraphed to Debs a few days ago imploring him to stop, as the condition of his nervous system made him irresponsible for his own orders. That a man of this physical and mental condition should be able to paralyze great railway systems, and throw several States into such a condition of anarchy that the President of the United States has to concentrate the regular army at the centre of disturbance, and issue proclamations for the suppression of rioting, is certainly the most extraordinary development of the labor problem that the world has yet seen. It puts this country before the world as the sport of lunatics and madmen, and shows us what we shall come to if we continue to allow State governorships to be filled with Altgelds, Lewellings, Pennoyers, Waites, Stones, and McConnells. Popular institutions cannot long stand the strain of such bouffe government as these creatures give us.

One element in bringing Debs and his American Railway Union to their present dictatorial attitude is not clearly understood at the East. It will be remembered that a strike occurred on the Great Northern Railroad a few weeks ago, and was amicably settled through the efforts of a committee of St. Paul and Minneapolis business men. An incident which followed this settlement did not attract the attention which it deserved. The president of the railroad held that it was not bound to reinstate in its employ men who were found guilty of any criminal offence against the United States, who had maliciously injured the company's property, or who had placed the lives of passengers or the property of the company in danger by abandoning trains. The question was submitted to the arbitrators, who decided that the agreement bound the road to reinstate and pay men then under arrest and awaiting trial on the charge of malicious destruction of property, men who had interfered with the running of trains, and men who had abandoned trains in inacessible places. This was the same thing as saying that the railroad could exert no discipline over its employees, and it was entirely natural that Debs should think himself warranted in ordering railroads not to run Pullman cars when a committee of business men in St. Paul and Minneapolis had given such encouragement to the notion that employees might manage the property as they chose.

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California has been going through a long training in theoretical anarchism—so long and so thorough that the Portland *Oregonian* considers anarchism one of the planks of the Republican platform in that State. Now practical anarchism has come. The State is in the hands of mobs at Oakland, Sacramento, and Los Angeles, and when the militia are called out to enforce the law, they side with the rioters and throw down their arms. Logically they ought to do so because, if the mobs are simply seeking to enforce their rights, as the newspapers of San Francisco imply, why should the militia become the instruments of tyranny to fasten the chains of a Pullman despotism on them? We can see no way to improve the education of the Slopers but to leave them in the hands of their pets and favorites. Probably a month will suffice to put courage into the breasts of the decent people, who outnumber the Sand-lotters and other anarchists by five to one, and nerve them to fight for *their* rights. Something of this kind occurred at Portland, Oregon, a few years ago when that city was under the domination of an anti-Chinese mob. The decent people were at last driven to the necessity of arming themselves and organizing to enforce the law. They did so, and within twenty-four hours the mob had dispersed. Not a shot was fired. California needs a similar demonstration.

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The overthrow of Populism in Kansas seems assured by the decision of the Democrats to run a "straight" ticket this year. In 1892 they "fused" with the Populists, and the two parties polled 163,507 votes for Lewelling, as against 158,075 for the Republican candidate. The fusion policy was opposed at that time by some of the wisest leaders among the Democrats, but the argument that such a combination might take the electoral votes of the State from Harrison prevailed with the mass of the party. Now, however, Democrats are as much disgusted as Republicans with the record of the Populist State administration; and with their vote generally cast for their own ticket, Lewelling can stand no chance of reëlection.

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Prof. George Herron of Iowa College, whose anarchistic teachings were so properly rebuked by the Governor of Nebraska at the commencement of the University in the latter State a few weeks ago, has been holding, with B. Fay Mills, the evangelist, the Rev. Thomas C. Hall of Chicago, and other congenial spirits, what is described as "a sociological love feast" at Grinnell, the seat of the college. Its character may be inferred from the fact that one of the speakers made a plea for greater leniency for anarchists: "He would convict them and send them out in the world with a sort of legal blessing and a theological admonition to go and sin no more." The Iowa newspapers naturally and justly denounce such teachings as abominable and dangerous. The Sioux City *Journal*, by the way, notes that although these sociologists demand the abolishment of rent and interest as now understood, "Prof. Herron still enjoys the interest of his $35,000 endowment, and Brother Hall lately left a $4,000 place for an $8,000 one, and Mr. Mills is, with the single exception of Mr. Moody, probably the best-paid evangelist in the world."

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Everybody sighed with relief on hearing that the Senate had at last actually voted on the tariff; but both the Senate and the bill are much the worse for having kept company for five months. The Senate has made a new record for itself in the way of stupid incapacity, and this time with a suspicion of personal corruption freely thrown in, while the bill enjoys to the full the Scriptural blessing of being ill spoken of by all men. This is largely, to be sure, a matter of comparison and of wasted opportunity. The bill as it stands would have been considered by tariff reformers a few years ago as almost too good to be possible. It provides for

free wool and free lumber, and cuts many of the worst McKinley duties in two. But in comparison with what the Senate might easily have done, even in comparison with what the House did, the outcome is so poor, so scarred by personal intrigue and surrender of principle and decency, that its bad features justly hold the first place in the public estimation. It now rests with the House to save for the Democratic party even the appearance of consistency and honesty.

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The question how long a time need elapse before the final enactment of the measure into law is now of general interest. Some idea of the period necessary may perhaps be derived from the history of the McKinley bill in its later stages. It was on the 10th of September, 1890, that the bill passed the Senate, having passed the House on the 21st of the previous May. Having lain one day on the Speaker's table, it was referred to the ways and means committee September 12. On the 15th, Mr. McKinley reported it back from that committee with a recommendation for non-concurrence in the Senate amendments, and it went to the committee of the whole. Consideration of the Senate amendments was limited to one day, so that the bill was reported to the House and a conference with the Senate ordered September 16. The work of the conference committee occupied ten days, and the result was reported on September 26 to the House, which next day agreed to the changes recommended and took a final vote on the passage of the bill. The bill as agreed to by the conference committee was reported to the Senate September 29 and passed by that body the next day. Three weeks, therefore, covered the period of conferences, compromises, and final details. A week more may now be allowed, and the work be completed by about the 1st of August.

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Chairman Wilson's speech on Saturday, in moving to non-concur in the Senate amendments to the tariff bill, was quiet and dignified in tone, but indicated with unmistakable clearness his intention to stand firmly for the main features of the House bill. What these are he left it not at all uncertain. They are free raw materials and ad-valorem taxes. Many of the Senate's swarm of amendments are, as Mr. Wilson admitted, unimportant; but those which take raw materials off the free list and which slip in tricky specific duties at so many points to befog the taxpayer and benefit the manufacturer, are a betrayal of party and a surrender of principle. Chairman Wilson was well within the truth in saying that the bill as it passed the House was more conservative than the sentiment of the party and the country warranted and demanded. To give up any essential part of that now would be to lose, and to deserve to lose, what little respect the party has left it. The House conferees cannot be too exigent and unyielding in their demands on the Senate. They ought to keep constantly in mind that what they have to fight is really a small clique of distrusted and discredited Democratic Senators. The majority of the Senate saw fit to give in to this band of "strikers," but it is to be hoped that the House will hold a higher tone with the Gormanites. They will surrender at discretion if met in open warfare.

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Ex-Speaker Reed can scarcely expect the public to take his grief seriously at not being invited in by the Democratic conferees on the tariff. No one is so responsible as he for the doctrine that it is a stupid and needless formality for the majority to concede anything to the minority except the right to protest and vote against the decision of the majority. There is no doubt that the pretence of a different practice before Reed's speakership was mostly a polite fiction. But it was polite, and might have lasted to this day had not he, with brutal frankness, disowned and spurned the whole thing. The Democrats are only giving him a dose of the medicine which he himself concocted, made a little more bitter, of course, as time and their own ingenuity have taught them how to do so; and there is no occasion for his wry faces over it. In fact, any one looking closely will see that his wry face is really only his customary sardonic and cynical wink.

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The signs multiply that the struggle between the Senate and the House of Representatives will turn upon the sugar duty. If the report of the *World's* correspondent is to be trusted, the number of Representatives who are willing to declare in advance that they will resist the Senate's amendments is no less than 200 out of the 253 who responded to the inquiry. It is to be observed, however, that nearly all the members of the ways and means committee refuse to commit themselves, and that many of those who reject the Senate's amendments indicate some willingness to accept modifications of the schedule as it passed the House. It is also to be observed that of those who refuse to commit themselves, 41 are Democrats, while the opponents of the Senate's schedule include 78 Republicans and 7 Populists. Moreover, if the replies of the respective members are read in detail, a general disposition is apparent to accept the recommendations of the conference committee. It seems probable, therefore, that whatever is agreed upon in conference will be accepted by the House of Representatives.

The comparative statement of the receipts and expenditures of the United States Government for the fiscal years ending with the month of June, 1893 and 1894, has been issued with great promptness by the Treasury Department. It shows an excess of expenditures over receipts for the year just ended of close upon $70,000,000. It should be borne in mind that during the previous year the balance in favor of the Government was but little over $2,000,000, so that the financial position was precarious even before the hard times began to be felt. The actual diminution of revenue was about $89,000,000, the decrease of expenditures being only between $17,000,000 and $18,000,000. Nearly the whole of the loss of revenue was due to the shrinkage in customs receipts, which amounted to about $71,000,000, or more than the deficit. The loss of internal revenue was only about $14,000,000, and during June revenue of this kind was materially greater than during the corresponding month of 1893. On the side of economy there is almost nothing to show except the saving in pensions, which amounts to over $18,000,000. The coming year should show a very marked decrease of expenditure in several directions, so that, even if business did not improve, the deficit would be far smaller.

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But the decrease in customs receipts is to a great extent due, not to business depression, but to anticipated tariff changes. It would not be unreasonable to consider that part of the shrinkage in customs receipts due to the panic as the same percentage of the whole as the entire shrinkage in internal-revenue receipts. That is, the falling off of internal revenue being about 10 per cent., the falling off in customs receipts, had no reduction of duties been anticipated, would have been the same, or about $20,000,000, instead of $71,000,000. This loss of revenue was partly inevitable, since in hardly any condition of business would importations go on to any extent in the face of an impending reduction of duties. But it is principally due to the procrastination of Congress. For nearly two years it has been known that duties were to be reduced; and for all that time importers have been obliged to do business from hand to mouth. Had Congress acted promptly, it is very doubtful if the present year would have closed with any deficit at all. This is one of the incidental expenses of state action which the socialists fail to consider, but which make even existing governments a serious burden to industry. Should the tariff bill be passed with the proposed duty upon sugar and with the tax upon incomes, it is highly probable that the close of the present fiscal year will see the Government encumbered, not with a deficit, but with a surplus.

*THE NATION AND THE NEW SLAVERY.*

THE assertion of the national authority during the past week to repress disorder and lawlessness which were fast becoming a national peril, has many analogies with its assertion in 1861. Now, as then, an evil which has been long tolerated or impatiently endured, and left to local authorities to dispose of as they saw fit, has at last become so defiant and menacing, so evidently destructive of all law and government, that the instinct of self-preservation is aroused to grapple with it. There can be but one supreme power in this country. It is either the nation or a band of boycotters, just as, in 1861, it was the nation or a band of slaveholders. When that issue becomes clear and sharp, it is time for the Government to summon its last man and spend its last dollar in a fight for its own life, or else commit suicide in despair.

The boycott's blow at the life of the nation has not been struck with such dramatic effect as slavery's blow, but it is just as deadly in its aim. The contention that the entire industry of the land can be wielded as a club to compel any man or corporation to surrender a single right or a single dollar, means the setting up of a new government All the raging of all the demagogues cannot obscure that. If an individual employer has been unjust or a corporation tyrannous, that is an evil for which its own and legal remedy must be sought. To take the whole country by the throat, to defy municipal and State officers, is simply the levying of public war to redress a private grievance. It has taken the nation a long time to wake up to this, but it has waked up at last, and the determination of the Washington authorities to use every rifle under their control before giving up the attempt to enforce the laws is as truly patriotic a resolution, and as truly essential to the continued life of the Government, as was the call of Lincoln for volunteers when Sumter fell.

The insidious attack of labor-unions on the power of the Government, with the boycott and a universal sympathetic strike as weapons, also has its instructive analogies with the assault of slavery upon the national life. This reckless and militant trades-unionism deserves, in fact, to be called the slavery of our day. It holds men in a bondage as absolute and humiliating as any system of slavery ever known. Their judgment and rights are, for the autocrat who gives them their orders, non-existent. Some of them beg him to be allowed to go back to work, to earn bread for their wives and children, but he lashes them back into idleness and hunger with the true insolence of a slave-driver. The cruelty of this new slavery is likewise characteristic. Its dupes it wantonly leaves to suffering, and against its victims it rages with the heartlessness of a savage. While crying to heaven against the oppression of employers, it subjects delicate women and helpless and innocent children to discomforts and dangers in a way to bring a blush to the cheek of a Zulu.

For many years this evil has been strengthening itself and growing more offensive and threatening, and for years, just as in the case of slavery, it has had its advocates, its apologists; many have been alarmed at its growth, some have foreseen the disasters wrapped up in it, but nearly all have acquiesced in the view that it would have to be dealt with by local authorities. But now what has all along been latent in the new slavery has become evident to all. It stands unmasked as an avowed contestant for national supremacy, and the swift return stroke from the national authority marks the consciousness, on both sides, of the true nature of the struggle. All this is fairly comparable to that other attack on the Government which it took four years of bloody war to crush.

The course of events during the past fortnight explains how writers like Mulford and Green could speak of the organic life of the nation as something distinct from its institutions. There does seem to be something like a vital process in the way the nation becomes conscious of a peril to its life and rouses itself to meet it. It is not simply that the great strike and boycott are attended with violence. As we write, the disorder has not been nearly so great as that evoked by the coal strike a few weeks ago. Nor is it alone the fact that there is a national humiliation in such disregard of law. There was a deep national humiliation in the New Orleans massacre of Italians and in the slaughter of Chinese in Oregon. But none of these occurrences stung the Government into an assertion of its authority conterminous with the territory and the property and lives under its jurisdiction. That it has now made it is because it sees that an *imperium in imperio*, or rather *imperium contra imperium*, such as the boycotters are trying to set up, means its own dissolution.

*GOV. ALTGELD AND THE PRESIDENT.*

IT should surprise nobody that Governor Altgeld of Illinois came to the rescue of Debs and his fellow law-breakers by protesting against the efforts of the federal authorities to restore order in Chicago. He is the executive who pardoned the anarchists out of prison, and it is only natural that he should sympathize with anarchists who have not yet been sent to prison.

The long despatch which Altgeld sent the President is chiefly devoted to a defence of the strikers, and an exposition of their attitude as defined by Debs. His misrepresentation of the facts is so obvious and clear that it needs no attention. The only argument advanced by the Governor which deserves any examination is his plea that the President is disregarding local self-government in sending federal troops without being requested so to do by the executive of the State. Upon this point he says:

> "I submit that local self-government is a fundamental principle of our Constitution. Each community shall govern itself so long as it can and is ready and able to enforce the law; and it is in harmony with this fundamental principle that the statute authorizing the President to send troops into States must be construed. Especially is this so in matters relating to the exercise of police power and the preservation of law and order.
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> "The question of federal supremacy is in no way involved. No one disputes it for a moment; but under our Constitution federal supremacy and local self-government must go hand in hand, and to ignore the latter is to do violence to the Constitution."

The President's reply is brief, but comprehensive. It meets the Governor's arguments, and covers the whole ground in two sentences, as follows:

> "Federal troops were sent to Chicago in strict accordance with the Constitution and laws of the United States, upon the demand of the Post-office Department that obstruction of the mails should be removed, and upon the representations of the judicial officers of the United States that process of the federal courts could not be executed through the ordinary means, and upon abundant proof that conspiracies existed against commerce between the States. To meet these conditions, which are clearly within the province of federal authority, the presence of federal troops in the city of Chicago was deemed not only proper but necessary, and there has been no intention of thereby interfering with the plain duty of the local authorities to preserve the peace of the city."

The authority under which the President acts is derived from section 5298 of the Revised Statutes, enacted July 29, 1891, and section 5299, which became a law April 20, 1871. The former provides that "whenever, by reason of unlawful obstructions, combinations, or assemblages of persons, or rebellion against the authority of the Government of the United States, it shall become impracticable, *in the judgment of the President*, to enforce, by the ordinary course of judicial proceedings, the laws of the United States within any State or Territory, it shall be lawful for the President to call forth the militia of any or all the States, and *to employ such parts of the land and naval forces of the United States as he may deem necessary* to enforce the faithful execution of the laws of the United States, or to suppress such rebellion, in whatever State or Territory thereof the laws of the United States may be forcibly opposed, or the execution thereof forcibly obstructed." Section 5299 is as follows:

> "Whenever insurrection, domestic violence, unlawful combinations, or conspiracies in any State so obstructs or hinders the execution of the laws thereof, and of the United States, as to deprive any portion or class of the people of such State of any of the rights, privileges, or immunities, or protection, named in the Constitution and secured by the laws for the protection of such rights, privileges, or immunities, and *the constituted authorities of such State are unable to protect, or, from any cause, fail in or refuse protection of the people in such rights*, such facts shall be deemed a denial by such State of the equal protection of the laws to which they are entitled under the Constitution of the United States; and in all such cases, or when-

ever any such insurrection, violence, unlawful combination, or conspiracy, opposes or obstructs the laws of the United States, or the due execution thereof, or impedes or obstructs the due course of justice under the same, *it shall be lawful for the President, and it shall be his duty, to take such measures, by the employment of the militia or the land and naval forces of the United States, or of either, or by other means, as he may deem necessary, for the suppression of such insurrection, domestic violence, or combinations.*"

There is no room left for discussion of the President's authority and obligation to do just what he is doing. It will be seen that the discretion of the chief executive is absolute. Everything is left to his judgment, and he has the support of the laws in taking any measures which he may deem necessary. Section 5299 of the revised statutes was fortunately framed so as to meet a contingency which could hardly have been foreseen—the occupation of the governorship by a man who sympathized with law-breakers and who would not use the power of the State against them. But for such a grant of power, a Populist or anarchist Governor—like Altgeld of Illinois, Lewelling of Kansas, Waite of Colorado, or Pennoyer of Oregon—might allow government to be overthrown in his State, and lawlessness to run riot, and still claim that there was no warrant for federal interference. Happily the President is armed by statute with all the power needed not only to suppress mobs, but to overcome anarchist Governors.

## *THE SITUATION IN CALIFORNIA.*

THE popular animosity to the railroads and the sympathy with the strikers that are manifested by almost all classes in California, as shown by the press despatches, are perplexing to Eastern readers. There does not seem to be a voice raised there in favor of order and civil government; and the inconvenience and losses to which the public are subjected seem to be accepted willingly, so long as the railroads suffer quite as much or more. There are several causes for this.

To begin with, California transportation is practically monopolized by one company, the Southern Pacific. This road controls the entrance to San Francisco northward from Los Angeles; it leases the Central Pacific, and so controls the direct traffic East as far as Ogden, and it controls the line running north to Oregon. Besides this, it controls the ferries across San Francisco Bay, most of the California local lines of railroad, and most of the San Francisco street-car lines. Every complaint, therefore, that is made against a railroad there—quality of service, rates of fare, and freight charges—falls on this company. There is no chance to compare it with the service and charges of other companies in the same territory, and it centres in itself all the popular animosity to "monopolies." This animosity is especially strong in California because the profits of land products depend there almost entirely on freight rates. Grain is shipped by water, but the fruit industry, on which the majority of California ranchers depend for a living, is a success or a failure in accordance with the grower's ability to get his fruit quickly to an Eastern market at rates that will leave him a profit. The universal complaint there is that the Southern Pacific company adjusts its freight charges so that the profits of fruit-raising go largely into its treasury. On the other hand, it is pointed out that the distance of California from a profitable market must always be an obstacle to its success as a fruit-growing State, in view of the competition of Florida and countries reached by water; that fruit-growing there has been overdone, as grape-raising undoubtedly has been (fine vineyards have been dug up in recent years as wholly unprofitable), and that a railroad has to charge more for carrying perishable freight than it does for carrying freight that can take its chances on the line and requires no attention.

California suffers from another "monopoly" that has a great deal to do with the formation of public opinion; that is, a lop-sided press. It is no exaggeration to say that there is scarcely a newspaper in the State that discusses public affairs with any degree of independence. Journalism there means truckling to party and to the mob element. It was so when Chinese rights were concerned, it was so when the Coxey movement was under way, and it is so now when the mob is paralyzing the business of the State. During the anti-Chinese excitement, editors whose papers were loudest in advocating the expulsion of the Chinese were ready to admit privately the falsity of their position. But the public were on the other side, and fear of loss of circulation or of advertising patronage dictated their course. Any visitor to California will hear intelligent Californians lament the weakness of the local press.

California, too, is politician-ridden. "Practical politics" controls its affairs, at great cost to the people. There is boodle in every public enterprise. Some of the persons appointed to assist in getting up the California exhibit at Chicago resigned because, even in such a matter, the bosses insisted that they should have a share, and it is said that some of the county exhibits in the San Francisco exhibition cost thousands of dollars more than they needed to on this account. As a result, the State Legislature is corrupt. It is openly charged with being out of real sympathy with the farmers. A railroad magnate, Stanford, had a life hold on the United States Senatorship. A quiet movement is in progress all over the State to place the State affairs in different hands.

Such is the situation there as it stands to-day. Separated by a vast distance from the Eastern States, and by a territory, too, that is for a great width not adapted to thick settlement, California has problems of its own to solve. Its State pride is intense, and, because of its seclusion and its vast area, county rivalry takes the place of State rivalry in the East. Its mines have become secondary in importance to its ranches, and in regard to these there are trying problems to be solved. Its capacity of production is undisputed. It is now trying to find out what it can produce at a profit. It may be the wine-producing country of the future. Its olives may supply the markets of the world. Its dried and canned fruits may be the source of permanent prosperity to its fruit-growers. But its population will have to learn the old lesson that no prosperity comes to a people who ignore law and order, and that economic wrongs are not righted at the hands of mobs, whether those mobs direct their energies against defenceless foreigners or temporarily defenceless corporations.

## *THE SETTLEMENT OF LABOR TROUBLES.*

AFTER sitting for over three years, the Royal Commission on Labor has submitted its final report. It had made a number of reports already, and has from the beginning poured forth a stream of documents of diverse character, so that it would require the leisure of a Methuselah to master the whole of its publications. The upshot of it all is, in the words of the London *Economist*, "a majority report which is more or less inconclusive, and a minority report which is little but the manifesto of a party." While the conclusions and recommendations submitted are not absolutely valueless, hardly any one will contend that they are worth the enormous amount of time and money which they have cost. The results are what could have been obtained at the outset in a week by getting the opinions of a dozen clear-headed men. In fact, the method of investigation pursued by this commission and by most commissions of this kind violates every principle recognized by science, and the results have the same relation to political economy that a collection of the files of all the newspapers published would have to history.

There are, however, some supplementary "Observations," drawn up by the Duke of Devonshire and signed by several of the commissioners, which are not without bearing upon our own troubles. As is well known, the English law was only recently amended so as to recognize the existence of unions of laborers in any way except as conspiracies; but the amendment did not go so far as to authorize the courts to enforce certain agreements which the trade-unions might advantageously make. The result is, that these bodies have been unable to enter into any legally enforce-

able contracts as bodies with each other, or with outside persons, except with regard to the management of their own funds and of real estate; and it appears that the same disabilities rest upon the trade associations of employers. In view of the fact, disclosed by the evidence given before the commission, that a considerable and very important part of British industry is conducted under collective agreements made in the most formal way between highly organized trade associations, and that the substitution of agreements between associations for agreements between individual employers and individual workmen is a growing practice, the commissioners hold that the law ought certainly to recognize the rights and obligations so created.

In the opinion of these commissioners such a change in the law would result in the better observance for definite periods of agreements with regard to wage-rates, hours of labor, apprenticeship rules, demarcation of work, profit-sharing, and joint-insurance schemes. But of still more consequence would be the better basis thus created for arbitration in industrial disputes. The absurdity of what is known as "compulsory arbitration" is well known. There is no means of compelling the parties to the arbitration to observe the judgment of the arbitrator. But if the trade-unions should be legally authorized to contract with employers, whether individuals or associations or corporations, the consequence would follow that they would be liable to be sued for damages, in case of breach of contract; which damages would be payable out of their collective funds. It may be added that, since questions of this kind would fall under the jurisdiction of all law courts, ordinary litigation would tend to take the place of arbitration in disputes between workmen and employers, as it does in most other controversies.

It is further recommended in these "Observations" that every contracting association should be responsible for carrying out the collective agreement by all its members, so long as they remain its members, and that every member of an association should, during membership, be held to be under a contract with the association for observance of this agreement. The effect of this would be to give to those entering into contracts with an association the right to sue it for damages in case of breach of contract by it, or by any of its members, and to give an association the right to recover damages from those of its members who infringed the collective agreement. It would be necessary to add to this a responsibility on the part of the association for the torts committed by its members, in cases of maltreatment or intimidation of free laborers, and also in cases where property was destroyed by its members during strikes. Such legislation as this would clearly establish a *modus vivendi*, and it would be practicable to maintain actions for damages without resorting to strikes or lockouts, for failure to submit questions to arbitration after agreement to do so, for failure to raise wages when promised, etc.; the controversy being settled in civilized fashion by the lawyers in court while the parties were going about their regular business.

To return to the subject of State intervention in trade disputes, the commissioners' observations are so judicious as to deserve quotation. They say:

"To examine this question it is desirable, in the first place, to point out what the State cannot do according to the ordinary principles accepted in this country. It seems to be obvious that the State cannot compel either individuals or bodies of men to enter into agreements, and that the state cannot compel employers to give employment or workmen to do work upon terms which they do not respectively accept. Inasmuch as strikes and lockouts are, in practice, the assertion of these essential liberties on the part of the employers and workmen, it is clear that the State cannot prohibit acts of this kind and compel the parties to resort to tribunals of any sort instead. It was suggested in the evidence that strikes and lockouts should be illegal and punishable in cases where arbitration had not first been resorted to. But it seems, for the reasons just given, that it is impossible to make strikes or lockouts illegal and punishable in any case, leaving out of consideration such exceptional cases as those of the army or navy, or certain cases especially provided for by legislation where a sudden strike in breach of contract may involve actual danger to the public. Generally speaking, it may be laid down that the State cannot compel parties to submit to arbitration matters upon which they have a perfect right to take their own line, and it cannot compel either employees or workmen to carry out, by way of specific performance, an award as to wages or other terms of service. For these reasons the Royal Commission on Trade Unions of 1867 appears to have decided rightly (while warmly advocating the extension of voluntary arbitrations) that no 'system of compulsory arbitration' is practicable."

It is evident that the scheme which is outlined above is rational and practicable. We are not disposed to maintain that the State should decline to enforce any contracts, not palpably against public policy, which individuals, or which associations of individuals, choose to make with one another. At the same time, in view of the narrow spirit which has always in the past characterized trade-unions, and which is as intense to-day as ever, we are inclined to regard any increase of their functions, except in the direction of mutual benefit and insurance, with some apprehension. The disposition manifested by these unions to exclude free workmen from the labor market might, if their strength were increased, lead to great oppression. Still, as their responsibility would increase with their strength, the rights of individual workmen might find sufficient protection under such a system as has been described, and it is perhaps the best solution available in England. In this country it is very evident that our pressing need is not for more law, but for the courageous enforcement of what already exists.

## ÎLE-DE-FRANCE AND PICARDY.—V.

LONDON, April, 1894.

COMPIÈGNE is a contrast to rude Coucy and grave Noyon—though far less than in the brilliant times when Napoleon III. passed his hunting seasons there. But it has a history, not feudal, communal, and episcopal like the other cities we had seen, but royal and even pontifical, for Innocent II., driven from Rome, established the Holy Seat there. Kings were chosen, crowned, poisoned, and buried, royal matches made, royal brides received, royal marriages celebrated there; queens divorced there and mistresses substituted for queens. There it was that Robert the Pious pardoned his assassins and St. Louis kissed the leper, that Jeanne d'Arc was captured and Richelieu appointed minister. The States-General have been held and treaties concluded there. But with all this history the two ancient churches and the Hôtel-de-ville are better worth seeing than the seat of the court, the château, a heavy edifice of the time of Louis XV.

The chief use of Compiègne to us was to serve as a base from which to move upon Pierrefonds. We drove through the Forêt de Compiègne, once sought for its wolves and boars, then for its stags, and now for the pictures it suggests to artists. Antiquarians find in it traces of the worship of the Druids and the stations of the Romans; at a later time, if we may believe Ariosto, the Knights of the Round Table held their meetings under the great trees. One should go by "la jolie route," which winds among the low hills well covered with oak and beech and hornbeam, catching near Pierrefonds distant views that recall New Hampshire or western Pennsylvania, noting here and there the touch of the woodman's axe or watching the rabbits scamper away from the track. Then one can return by the straight road and see the old women tottering under loads of brushwood twice as long as themselves, and looking indeed more like Birnam wood coming to Dunsinane than like human beings.

Pierrefonds, if it excites the imagination less than Coucy, instructs it more. Nowhere in the world is there such a reconstruction of the Middle Ages. Pierrefonds has been rebuilt exactly as it left the hands of the architect of Louis d'Orléans in 1390, and though the new decoration is of course not the same, it is conceived entirely in the spirit of the time by the most accomplished antiquarian architect that France has ever had. And yet one cannot regret that he never had at his disposal the fifty million francs that would have enabled him to restore Coucy with the same completeness. Let everything be done to preserve that from further dilapidation, but keep it as it is. One spick-and-span antique is enough in a small department.

At Pierrefonds, with a little time and a little reading, one could easily reconstitute the whole life of the château. The stage and the scenery are there; it needs but the actors and the costumes. And even the hurried tourist, if he will look well at the moats and ramparts, gates and drawbridges, sculptured columns, storied walls, carved chimneys, the great statue in the court, and the stone crocodiles crawling down the towers—look till he can close his eyes and yet see every detail—and then will call up his reminiscences of story and stage, of ballad and opera, will not find it difficult to fill the great halls with knights and ladies, the offices with servants, the guard-rooms and battlements with soldiers. One should not fail to see the fourteenth-century

church in the village—all there is to see, in fact. It is a most strange mixture of constructions of different epochs, with a very ancient crypt dug in part out of the rock.

At Clermont, though the fourteenth-century church is well worth a visit, we cared most for the market, whose opening was announced by a costumed official beating a drum about the streets, though at the close it simply melted away like the open-air markets in Paris. It was held on a slight declivity, paved with small flat-topped blocks of stone, beautifully clean, and surrounded by two-story stone houses, solid, respectable, clean, but dingy, among which stands prominent (on the corner of one of the four streets that start from the place) the town-hall, built in 1320, the oldest in the north of France. The night before, attracted by a light, I had listened to the town band practising there. No rustic band in a New England town ever played worse. The place was now filled with a hundred old peasants, the greater part of them women (all the country women are old), in sabots, odd caps, and long blue aprons tied round their extremely capacious waists, most of them with more wrinkles than they had provisions to sell, all talking at once with the utmost good humor, and selling out of the paniers in front of them (to a crowd of bonnes and careful housewives with baskets on their arms) cheese, cabbages, lettuce, and many other known and unknown vegetables which would no doubt make savory soups and salads. A little apart others had knit-goods, linen, crocheted lace, caps, sabots. There were, too, curious collections of dirty books, soiled, torn engravings, and old iron and brass, such as we had seen in Dordrecht and Rotterdam and spread out on the sidewalk around the Halles in Paris—a mass of rubbish which Americans would think fit only for the dust-heap; yet the sellers preserve it, pack it away carefully at night, and set it out early the next market day. I said sellers, but I never saw any one buying these rusty scraps. An anarchist might like them to stuff a bomb with; but that would not explain the persistent offer of them for sale in provincial towns where there are no anarchists. Perhaps the custom is a survival, as well as the goods, and, indeed, like the market itself, which has much declined from its former greatness. Once it served for the exchange of the products of seventy-seven villages; a great quantity of wheat was sold there. But the Railroad, which sets up and abases as it will, has destroyed this commerce as well as the fruit market, where quantities of early fruit used to be brought every year. Buyers now purchase direct from the producers, and the hill town is deserted. Even the three annual fairs, which have been held for 700 years, have but a shadow of their former glory. Like the other cities, Clermont had a commune (established in 1197), sieges (the English pillaged and burnt it twice), and, in the early times before the counts of Clermont became dukes of Bourbon, on their way to become kings of France, it received many royal visits, and Charles le Bel was born there.

After all, the church should not be passed by in silence, for it has some good glass, with naïve inscriptions which recount:

*Comment* St. Zacharie au roi Liutprand fit rendre
Les villes qu'au S. Siège il avait osé prendre.
*Comment* S. Constantien des dons de Clotaire
Pour la gloire de Dieu batit un monastère.
*Comment* St. François auprès du St. Siège
Pour fonder son ordre reçut des privilèges.
*Comment* St. Charles pieds nus et corde au cou
Va de par le pays emplorant Dieu pour tous.

As in most French towns, the antiquaries of Beauvais have been industrious in preserving the memories of the past. Before the Revolution, they say, the city was crowded within its ramparts. The streets were tortuous and narrow, so that the projecting upper stories shut out much of the light. At night they were not lighted; for long after the fashion of street lamps had been introduced in Paris the authorities professed to the intendant of the province that they were too poor to buy and maintain them. Nearly all the houses were tiled, except in some outlying quarters where they were thatched. Many streets were not paved, and the paving where there was any was poor. In the three years preceding 1789 only 5,500 francs was spent in improving it. The houses drained into the street as in Philadelphia. A stream of dirty water ran down the middle of the way, and the public scavenging consisted in pushing, when it rained, the heaps of refuse that had accumulated since the last shower into the middle of the street, and trusting to the force of the current to carry it into the river. When the rain held off too long, the bailiff of the county would sometimes order the streets to be dug out; but this did not often happen. The ditch in the middle of the street, which had its parallel in London as late as Johnson's time, was picturesque in places, no doubt, as may still be seen in the lower parts of Amiens, where the tanners and dyers establish their workshops over such streams, finding the water convenient, and hang their skins and cloths on lines across the streets to dry. In Beauvais this would be done especially along the three or four little rivers which ran around and through the city, and which, with the fourteen bridges thus required, permitted the inhabitants to call it the Venice of France. Evidently Beauvais deserved better the first of the three epithets attached to it by its neighbors, "la ville puante, sonnante, et médisante." No wonder it was decimated by epidemics three times in the seventeenth century and twice in the eighteenth. And in the fifteenth we read of such a plague that when Louis XI. was to pass through it, his physician ordered great fires to be made in the streets to drive away the bad air.

One sees why the metric system was desired by reasonable Frenchmen. The confusion of weights and measures must have been unendurable. Before the change there were two kinds of feet, *le pied du roi*, twelve inches, and *le pied du comté*, eleven inches; the *mine* (a measure of grain) had fifty *verges*, but in some fields of the city the *mine* had only forty-eight *verges*, and in others only thirty-six; wood to burn was four feet long, but at Notre Dame-du-Thil it was three feet eight inches. There were two kinds of pounds, *la livre poids de marc* of sixteen ounces, and *la livre du comté* of fourteen ounces. About the measure of wheat there was so much difficulty that it was fixed at last by an act of the Parlement; but for barley and oats there were still two measures, that of Allonne and that of the Abbey of St. Lucien. A little variation of weights and measures, like our pound troy and pound avoirdupois, or the ton and the long ton, can be endured; but when every city had its own money and its own measures, and some, like Beauvais, had two or three, affecting not rare purchases but daily transactions, the life of the traveller could not have been a happy one. An American can get some idea of it by recalling the annoyances of travel in his country before we had our zone system of time.

What a change the Revolution made in France can be seen in the case of Beauvais. In 1789 the city was still thoroughly feudal in institutions and mediæval in aspect. Fortifications, churches, convents, bridges, crooked, dark, malodorous streets, low, leaning houses, open drains, had all been kept, with the ninety-two church-bells that gained for it the name *sonnante*. Of the buildings and the streets some remain, fortunately for the tourist and not to be regretted by the citizen, for we had repeatedly noticed that it is not necessary that streets should be wide in order to be clean, and it is not a great evil that the street in front should be dark, if the court or garden behind is light. There are still plenty of old houses jutting out at each story, frame houses, with the beams displayed and the intervals between built in with bricks and colored tiles, red, green, blue, yellow. Some ways are so narrow that one can touch each side. Every one walks in the middle, the sidewalks being most used for the display of goods and viands for sale. But early in the century the ramparts were levelled and made into pleasant walks; where old houses have disappeared the streets have been widened; since 1789 they have been lighted at night; refuse is removed by carts; the drains now go under ground, and even the larger streams were covered. The greater part of the churches have disappeared and with them their musical bells.

The political and social changes, however, are far greater than the material. The whole complicated, cumbersome, annoying system of feudal institutions was destroyed at a blow. Whether there was as great a gain to the happiness and morals of the people as there has been in their comfort and hygiene would require more than a day's stay to determine. One of their own writers, rejoicing that Beauvais is no longer *puante*, and lamenting that it is no longer *sonnante*, confesses that it is still *un peu médisante*. But this may be only his satire and not more to be trusted than satire in general.

At dinner there we heard a lively political discussion, which, if it did not teach us much, amused us with contrasts of character—the eager propagandism of a radical Boulangist, who even confessed that he might be a practical anarchist but that he was not yet tired of life, the timid interjections of a townsman, the seriousness of a Moderate Republican, the indifference of a group of commercial travellers, the courteous non-committal of a high military officer. It showed—what too many scenes in the Chamber of Deputies might sometimes lead one to doubt—that there are Frenchmen who can engage in a warm discussion without losing their heads. The future of the nation depends on whether there are enough of that sort. There have been warm discussions before this at Beauvais. There were the usual disagreements between the bishop, the chapter, and the commune, and, besides, the bishop and the chapter at one time fell out on religious questions. The chapter by intrigue procured an order of the court closing the choir of the cathedral to certain canons suspected of Jansenism, and indeed went so far as to refuse the viaticum to one of them.

The cathedral is unique. Before the nave was begun, the political and religious movement that produced the great cathedrals of northern France was ebbing. It left at Beauvais only a transept and a choir. But such a choir! so light, so lofty; the Gothic idea of leading the eye upward carried to its extreme. Nowhere but at the Sainte-Chapelle in Paris is there such perpendicularity. Even the lofty nave of Saint Ouen at Rouen and the cathedral aisles, which in their narrowness seem still more lofty, do not affect one as does

Beauvais. If the artist's conception could have been carried out, there would have been no nobler cathedral in France, and there would have been no need to say that he who should add to the choir of Beauvais the nave of Amiens, the portal of Reims, and the towers of Chartres, would have the finest church in the world. Here heightening stopped, for no one could surpass Beauvais, and its accidents frightened all architects from trying to imitate it. Twice the vaulting of the choir fell in, because the columns were too light and the buttresses too far apart. In the middle of the fourteenth century the architects, instead of building the nave, devoted all their energies to proving that the Gothic style could soar as far above the ground as the Renaissance was promising to do in the projected dome of St. Peter's at Rome. They succeeded in carrying their spire more than a hundred feet higher (half as high as the Eiffel Tower), but their work, though it had taken thirteen years to build, lasted but five. If it had only had support from the wall of a nave, we should possess it to day and not be forced to learn its features from an imperfect engraving in a rare history.

In nothing are the ravages which fires, storms, and revolutionary zeal have inflicted upon the ancient French churches more to be regretted than in the loss of the colored glass that once cast a mysterious light through their aisles; yet in almost all enough is left to emphasize the coldness of the plain windows and the inferior beauty of the later painted glass. Colored glass was meant at once to temper the flood of light thrown into the Christian temples by their great Gothic windows, and yet to warm, at least in appearance, the cold and sombre rays of the northern winter. But this was not all. "In pictura," says St. Gregory, "legunt qui litteras nesciunt, et vident quod sequi debeant." As Ruskin calls the sculptures of Amiens its Bible, the windows of a cathedral are an illuminated Bible. They taught the lives of the patriarchs, the sufferings of Job, the trials of Tobias, the courage of Judith, the royal power of Esther, the virtues of the saints, the patience of the martyrs; and if after all it was only a scholar here and there that profited much by the lessons, they were in that not unlike all education. In the choir of the cathedral at Beauvais are lovely windows, but not equal to those at Reims, which surpass all that we have seen in rich and harmonious color. At St. Étienne, too, are some good windows of the sixteenth century, in which the figures are more clearly defined than in the earlier work, and yet the colors are not so staring as in many lamentable productions of the present century. But the glass at Reims was like real gems, rich, soft, and brilliant at the same time, while modern glass is like imitation jewels, pretty but with no true gleam.

At Beauvais our tour substantially ended. It should have included Amiens and Rouen, but we were obliged to hurry back to Paris, only stopping over a train at Beaumont, a hill-side town, to see a church of the thirteenth century and the remains of a château. We enjoyed this trip so much that we hope many of our countrymen will take it, but, as I said before, others equally interesting can easily be arranged.* C. R.

*Our course was as follows (a * marks a stay over night, a † a cathedral, a ‡ a castle): Soissons *†, Reims †***, Laon †*, Coucy ‡, Noyon ‡*, Compiègne †*, Pierrefonds ‡. Clermont *, Beauvais †*, Beaumont ‡. Only Compiègne, Pierrefonds, and Beaumont are in the Ile-de-France proper; the others except Reims are in that part of Picardy that was annexed to the Ile-de-France for Government purposes. Reims is in Champagne; but it may well be joined with the rest since the architect of Reims Cathedral, Robert de Coucy, was from the Domaine Royal, as the Ile-de-France is called, and the city itself is not far from the borders.

## PASQUIER'S NAPOLEONIC MEMOIRS.—IX.

PARIS, June 20, 1894.

THE fourth volume of the memoirs of Chancellor Pasquier has not the same dramatic, one might almost say epic, character as its predecessors. It extends from 1815 to 1820, and is the history of the first years of our parliamentary and constitutional government. The experiment took place under the most difficult circumstances. The Duke de Richelieu, who was intrusted with the task of forming a cabinet after the dismissal of the Talleyrand-Fouché cabinet, was a stranger in his own country; he enjoyed the favor of the Emperor Alexander of Russia, but for that reason was not quite sympathetic towards England and Austria. He had to negotiate with the allies on many points of the greatest importance. One day he returned from the conference with the foreign plenipotentiaries pale and trembling. "I am lost; I am dishonored; yes, after what I have just consented to, I ought to be hung. I am a sacrificed victim. Why did I return to my unfortunate country? It would have been better to flee to Asia." He obtained, however, better terms than any other person would have done, thanks to the great esteem which the Emperor Alexander felt for him: the military occupation of France, which was to last seven years, was reduced to five; the war indemnity was reduced from nine hundred to seven hundred millions (compare these terms with what France had to accept in 1871); the frontier of France remained what it was before, with the exception of Landau, which was given up; the fortifications of Huningue had to be demolished.

The trial of La Valette took place during these negotiations. La Valette had assumed the functions of postmaster-general. On the 20th of March, even before Napoleon had entered the capital, he sent couriers to him, and a circular to all the departments, in these terms:

"The Emperor will be in Paris in two hours. The capital is in a state of the greatest enthusiasm. All is quiet, and, whatever may be said to the contrary, there will be no civil war. 'Vive l'Empereur!' Signed: the Councillor of State, Postmaster-General, Count de La Valette."

The consequences of this act of open rebellion on the part of La Valette had been null, and he had acted only after the departure of the King. The coöperation of the humblest officer of the army which had joined the ranks of Napoleon's increasing force had been more important. Nevertheless, it was impossible that La Valette should not be tried for high treason. He was personally liked and popular. Marshal Marmont, Mme. de Vaudémont, and Pasquier, who was La Valette's personal friend, did all they could in his favor; but he was condemned to death. In vain did Mme. de La Valette throw herself at the feet of Louis XVIII. and ask for the pardon of her husband.

"At six o'clock P. M.," says Pasquier, "there was no longer any doubt; pardon had been refused. I went to Mme. de Vaudémont; she was, like myself, extremely sad, and we were exchanging our fears when she was advised that somebody was asking for her. She left me, and I half saw in the next room a man unknown to me, who was greatly agitated. I was struck by the change of countenance in Mme. de Vaudémont when she came back to the drawing-room; she was almost gay. When I returned home, I told Mme. Pasquier that I should be much mistaken if M. de La Valette had not made his escape from his prison."

The escape was conceived by a M. Baudus, who had been a journalist in Hamburg during the emigration. La Valette helped him when he returned to France and got him a position as preceptor to the son of Murat at Naples, and afterwards as translator at the Foreign Office. Baudus felt much gratitude and affection for La Valette, and he contrived a plan of escape, which succeeded. Mme. de La Valette was very tall, and was always enveloped in mantles and furs; she went to see her husband in prison, they exchanged clothes, and he escaped almost miraculously. At the door of the prison he was not hindered by the porter, who was unsuspicious, and he immediately entered a carriage which was kept in readiness by Baudus. He took refuge in the apartment of a high official of the Foreign Office, M. Bresson, in the hôtel of the Foreign Office, where the police did not think of searching for him; and not till after a fortnight was he taken in an English uniform in a carriage to Compiègne by Col. Hutchinson. There he entered the carriage of Gen. Wilson, who conducted him to Belgium, and he retired to Bavaria, at the house of his cousin, Prince Eugène de Beauharnais.

The trial of Marshal Ney took place at the same period. Ney had, unfortunately for himself probably, denied the competence of the council of war, and the council of war had also declared itself incompetent to pass judgment on him, as the marshal was a peer of France and could be tried only before the House of Peers. The marshals and generals who composed the council of war were only too happy to wash their hands of a most painful commission. But, says Pasquier, "what cannot be understood, without having seen it, was the revolting passion which manifested itself in the ranks of the highest society; nothing could truly paint the attitude and the language of some drawing-rooms. I saw men of good family put on the uniform of the national guard, which they had never worn, solicit and obtain the privilege of mounting guard at the door of the prison, and watch the room where the marshal was confined, not trusting anybody but themselves in their anxiety to prevent an escape."

Ney's trial is one of the most dramatic episodes of the Restoration. The military convention which had opened the gates of Paris to the King had this article: "Persons and private property will be respected: the inhabitants and in general all persons in the capital will continue to enjoy their rights and liberties, without being disturbed on account of the posts they fill or may have filled, their behavior, or their political opinions." The Duke of Wellington was of opinion that Marshal Ney could not have the benefit of this convention because it had not been ratified by the King. "In good faith," says Pasquier, "would anybody have dreamed that this convention would not bind the King of France as well as the allies? Was not their cause common? Had the convention not been made in the interest of the sovereign to whom it opened, without any of the misfortunes which might have been feared, the gates of his capital?" Ney was condemned: the Duke de Broglie was the only peer who answered negatively the questions put to the House. "The decree," says Pasquier, "was rigorous, but was it unjust? I think not; I believe no tribunal could have escaped the necessity of condemning the marshal. But the capitulation ought to have hindered the judgment; it ought to have decided the sovereign to pardon." Ney fell a few yards from the Palace of the Luxembourg, where he had been judged, under the fire of a few soldiers. The Russians did not conceal their indignation,

One of them said to one of the judges: "It is quite clear that you were not in the French army in Russia, for you would not speak as you do of the most prodigious man of that army, of the man whose heroic courage saved its remnants, and to whom forty thousand of your best soldiers owed their lives."

The condemnation of Ney and of La Valette, instead of making the task of the restored dynasty easier, made it more difficult. There was in reality a gulf between the people and the dynasty; the forms of parliamentary government covered it for some time, but in reality the country was never quite reconciled to the Bourbons. It requires the pen of a Macaulay to render parliamentary history very interesting. I must confess that Pasquier is often fatiguing when he speaks of the discussions of the chamber, the changes of cabinet; he enters into the most minute details concerning affairs which have now lost much of their interest, concerning laws which are forgotten, concerning rivalries which have lost their meaning. The impression which the reader receives is that of a permanent hostility subsisting between the nation and the dynasty, and of a sort of artificiality in the political life of the constituted powers. There was below the surface an undercurrent of hostility, somewhat analogous to that which existed between 1814 and 1815, and made the return of Napoleon from Elba such an easy and astounding triumphal march.

Bonaparte was now too far off; he was in a prison from which he could not escape. It is nevertheless the belief of Pasquier that he contrived at St. Helena to keep up some secret communications with France. The history of the conspiracies which took place during the first years of the Restoration is told minutely by Pasquier, and with the exactitude which might be expected of a former prefect of police. First we have the conspiracy of Grenoble. The department of Isère was one in which Bonapartist sentiment had always been very ardent. Napoleon had been received with acclamation in Grenoble in March, 1815. The head of the conspiracy was a man called Didier, who had been a lawyer and a professor of law. He was hidden in the mountains of Dauphiny, and, with some hundred mountaineers, tried to seize Grenoble in the night. The rebels were attacked and routed by Gen. Donnadieu. Eleven of the prisoners taken were condemned and shot. Didier fled to Turin, was extradited and executed. A more important conspiracy was formed at Lyons in 1817; many arrests were made and many condemnations pronounced. Some persons openly accused Gen. Canuel, who was in command at Lyons, of having secretly been an accomplice, and scandalous debates took place on that subject.

At the end of June, 1818, Pasquier, who was then minister, received an extraordinary revelation. "An officer of gendarmes had entered into a conspiracy with some officers, among whom were Generals Canuel and Donnadieu; they had resolved to arrest the ministers at Saint Cloud, after the council, and to take them to Vincennes. They intended to force the King to change his cabinet. They hoped to execute their project with the help of two regiments, one a Swiss regiment, the other the regiment of the cuirassiers of the guard, commanded by M. de la Rochejacquelin. A letter from Gen. Donnadieu, found in the papers of M. de Chateaubriand and sold to the police, seemed to prove that the famous author of the 'Genius of Christianity' was not ignorant of the plot. The conspirators met every day on the deserted terrace of the Tuileries, which is parallel to the river, and in the histories of the Restoration this plot goes by the name of the "conspiration du bord de l'eau." Pasquier was of opinion that the conspirators should be allowed to act in order that a regular prosecution might have material enough to justify arrests and examinations of witnesses. The Government preferred to resort to arbitrary arrests and to anticipate the conspirators. The two suspicious regiments were sent away; Gen. Canuel disappeared, and no papers were found in his house. He returned and was arrested with a few others, but, in the absence of any proof, was set at liberty.

Pasquier gives many details about another much more important plot, which had for its object the proclamation of Napoleon II., in the eyes of some of the conspirators, and in the eyes of others the proclamation of a republic. The agents of the plot travelled all over France, and placed themselves in communication with the discontented officers of the army. Pasquier thinks that the banker Laffitte gave funds to the conspirators.

"When," says he, "Laffitte had to render an account to the executors of Napoleon, he could not justify the employment of a sum of 1,500,000 francs; he had no receipts to show from Napoleon, or Bertrand, or M. de Montholon. However, these gentlemen allowed the expense. It was because they knew very well that M. Laffitte had conformed to the intentions of his master, probably in obedience to verbal orders which had reached him in some particular way. This important fact proves clearly the part which Bonaparte, though he was shut up in Saint Helena, played in the agitations which tormented France as long as he was alive. This observation on the part which the Bonapartist party played till 1821 is fully confirmed by another observation: after the death of Napoleon, conspiracies ceased entirely in France."

# Correspondence.

## THE COLLEGE ANARCHIST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your statement in the last *Nation*, to the effect that there is a sort of moral justification for attacks upon life and property based upon a theory which comes from the colleges, libraries, and lecture-rooms, and latterly from the churches, is supported by the teaching and the practice of the University of Wisconsin.

Prof. Ely, director of the School of Economics, believes in strikes and boycotts, justifying and encouraging the one while practising the other. Somewhat more than a year ago a strike occurred in the office of the *Democrat* Printing Company, the State printers. An agitator or a walking-delegate came from Kansas City to counsel and assist the strikers. He was entertained at Prof. Ely's house and was in constant consultation with him. A little later a strike occurred in another printing office in this city, in which Prof. Ely was also an abettor and counsellor. He also demanded of the proprietors that their office should be made a union office, threatening to take his printing away if they did not comply. (They were publishing a paper for him as secretary of some organization or association.) Upon the refusal of his repeated demands, Prof. Ely withdrew his printing, informing them that he had always been in the habit of dealing with union offices. In conversation with one of the proprietors he asserted that where a skilled workman was needed, a dirty, dissipated, unmarried, unreliable, and unskilled tramp, if a union man, should be employed in preference to an industrious, skilful, trustworthy non-union man who is the head of a family. He also stated that the latter would have no ground of complaint, as he could easily remove the objections to him by joining the union, and that conscientious scruples against joining the union would prove the individual to be a crank.

Such is Ely the citizen and business man—an individual who can say to citizens and taxpayers, "Stand and deliver, or down goes your business," and to laboring men, "Join the union or starve with your families." Prof. Ely, director of the School of Economics, differs from Ely the socialist only in the adroit and covert method of his advocacy. A careful reading of his books will discover essentially the same principles, but masked by glittering generalities and mystical and metaphysical statements susceptible of various interpretations according as a too literal interpretation might seem for the time likely to work discomfort or loss to the writer. His books are having a considerable sale, being recommended and advertised by the University and pushed by publishers and dealers. Except where studiously indefinite and ambiguous, they have the merit of such simplicity of statement as makes them easily read by the uneducated. They abound in sanctimonious and pious cant, pander to the prohibitionists, and ostentatiously sympathize with all who are in distress. So manifest an appeal to the religious, the moral, and the unfortunate, with promise of help to all, insures at the outset a large public. Only the careful student will discover their utopian, impracticable, or pernicious doctrines, but their general acceptance would furnish a seeming moral justification of attacks upon life and property such as the country has already become too familiar with.

Very truly yours, Oliver E. Wells.

Department of Public Instruction,
Madison, Wis., July 5, 1894.

## BACK AND FORTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your learned English correspondent, "F. H." (whom I take to be Dr. Fitzedward Hall), says, in the *Nation* of last week, "That *back and forth* was ever better than a provincialism is unlikely." I suppose if we can show him "forth and back" in a good author of three hundred years ago, he would see that it might once have been a good English usage. Now, in that interesting version of the Psalms begun by Sir Philip Sidney (who died in 1586) and finished by his sister Mary, the famous Countess of Pembroke, occurs this verse, in the 139th Psalm:

"If forth I march, Thou goest before;
If back I turn, Thou com'st behind;
So *forth nor back*
Thy guard I lack;
Nay, on me too Thy hand I find.
Well I Thy wisdom may adore,
But never reach with earthly mind."

What may give this example a more curious value is, that the version in question, though the work of two such renowned and beloved persons, was never printed till more than two hundred years after Mary Sidney's death in 1621, but lay in Dr. Donne's beautiful handwriting till Mr. Singer published it in 1823. Fifty years later (1873) it was reprinted by Grosart; portions of it also by Mr. Ruskin more recently. F. B. Sanborn.

Concord, Mass., July 6, 1894.

# Notes.

The collection of Coleridge's letters to be edited by Ernest Hartley Coleridge will be manufactured for England and the United

States by the American publishers, Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Mr. J. G. Cupples, the Boston publisher, has associated with himself Mr. H. W. Patterson, under the firm name of Cupples & Patterson.

The second volume of Mr. J. N. Larned's great compendium called 'History for Ready Reference—from the Best Historians, Biographers, and Specialists' (Springfield, Mass.: C. A. Nichols Co.) follows close upon the first, in judging which we judged also the series, so far as the scheme is concerned. Vol. ii. embraces both England, France, and Germany, for its longest articles, and we suppose that chance mainly has determined that the number of pages assigned to each should be 203, 240, and 120 respectively. Since Europe is also among the topics of this volume, filling 115 pages, it is evident that the countries just named can be studied, independently and in relation, in a pretty broad way. The bringing of the several histories down to date is noticeable, and we may specify under England the summary of the Corrupt Practices Act, the text of the Reform Bill of 1884-5, and the summary of the Home Rule Bill of 1892-93; under Germany the rupture and reconciliation between Bismarck and the Emperor. The article on Europe is from the editor's own pen, and is exceptional in not consisting of excerpts from other writers.

We can do little more than register the appearance of the tenth volume of the 'Catalogue of Scientific Papers' compiled by the Royal Society of London (London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan). This is, we are left to infer, the second volume of the papers for 1874-1883, as it begins at Gissmann and ends at Pettersson. The periodical literature embraced in these references is world-wide, but the catalogue is wholly by authors and not by topics, so that its utility is primarily and almost exclusively biographical. Each name occurring in the catalogue of earlier periods is numbered consecutively on. Thus, Asa Gray starts in at No. 108, and in the course of two columns reaches No. 140; Clarence King begins at 2, S. P. Langley at 22, Simon Newcomb at 36, B. A. Gould at 62, Mathew Carey Lea at 47, J. L. Le Conte at 118—to cite only American examples, among which we have also turned up Elisha Gray, Arnold Hague, Joseph Henry, H. W. Henshaw, E. W. and Julius Hilgard, E. S. Holden, John and Joseph Le Conte, Benjamin and C. S. Peirce, etc. In the case of the elder Peirce there is an exceptional reference to biographical notices of him; and under B. A. Gould one remarks sundry errata detected in entries in the earlier volumes. The typography of this catalogue is sumptuous.

The second volume in Prof. Todd's "Columbian Knowledge Series" (Roberts Bros.) proceeds from the librarian of Amherst College, Mr. W. I. Fletcher, and is upon a theme in which this author is an expert, viz., 'Public Libraries in America.' In brief chapters he touches on the history of the institution, the laws promotive of it, the buildings, selection and purchase of books, cataloguing, management, relation to the public schools, training of librarians, etc., describes some characteristic libraries and librarians, and supplies in an appendix a variety of statistics. We see Massachusetts at the head with more than 200 public libraries, containing 2,000,000 volumes, or almost as many as those in all outside public libraries in the Union, and an average of 1.23 volumes to each inhabitant; leading, too, in a law for encouraging the establishment of libraries, which New Hampshire adopts and betters by making taxation to that end compulsory, with State aid. Mr. Fletcher remarks that one-half of the 100 largest free libraries in the country have female chief librarians. There is a discrepancy on pp. 15, 25 as to the number of towns and libraries in Massachusetts, and in appendix ii. the Cornell Library should have an added reference on p. 138, viz., to No. 25 on p. 139, since its Dante collection is now preëminent; so Dante should have a reference back to Cornell.

Mr. Fletcher's appendix offering a scheme of classification is printed by itself, with some modifications, in a larger form by the same publishers, under the title, 'Library Classification,' and will no doubt serve a useful end. Still another scheme, of 1,000 heads, borrowed from the Dewey classification, is to be found in 'Hints to Small Libraries,' by Miss Mary W. Plummer, librarian of the Pratt Institute, Brooklyn. This is a very clear and practical book of instructions daintily printed, and may heartily be recommended to the inexperienced.

It was well worth while to collect the late Prof. Baynes's essays on Shakspere ('Shakespeare Studies, by Thomas Spencer Baynes,' Longmans). The chief of them, the article "Shakespeare" in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' is well known as a robust and sensible piece of combined criticism and biography, and loses nothing by being printed in a book easier to handle and to read than a cyclopædia volume. The other Shaksperian studies were contributions to periodicals, and ran the risk of being overlooked even by special students. They were all worthy of reproduction. The most important is that on "What Shakespeare Learned at School"; the least considerable, that on "Shakespeare Glossaries." Why the detached article "On English Dictionaries" was appended to the series, it is hard to see. It is now hopelessly out of date, and never was of very much consequence. Prof Lewis Campbell contributes a good biographical sketch of the author.

The progress in pessimism which the successive novels of Valdés seem to show, suffers no check in his latest volume, 'The Grandee' (London: Heinemann), in which he surely lets pessimism have its perfect work. Even his humor of other days has little to represent it here except cruel practical jokes, while the main characters of his story are such moral perverts or monsters that the account of their hideous doings reads like an essay in teratology. The climax of the book consists in the fiendish tortures to which a little girl was subjected by her mother. It is useless to waste words in disputing whether this is realism or not, or whether it is a mere diseased ferocity; so repellent a book cannot be dismissed too quickly by the reviewer, or forgotten too soon by the public. The translator, Rachel Challice, appears to have a good knowledge of Spanish, though a deficient knowledge of idiomatic English.

What the Hibbert Lectures have done for London in attracting Continental scholars as lecturers, the Gifford Lectures promise to do for Edinburgh. Prof. Pfleiderer was chosen Gifford Lecturer for 1894, and the lectures which he read in Edinburgh in January and February are already out in two volumes, 'Philosophy and Development of Religion' (Edinburgh: Blackwood; New York: Putnams). In his introduction he cleverly, if somewhat daringly, ingratiated himself with an Edinburgh audience by citing the names of Knox, Hume, and Carlyle, as those of men who had passed on the torch of "Natural Religion" from one to the other. In his first volume he plunges into the deep waters of theological speculation, in which those who choose, or can, may follow him. Leaving this philosophy of religion, in which we cannot consider him strong, he takes up in his second volume the history of the actual development of religion, in which everybody knows that he is particularly strong. He freely draws on matter of his own previously published, and makes a compact statement of the history of Christianity, viewed critically, from its beginnings down to Luther.

Dr. Mary Putnam-Jacobi's '"Common Sense" Applied to Woman Suffrage' appears in the "Questions of the Day" series of the Messrs. Putnam, and is avowedly a tract aimed at the New York Constitutional Convention now sitting. Its punning title obscurely intimates a proposed lightness of touch which proves to be not congenial to this writer, and which is conjoined with evident haste and carelessness both in composition and in printing. It is Paine's 'Common Sense' which Dr. Putnam-Jacobi undexterously endeavors to apply to her chosen topic. There is a wealth of historical citation, duly attested by footnotes, which is out of key with the humor of the conception, and which is invalidated by some extraordinary perversions of the history of the rise of the woman's-rights agitation in this country in connection with the anti-slavery cause, as well as by want of discrimination in the use of authorities. Much easier reading is the appendix, an address by the same author, on behalf of the women of the city of New York, before the suffrage committee of the Convention on May 31. The levity of Dr. Jekyll here gives way to the gravity of Mr. Hyde; and sparkle, looseness, and helter-skelter are replaced by a restrained and coherent argument, devoid of all semblance of pedantry, and worthy of the occasion. Its object being to convince, this tract should have been turned end for end.

M. Gustave Allais has been giving a course on Racine's drama, during the past winter, at Rennes, and intends to publish the result of his studies in book form. A sample has already been issued in the shape of a pamphlet containing his opening lecture, 'Le Théâtre de Racine' (Paris: Thorin & Fils), which forms very entertaining reading and whets one's appetite for the completed work.

Mélanie Scheler's 'Aimer, souffrir et croire' (Brussels: Parent & Cie.; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer) is a collection of sentimental, wishy-washy rhymed prose, the publication of which is inexcusable, even if "friends" did press the too willing authoress to inflict it on the public.

Jean Bertheroy's 'Le Mime Bathllye' (Paris: Colin & Cie.) has apparently been inspired by Flaubert's 'Salammbô' or 'Hérodias,' but the inspiration has not produced a masterpiece. The sensual side of Roman life in the time of Augustus, the rivalry of two pantomimists, and the shady side of society generally have attracted the young writer more than his account of these things will attract the public.

A really strong novel, well worth reading, is 'Pour un Faux,' by Count Wodzinski (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Charles Eitel). It is a story of Jewish rapacity and Christian weakness, of temptation, fall and recovery, which claims the reader's interest from the start and holds it to the very end. Genuinely realistic, in the best sense of the word, 'Pour un Faux' can be read by any one, and is proof that, Maupassant to the contrary notwithstanding, the story of a pure woman's life and sorrows may be made deeply interesting.

M. Marcel Prévost, who writes in the Paris *Temps* on "The World of Sentiment," has written a novel, 'Les Demi-Vierges' (Paris: Lemerre; New York: Meyer Frères & Cie.), in which he professes to give a true picture of the effect of so-called modern or English education upon the French girl. If we are to accept this as bona-fide on M. Prévost's part, the conclusion is irresistible that he has been fooled into believing demi-mondaines women of good society, or that he has so foul a mind himself that he can see nothing but foulness anywhere. His whole work is false, inconsistent, and evil in tendency, expression, and effect. He is absolutely ignorant of home life and family education, and thoroughly *au fait*, on the other hand, with that peculiar portion of society which is supposed to flourish nowhere so luxuriantly as in Paris.

The latest issues of Seuffert's "Deutsche Litteraturdenkmale des 18. und 19. Jahrhunderts" (Stuttgart: Goeschen) are 'Ausgewählte kleine Schriften von Georg Forster' (Nos. 46, 47), edited by Albert Leitzmann of Jena, and 'Wilhelmine von Moritz August von Thümmel' (No. 48), reprinted from the first edition of 1764 and edited by Richard Rosenbaum of Berlin. 'Wilhelmine oder der vermählte Pedant' is one of the best of those prose epics, chiefly of a comical or sentimental character, which enjoyed a certain popularity in the latter half of the eighteenth century, but very few of which deserve republication. Far more important are the minor writings of George Forster, who was one of the most remarkable men of his time, and whose suggestive contributions to ethnology, natural history, and politics may still be read with pleasure and profit. The seven essays contained in the present volume are admirably selected. Other recent numbers of this valuable series are 'Von deutscher Art und Kunst einige fliegende Blätter' (40 and 41), 'Gedichte von Johann Nicholaus Götz aus den Jahren 1745-1765' (42), and 'Goezes Streitschriften gegen Lessing' (43-45). The last-mentioned work is carefully edited by Erich Schmidt, and will interest all students of Lessing, on the principle *audiatur et altera pars*. Indeed, the entire series is excellent in both plan and execution.

The same publisher has issued a timely pamphlet of forty-seven pages entitled 'Zur Kenntnis des Marxismus: kritische Skizzen,' by Dr. Arthur Mülberger, the author of a volume of 'Studien über Proudhon'; and a fourth edition of Prof. Theobald Ziegler's 'Die sociale Frage eine sittliche Frage' (pp. 182). Both writers repudiate all schemes of State socialism as absurd and inefficient, and advocate the moral improvement and intellectual elevation of the individual, and the greatest possible economic and political freedom, as the sole basis of social reform.

A voluminous Spanish-Zapotec dictionary has just been published at Mexico by the Junta Columbina of the City of Mexico, in a splendid folio having two columns to the page. The above Junta obtained the manuscript for publication from Don Porfirio Diaz, President of the republic. We calculate that the work contains about 10,000 Spanish terms, while the Zapotec vocables are more numerous. A dictionary containing the same Zapotec terms first and the Spanish second has not yet been discovered. The manuscript of what has been published is a huge quarto volume, also written in two columns; its apparent date is the middle of the eighteenth century, but it has neither title nor preface, and is bound in parchment. There is nothing in it to indicate the author's name, though on its back we read: "Dictionario sapoteco del Balle." It is evidently a clean copy of an earlier manuscript. The orthography of the Spanish terms is by no means a model of correctness. The dialect differs not inconsiderably from that of Cordoba's vocabulary. The Zapotec people, who speak this language in several dialectic forms, occupy a large tract in the southeastern portion of the State of Oajaca, in southern Mexico, and reckon a population of about 260,000 Indians, or as many as there are Indians on all the United States reservations. They are an intellectual and peaceable nation, and in ancient times were warlike and powerful. The ruins of Mitla and other remains of monumental splendor stand upon their domain.

The *Archivio Storico dell' Arte Italiana* for March-April (but just issued) contains a richly illustrated article on the exhibition of Ferrara-Bolognese masters now being held at the Burlington Fine Arts Club in London. Among the illustrations is one of a "Nativity," the earliest existing work by Garofalo. This interesting and beautiful picture, forming until recently part of the Borghese Gallery, has lately passed into the hands of Mr. Theodore M. Davis of Newport, R. I. If historical collections must break up, it is to be hoped that other Americans will follow the example of Mr. Davis, and procure us our share of the spoils.

Dr. Veeder of Lyons, N. Y., announces that the Jackson-Harmsworth polar expedition, starting from London this month for an extended sojourn in the arctic regions, will coöperate in observing the aurora borealis upon the concerted plan in use by a large number of observers in various parts of the earth, and by the expeditions of Lieut. Peary and Dr. Nansen, thereby insuring, with what has already been done, the continuance and perfecting of these observations, which are leading to results that promise great practical value, not only to astronomical and meteorological science, but to physical research in general.

We have already spoken of the Tennyson cross to be erected on the western end of the Isle of Wight. An American subscription committee has been formed, of which the secretary is Miss Fay Davis, whose address is care of Mrs. James T. Fields, Manchester, Mass.

—The summer note is clearly struck by *Scribner's* for July in its opening article on "The North Shore of Massachusetts," wherein Mr. Robert Grant describes alluringly the near-by seaside resorts of Boston, ranging from Nahant to Cape Ann, where a more rational method of recreation is pursued than prevails at more fashionable and more bustling places. Prof. N. S. Shaler's article on "Beasts of Burden" has nothing to say about the horse, but includes the sheep, on the ground that "each year's fleece often amounts in weight to eight to twelve pounds, and in its lifetime the animal may yield a mass of wool far exceeding its weight of flesh and bones in any time of its life." A very interesting article, in these sociological times, is that in which Mr. Ernest Flagg proposes a plausible cure of the tenement-house evil, which, according to him, has arisen from the division of New York city blocks into lots of 25x100 feet, and can be materially abated by building houses square, or as nearly so as possible. By diagrams and figures he demonstrates that while four tenement-houses built on four city lots after the prevailing custom, and thus occupying 10,000 square feet, will afford only 2,060 feet of space devoted to light and air, a single square building on the same ground, constructed with a central court-yard, will afford 3,060 feet of such space, the available rental area being the same in both instances. Moreover, the proposed innovation has the added advantage of effecting a saving of 15 per cent. in cost, the calculation being for a six-story structure. If these estimates commend themselves to the experts, they are of far-reaching importance, and form a valuable contribution to the solution of a serious problem. Worthy of mention, also, is the initial article of a series which Carl Lumholtz is to contribute, treating of the cave-dwelling Indians of Northern Mexico.

—The literary traditions of the *Atlantic* are not belied in a first instalment of the letters of Sidney Lanier, edited with graceful comments by William R. Thayer. The letters printed in this number were written in 1875-76 to Gibson Peacock, editor of the Philadelphia *Evening Bulletin*, who had been one of the first critics to recognize Lanier's poetic gift, and befriended him when he was in great need of friends. They are pleasant reading, revealing, as they do, a sensitive and poetic soul. A rare literary aroma, too, pervades an anonymous article entitled "The City on the Housetops," which owes its charm entirely to the perfection of its form and to its skill in handling a simple theme in a genial manner. We must mention also an article on Lucretius and another on Coleridge. Besides these there is an instructive comparative study of the various forms of government in use in our principal cities, showing a tendency to concentrate power in the hands of mayors and appointed commissions rather than in elective bodies; showing also a helpless sort of groping in the dark, a readiness to make radical changes to meet temporary needs and to abandon at short notice the principles of popular government. One curious result of the investigation is that the only city which has a satisfactory government is Washington—the only city whose inhabitants have absolutely no voice in its government, the only city where no elections are held and whose citizens have no vote. This anomaly in our system attracted the notice of Prof. Bryce. We have already called attention to Prof. Laughlin's "Monetary Reform in Santo Domingo."

—*Harper's* opens with part one of Charles Dudley Warner's new story, "The Golden House." The reader is at once plunged into the giddiest eddies of the very centre of our best society, so familiar to him from some recent American novels; he has a vague sort of impression that in some previous state of existence he has seen and heard it all before; once more he is haunted with that problem in the rule-of-three: as the anise-seed bag is to a fox, so are "the four hundred" to an aristocracy; and, as on previous occasions, Mr. Warner stops every now and then to buttonhole the helpless reader and moralize *de omnibus rebus et quibusdam aliis*. Fiction is strong in this number, as is proper. "Trilby" is continued, with a tragic turn; Miss Grace King has one of her short sketches, and Brander Matthews one of his. Owen Wister has a good story of the Southwest, and there are one or two more. Very attractive is the third part of Mr. Howells's account of his first visit to New England. In describing so frankly the ingenuous hero-worship with which he regarded the literary magnates of Boston, he somehow reminds one of Thackeray's young fellows. Incidentally he mentions that about 1860 he was a contributor to Henry Clapp's *Saturday Press*, and he quotes Dr. Holmes as

saying of Hawthorne, "He is like a dim room with a little taper of personality burning on the corner of the mantel." Of considerable practical interest is Commander Jewell's description of the United States naval gun factory, of which he is superintendent.

—Music-lovers should not omit to read Antonin Dvorák's article on Franz Schubert in the *Century*. In the first place, it is written with charming directness and a refreshing neglect of rhetorical flourish; secondly, it is interesting, not only for its subject, but also for the unhesitating manner in which Dr. Dvorák expresses his opinion on a variety of topics on all of which he is competent to speak. In citing Rubinstein's saying that Bach, Beethoven, and Schubert are the highest summits in music, he adds that he agrees in including Schubert in the list, but would amend it by adding Mozart. Schubert's symphonies he places next to Beethoven's, and far above Mendelssohn's. Another of his judgments is that the only departments of music in which Schubert did not reach the highest summit of achievement are opera and sacred music. Dr. Albert Shaw contributes another of his studies in municipal government in an account of "What German Cities Do for their Citizens" in the matter of water-supply, drainage, electric-lighting, etc. Once more he emphasizes the contrast between our methods and theirs—a contrast that may be explained by saying that in German cities the public business is managed with the same intelligence and integrity that we look for only in the case of private corporations or firms. Particularly to the point is the account of what has been done in Berlin, all within a generation, and much of it during the last two decades. The notice of the municipal pawnshops will be read with interest in view of the recent establishment of our public-loan society. Mr. Marion Crawford begins a story, "Love in Idleness," in which he lavishes sprightliness and epigram with his customary profusion; here, again, we are introduced into the midst of the American *haute volée*, but it is painful to observe that the conversation of the heroine is modelled on that of Dodo. Mrs. Burton Harrison also begins a story, "A Bachelor Maid," the future course of which practised novel-readers will have little trouble in divining.

—Regarding the word Notch, as denoting a pass between two peaks, a correspondent writes: "Mr. Matthews has proved the 'Century Dictionary' to lie under a mistake in limiting the use of Notch to Adirondack or White Mountain gaps. But the only two instances he mentions in Vermont are near the north line of the State, and might be supplemented by others nearer the heart of the Green Mountain range. A dozen miles southwest of Rutland, the pass as you go over the ridge separating Tinmouth from Middletown has been for generations called 'The Notch.' In fact, it looks like 'something cut or indented by art.' Nor did it therefore seem to the Yankee name-givers one whit less appropriate for describing a freak of Nature in which the good mother appeared to be emulating the whittling exploits of their jackknives. May there not even be discovered such a name as Jackknife Notch?"

—The commonwealth of Massachusetts has at last taken decided action to prevent the marriage of children in that State. In 1854, in the case of Parton vs. Hervey (1 Gray, 123), the Supreme Court there decided that "the age of consent, as fixed by the common law," was the rule, viz., twelve years in females and fourteen in males. It seemed that in 1833 an attempt had been made to alter the law, but it failed. Hence it followed that such infants could be married with the consent of parents. Of late years the efforts of various charitable societies had effected an increase of the limit of age in criminal cases, so that girls under sixteen years were held to be not consenting to their own harm; but the right of parents to dispose of their children under cover of law remained. A flagrant case in Boston, last winter, attracted attention, and the Legislature has at last given relief in a bill which may serve as an exemplar to other communities. It provides that "no town or city clerk or registrar shall receive a notice of the intention of marriage of any male under the age of eighteen years, nor of any female under the age of sixteen years"; but the judge of probate in any county, after due hearing, may make an order allowing the marriage of a minor under the age just specified, provided that said minor resides in a city or town within the county, and that the father, or in case of his death the mother, or, if neither parent is alive and resident in the commonwealth, a legal guardian, has given consent to such order. A certified copy of the order is the clerk's or registrar's warrant for issuing the certificate. This prevents a legal form of marriage, but the bill should have provided penalties for any parties who should proceed to join infants in marriage. Massachusetts, and probably other States, after adopting wise rules, proceed to nullify them by a law which says that any marriage is legal if either party thereto thought that the ceremony was valid.

—'The Operas of Gilbert and Sullivan,' described by Percy Fitzgerald (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.), comes opportunely at a time when efforts are being made in several places to revive some of these works. The writer has allowed himself 248 pages and 60 illustrations to describe and picture the dozen operettas in which Gilbert and Sullivan have collaborated, as well as their principal interpreters, prominent among whom is Mr. Grossmith. There is no question that these men have created a new school of English opera, the first since Purcell, which did not live long. Probably the new school will not live far into the next century, but even if it dies, it will have supplied an enormous amount of harmless entertainment and hilarity to hundreds of thousands of theatre-goers—hilarity never aroused at the expense of propriety. Eighteen years these two writers have worked together, and Mr. Fitzgerald has collected from newspaper articles, interviews, and other sources a large amount of interesting information regarding the method of this collaboration. Most readers will be surprised to find out how much labor Mr. Gilbert expended on his librettos, working them over four or five times before he was satisfied. Strange to say, Mr. Gilbert "has no ear for music. He is very fond of it, but he would hardly be conscious of a discord. Time and rhythm he knows." But if he is ignorant of music, Sir Arthur Sullivan makes up for this by his fine ear for poetic accent. There have been operetta composers more enchantingly melodious and more richly harmonious than he, but in the art of fitting a poem with music as one fits a glove to a hand, he is a model for all dramatic composers. Mr. Fitzgerald shows that the stage-management and every detail of action and scenery, are in the Savoy Theatre, as rigidly under the control of the librettist and composer as were those at Bayreuth. And herein lies a large share of the enormous success of these operettas, which have made Sullivan one of the richest composers of all times.

## A RECENT SCHOOL OF CONSTITUTIONAL CRITICISM.

*Sources of the Constitution of the United States*, considered in relation to Colonial and English History. By C. Ellis Stevens, LL.D., D.C.L., F.S.A. (Edinburgh). Macmillan & Co. 1894.

THE Constitution of the United States as a subject for annotation, investigation, laudation, and disputation is fast coming to be about as bad as Shakspere. As with Shakspere, its supreme greatness in its own sphere was not perceived by contemporary men, and time swept away the authors of the instrument and cheated them of an author's rightful dues, the hearing of the chorus of praise, which arose when it was too late for them to hear it. Like Shakspere, the Constitution commands the attention of other nations than its own, and has its students and commentators and historians in other lands, writing of it in other languages. We shall soon be asking whether there is any other short work in the English language, except "Hamlet," about which so much has been written as the brief document which reposes in the State Department at Washington. In another way the Constitution also finds its parallel in Shakspere: writers at last appear to demonstrate that, after all, it was not original work; that it was but the "adaptation" of older plays to the modern stage, and that behind the framers was another Bacon.

Philadelphia seems, during recent years, to have become a hotbed of constitutional studies. The late Mr. Brinton Coxe, Mr. Meigs, Mr. McMurtree, Mr. Carson—all lawyers—and now the Rector of Christ Church, the old church in which Washington worshipped, have been at work at the same time. Perhaps it is the influence of Independence Hall upon studious natures; perhaps it is a growing belief among Philadelphians that the city contributed the Constitution to the national welfare, or that if there had been no Philadelphia there would have been no Constitution. Certain it is that Mr. Stevens always speaks, and sometimes in successive sentences, of the great Convention as the "Philadelphia Convention," "the convention at Philadelphia," "the Constitutional convention at Philadelphia," the "convenvention that met at Philadelphia"; and he gives fifty per cent. more references in his index to "Philadelphia" than to the "Constitutional Convention at Philadelphia," so that if one wishes to find a reference to the Convention the most certain place to find it is under "Philadelphia."

Mr. Stevens has been spoken of as an English writer—partly, we suspect, because he has put "F.S.A. Edinburgh" on the title-page, and partly because his book has been written to prove that the Constitution is English, and substantially every provision in it. He does, indeed, inscribe his work to the nations of the world "which in varying ways bore relation to the founding of America," to "Spain, Italy, France, the Netherlands," etc.; but these nations get very little credit outside of the dedication. It has also been supposed that the book was written to refute the work of the late Douglas Campbell, 'The Puritan in Holland,' which credits that country with much if not

all that is most valuable in the Constitution. But there is plenty of internal evidence in Mr. Stevens's book to show that he was engaged upon it long before the earlier work was published.

The striking peculiarity of his presentation is, that it sets forth what its author thinks and what everybody else thinks. Kent, Story, Bryce, Lowell, Sir Henry Maine, Sir Erskine May, and a score and more of other great authorities appear, on vital points, in copious extracts. Not only does Mr. Stevens devote a third of his pages to the smaller type of footnotes, but the text, which he reserves for himself, is verified and fortified by quotation after quotation. In matters of detail the book is generally unimpeachable. We have chapter and verse given us for everything; if the author is wrong upon a single point, some eminent authority must be wrong also. Mr. Stevens acknowledges "the earnest help and interest accorded by the late Sir Henry Maine," and we can easily believe that that eminent and judicious scholar rendered invaluable critical aid. There is also an absence of the technical mistakes that a layman would be apt to make in legal matters, which indicates the judicious criticism of some accomplished lawyer. It must also be conceded that the author treats fairly those with whom he differs. Mr. Douglas Campbell is allowed to state his side of the case and to speak in his own words. About the only great authority whom Mr. Stevens might have quoted and has not, is Burke. When laboring to prove that the 'Commentaries' of Blackstone "influenced the Convention," and the "legal influence" of that book was one of the links which bound America to England, he might have quoted with conclusive effect what Burke said in March, 1775, touching conciliation with America:

"I have been told by an eminent bookseller that in no branch of his business, after tracts of popular devotion, were so many books as those of the law exported to the plantations. The colonists have now fallen into the way of printing them for their own use. I hear that they have sold nearly as many of Blackstone's Commentaries in America as in England."

The reader who reads both the text and the annotations will have a pretty clear idea of what most of the great writers on the Constitution think.

Some of these footnotes also contain new matter of interest, as, for instance, a conversation between the author and President Hayes in 1889 on the personal power and influence of the President. Considering that Prof. Woodrow Wilson maintains that this power has been about swept away by Congressional encroachments, and that the ex-President is generally supposed to have been, so far as personal power and influence went, one of the least assuming, if not one of the weakest, of our Presidents, it is rather startling to find him, after his personal experience in office, standing among the men of the last century who saw in the executive power a menace to liberty. The conversation covers two closely printed pages, in which Mr. Hayes sketches the direct authority and indirect influence of the Executive, and asserts that they are far more potent than is usually supposed.

"If once," he says, "war exists, the President has the 'war powers,' and no man has defined what those powers are, or placed a limit on them. The executive power is large because not defined in the Constitution. The real test has never come, because the Presidents, down to the present, have been conservative, or what might be called conscientious, men, and have kept within limited range. And there is an unwritten law of usage that has come to regulate an average administration. But if a Napoleon ever became President, he could make the Executive almost what he wished to make it."

Mr. Stevens twice cites Charles Pinckney, though he omits his name from his index, as he also omits Landon's; and he twice quotes Pinckney's "Plan of a Federal Constitution," going so far as to say that "the first Amendment seems to have originated in the draft" of the Constitution which Pinckney submitted to the Convention. If the "Plan," as set forth in Madison's Journal and Elliott's Debates and the Journal of the Convention, were really the work of Pinckney, it would probably be regarded as the most wonderful contribution to the Constitution which was made by any one man, and the great instrument might even be called "Pinckney's Constitution, with modifications." But we have recently shown the want of contemporaneous value attaching to the MS. now in the archives of the State Department.

Notwithstanding the high authority of Chief-Justice Cooley (in a footnote), a writer on the Constitution in the year 1894 has no right to say that Trevett vs. Weeden was the first case after the Revolution in which legislative enactments "were declared unconstitutional." Such an assertion was justifiable a few years ago, but now betrays ignorance of the work done by President Scott, Prof. Thayer, Mr. Coxe, and other painstaking scholars. This part of the book, relating to the judicial power, is both superficial and contradictory. In the text it is said that "the colonial judiciary did not hesitate to adjudge a local statute invalid if it exceeded powers conferred by charter," and that "when State constitutions succeeded to the charters, the process was continued by the State courts." In the footnote, the only authorities cited for these broad assertions are "Trevett vs. Weeden in 1786, and Bayard vs. Singleton in 1789 [*sic*]." The former case, then, is the only authority which Mr. Stevens lays before his readers to satisfy them that in 1787 the Convention did nothing more than incorporate an existing State constitutional usage into the Constitution of the United States. This one authority proves nothing of the kind. There was no State constitution involved in the case; the statute did not conflict with the charter; the court did not hold it to be unconstitutional or void. A provision in the act was held not to deprive the defendant of the right to trial by jury; and the judges justified their action by other provisions in the same statute. Furthermore, the decision caused a tremendous uproar in Rhode Island; the judges were haled before the Legislature; they narrowly escaped impeachment, and were virtually turned out of office because of their decision. If there be an authority in the world which, standing by itself, conclusively proves that in 1787 the American people had neither adopted nor accepted the constitutional principle that the judicial power may declare void an act of the Legislature, it is this case of Trevett vs. Weeden.

Finally, it is to be observed that in this portion of his work Mr. Stevens has set himself the task of refuting that most careful and judicious of writers, Sir Henry Maine, when he says of the American judicial power that "there is no *exact* precedent for it either in the ancient or in the modern world"; and that it is a "*virtually* unique creation of the founders of the Constitution." Sir Henry Maine expresses here a philosophical conclusion of the whole matter with characteristic accuracy. No nation in the ancient or modern world possessed a judiciary beyond legislative control which could declare an act of the Legislature void. In 1787 the State courts had by no means established the principle. On the contrary, it had been, at best, but faintly recognized by the judiciary and not at all by the people. The six cases to which Gerry alluded were so little known that it is safe to say that there was not a member of the Convention who could have named them; they are now so shadowy that, with two or three exceptions, it is as hard to tell what they were as what they determined; and the vexatious condition of colonial vassalage furnished no real precedent for the regulation of a sovereign power. If Mr. Stevens will refer to Blackstone, who, he seems to think, taught the framers of the Constitution nearly all they knew, he will see that the final concession of the great teacher is that where the legislative intent is clear, he knows of no authority which can control an act of Parliament. Minute criticism is a valuable thing; but the petty criticism which undermines broad distinctions is a false teaching of constitutional history.

"The aim of the present work," says Mr. Stevens in a footnote, p. 206, "is to definitely settle" the fact that "*our peculiar institutions, those distinctive of America*, are derived from the mother country." We have seen that the English judicial power, in its relations with Parliament, and the American, in its relations with Congress, are the opposites of each other; that one cannot do what the other can; that in a given case the English judiciary is powerless, and the American supreme. In ordinary affairs, when we find that a thing has been radically changed we attribute to somebody the credit or discredit of having changed it. Gladstone, Maine, Bryce, and other foreign and, therefore, disinterested thinkers of the highest rank, attribute the change we are now considering to the framers of the Constitution. Mr. Stevens says, Oh, no, this is a mistake—that it was not "a novel contrivance of the Philadelphia convention"; that what "has been supposed to be the most unique feature of the American Supreme Court is really only another adaptation from the past, and rests upon colonial and English precedents"; that the American judicial system is nothing but an importation, and that its extraordinary power over legislation is not due to anybody in particular, but came about of itself by a process of what he calls evolution, during the colonial period. Given a fair amount of scholarship and an unrestricted right of deduction, with such reasoning *ad libitum*, and an author can march back on historic lines until it pleases him to encamp, and say, "Lo, here is the original habitat of the Constitution." One man can halt at the Petition of Right, another can go back until he arrives at Magna Charta; a third can cry, "Pooh! all the thunder of the Barons of Runnymede which is worth hearing was stolen from the civil law." At the beginning of the book Mr. Stevens quotes Mr. Gladstone's now celebrated saying that "the American Constitution is the most wonderful work ever struck off at a given time by the brain and purpose of man." Here he remarks that this does not necessarily mean that the Constitution "is wholly new," nor that it was in fact "an original creation of the convention which met in Philadelphia." Further on he quotes Prof. Johnson to the effect that the success of the Constitution, if it proves anything, does not prove that "a viable constitution can ever be struck off at a given time by the brain and purpose of man." At the end

of the book, he does not say, but certainly leaves the ordinary reader to infer from all that has been said and shown, that Mr. Gladstone is a rhetorical old gentleman, pitiably ignorant of American constitutional history. Now we all know that the framers of the Constitution did not construct a fanciful constitution to please themselves for an ideal republic as Locke did for the Carolinas; and we all ought to know that "adaptation" is generally the highest work of statesmanship. In a word, the reader of this book and of similar studies will find in them much that is useful, interesting, and curious, but, when he comes to deductions, had better be content with those of the great thinkers of the century, who, without the prejudice of theory, or against their earlier prejudices, have assigned to the framers of the Constitution the highest niche in the temple of statesmanship.

## EAST AFRICAN EXPLORATION.

*Discovery of Lakes Rudolf and Stefanie:* A narrative of Count Samuel Teleki's exploring and hunting expedition in Eastern Equatorial Africa in 1887 and 1888. By his companion, Lieut. Ludwig von Höhnel. Translated by Nancy Bell (N. D'Anvers). With 179 illustrations and 5 maps. 2 vols., octavo. Longmans, Green & Co. 1894.

THE extensive region lying between the Indian Ocean and the valley of the Nile, including southern Abyssinia and Galla and Somali lands, has been the field for various exploring expeditions during the past few years. Among the most successful was the one of which these volumes contain an account. Its leader was a Hungarian nobleman, Count Teleki, whose principal motive appears to have been sport rather than science. On the other hand, his companion and the historian of the expedition, Lieut. von Höhnel, an Austrian naval officer, proved to be an enthusiastic explorer and an excellent cartographer. He has since added to his reputation in these respects by his work in connection with Mr. William Astor Chanler's attempt to traverse this region from Mt. Kenia to the Gulf of Aden. This was brought to a nearly tragic end last summer, when a severe wound from a rhinoceros compelled him to return to the coast, to which Mr. Chanler, finding further progress impossible, has recently followed him.

Lieutenant von Höhnel's account of the expedition in which he won his spurs as an African traveller has very considerable merit and also labors under certain disadvantages. It is well written and contains many excellent descriptions of caravan and native life and customs, as well as numerous hunting and other adventures. A frank truthfulness characterizes it which inspires confidence in the author's statements, while he impresses himself upon the reader as a pleasant companion and a man of kindly sympathies for the natives. At the same time the various incidents in connection with the organization and conduct of an expedition in East Africa, on which he dwells with conscientious minuteness, are now very familiar, and he has not sufficient descriptive power to lend a new charm to such a twice-told tale. The greater part of the journey was through country which has been often described, and the new territory which was explored and in which the discoveries were made proved singularly uninteresting and forbidding. So much space also is given to Count Teleki's hunting exploits that not even the frequent spice of danger which attends them can prevent their becoming monotonous and wearisome. It is difficult at times to repress a feeling of indignation at the slaughter recorded, although it may have been necessary to provide meat for the porters. From an appendix containing extracts from the Count's game-book it appears that over three hundred and fifty head of large game fell to his rifle alone. This includes twenty-eight elephants and seventy-nine rhinoceroses, five of the former and four of the latter respectively having been shot in one day. Then the value, as well as the interest, of the narrative is somewhat lessened by reason of the long delay in its publication.

It was in January, 1887, that the expedition, numbering more than 300 men, left Zanzibar, and, with the usual delays incident to the movement of so large a body, proceeded to Mt. Kilimanjaro. Here several months were spent in making preparations for their journey northward from this point and in excursions, one of which was an unsuccessful attempt to reach the summit of the snow-clad peak, Kibo. The account of the mountain; of Taveta, the forest paradise at its foot in which they camped; of Masailand and its inhabitants, differs in no essential respect from those of other travellers. The Masai gave the expedition no trouble, being held in check, no doubt, by its size and strength. Though Lieut. von Höhnel casts some doubt upon the reputed bravery of this interesting people, they inspired the coast negroes with great fear, and a solemn religious service was held by the Mohammedans among them to secure their safety before penetrating into the heart of the country.

To the north of the plains roamed over by the Masai lies Kikuyuland, a strip of high lands from eight to thirty miles in breadth and about one hundred in length, with an elevation of from 4,500 to 6,500 feet. It is thickly populated by a courageous and industrious people, some districts being "so carefully and systematically cultivated that we might have been in Europe." Attention has been frequently directed to this country of late as being the most suitable for European colonization in eastern equatorial Africa, and the English have established one station, Fort Smith, on its border, on the line of the projected railway from the coast to the Victoria Nyanza. But at this time the Wakikuyu were very averse to the passage of strangers through their territory, and had shortly before completely destroyed a trading caravan which had ventured among them, and had compelled another, under the lead of Dr. G. Fischer, to "fight every inch of its way." Notwithstanding this neither strange nor unreasonable objection of the natives to the presence in their fields and villages of a large armed force, Count Teleki chose to pass through the entire length of the land, although apparently other routes to the hunting regions in the north were open to him. The author's account of the events of the six weeks spent in this country is the most exciting, though the least satisfactory, part of his work. The opposition of the natives, confined through the efforts of their chiefs, except in two instances, to threatenings, tedious negotiations, and refusals to sell food, were overcome partly by the persistence of the Count and partly by his repute as a rainmaker. This deceit he never hesitated to practise when it was for his advantage, and he more than once sold rain-medicine to the natives. Three times blood was shed—the last occasion being but a few days before the frontier was reached. A native threatened with his spear one of the head men of the expedition, who, by permission of the Count, fired on him, and a general volley ensued in which the two whites joined.

"Presently the natives began to run away, with our men, who were not to be held back, after them. Worn out with the perpetual *petty worries* of the preceding days [the italics are ours], our people were determined to pay their persecutors out now, and soon no one was left behind but the Count, Jumbe Kimemeta, a fewinvalids, and myself. We heard several shots in the distance, and then all was still. About an hour afterwards, smoke rising from the direction of the villages showed that they had been set on fire by the victors, and parties of our men began to return, screaming, singing, and dancing, as they fired off their own weapons and flourished those they had taken from their enemies. Nearly all of them were also driving cattle before them, while some had taken women and children prisoners. Soon the camp was so crowded with cattle, etc., that it seemed impossible it could hold more, and our men, drunk with victory, smeared with their own blood and that of their victims, presented a horrible appearance as they danced a war-dance opposite the tent of their master and laid their booty at his feet."

It is difficult, after reading this passage, to see wherein lies the difference, so far as the natives are concerned, between Count Teleki and an ordinary Arab slave-hunter, except that Tippoo Tib raids a district for the sake of gain; to the European nobleman a raid is a "regrettable" incident in his pursuit of sport.

An attempt was made by the Count to ascend Mt. Kenia, but he was obliged to turn back while still three thousand feet from the summit, although some distance above the snow-line. His companion was equally unsuccessful in an attempt to trace the Guaso Nyiro to its supposed outlet in Lake Lorian, to the east of the mountain, the field of his later explorations with Mr. Astor Chanler. The caravan route between the coast and the northern shore of the Victoria Nyanza was left at Lake Baringo, and the travellers set out in a northeasterly direction to seek the two great lakes said to exist in Samburu. It would be hard to exaggerate the difficulties or dangers encountered during this part of their adventurous journey. At times they traversed sandy plains over which the wind swept with the force of a hurricane. "We slept with our heads wrapped up in clothes, hardly able to breathe, and woke up completely buried in sand and dust." Long stretches of waterless desert had to be crossed, exhausting to the strength of their followers, and at length scarcely a day passed in which some one or more of their number were not reported dead or missing. But for the abundance of large game, elephants, rhinoceroses, buffalo, zebras, and antelopes of various kinds, which roamed over this wilderness, its passage would have been impossible. On March 6, 1888, the southern shore of the great lake was reached, and

"although utterly exhausted, after the seven hours' march in the intense and parching heat, we felt our spirits rise once more as we stood upon the beach at last, and saw the beautiful water, clear as crystal, stretching away before us. The men rushed down shouting, to plunge into the lake; but soon returned in bitter disappointment: the water was brackish! This fresh defeat of all our expectations was like a revelation to us; and like some threatening spectre rose up before our minds the full significance of the utterly barren, dreary nature of the lake district. Into what a desert had we been betrayed! A few scattered tufts of fine, stiff grass rising up in melancholy fashion near the shore, from the wide stretches of sand, were the only bits of green, the only signs of life of any kind. Here and there, some partly in the water, some on the beach, rose up isolated skeleton trees, stretching up their bare, sun-bleached branches to the pitiless sky. No living creature shared the gloomy solitude with us; and, far as our glass could reach, there was nothing to be seen but desert—desert—

everywhere. To all this was added the scorching heat, and the ceaseless buffeting of the sand-laden wind, against which we were powerless to protect ourselves upon the beach, which offered not a scrap of shelter, while the pitching of the tents in the loose sand was quite impossible."

Volcanic action was everywhere evident. Sixteen craters were visible from the point where the party stood, from one of which, as smooth and straight as a chimney, issued clouds of smoke. In attempting to cross a lava stream they found themselves in a "perfect labyrinth of pitfalls with brittle walls of from some thirteen to sixteen feet in circumference. The upper covering of many of these holes was in many places torn asunder, revealing the inside, bristling with stalagmite-like spikes and edges as sharp as knives."

The lake, which they named Rudolf, after the late Crown Prince of Austria, proved to be not far from two hundred miles long by some twenty-five broad. For nearly a month they struggled along the dreary eastern shore, in imminent risk of perishing for want of food and water, until the northern end was reached. Here they found a habitable and well-populated region, but they were unable to pass through it, the opposition of the natives being too formidable for the greatly weakened expedition to overcome. A week's journey over a terrible country brought them to the shore of the smaller lake, called by them Stefanie, after the Crown Princess. Little more was done, however, than to demonstrate its existence, the few poverty-stricken natives living near it having no food to sell to the caravan. Lieut. von Höhnel climbed a hill on its eastern shore, from which the northern extremity was dimly visible, and he conjectures its size to be seventy-five miles long by fifteen broad. The water is very brackish and is evidently rapidly receding. The beach was strewn with fish, "which lay about in great quantities in various stages of decomposition." When the southern end of Lake Rudolf was again reached, an attempt was made to explore the western coast, which proved to be far less sterile than the eastern. But a famine raged among the inhabitants and they refused to sell either cattle or grain. At length the retreating expedition was reduced to such extremities that another raid was ordered and successfully accomplished, though whether the natives lost more than their cattle we are not informed. No special incident marked the return journey to the sea, where the explorers arrived on October 24, 1888, after an absence of nearly two years.

It is impossible in reading this narrative, characterized by much modesty and simplicity, not to be struck with the rare combination of the qualities that go to make a good traveller and explorer which both Count Teleki and his companion possessed. Their expedition will rank high in the annals of African travel, if not for the importance of their discoveries, for the success with which obstacles to which most men would have yielded were overcome. Of their thoughtfulness for their men there can be no question, and, with the two exceptions which we have noted, they were apparently always considerate and tactful in their dealings with the natives. An abstract of some of the scientific results of the expedition is given in an appendix. These consist of a partial list of the collection of specimens of the fauna and flora of the regions visited, made by Lieut. von Höhnel, and containing, among many other new species, four of reptiles, fifteen of butterflies, and sixty of beetles. He has also drawn an admirable map of his route, and given some excellent pictures of the natives and their various implements and ornaments. The hunting scenes are not of equal merit, and do not add to the value of the work, whose usefulness for reference is increased by a good index.

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*Readings on the Inferno of Dante.* Chiefly based on the Commentary of Benvenuto da Imola. By the Hon. William Warren Vernon, M.A. With an introduction by the Rev. Edward Moore. 2 vols. Macmillan.

THAT the son of Lord Vernon, whose edition of Dante remains a marvel of sumptuousness, should be a Dante scholar of a high order, seems but natural. He has already edited the "Purgatorio" in a fashion similar to this edition of the "Inferno," and he hopes to complete his work with two more volumes on the "Paradiso." Adequately to review the present volume would require time and space beyond the limits imposed by the conditions of a weekly journal. The "Inferno" contains 4,720 lines; Mr. Vernon's commentary thereon exceeds 1,300 pages: obviously, therefore, we can but call attention to his general plan, and cite a few specimens culled in different parts of the work.

In brief it may be said, this edition is encyclopædic in range, detail, and diffuseness. The professional annotator dreads nothing so much as to omit any references, however trivial, for which he may be accused of lack of thoroughness. Accordingly, Mr. Vernon, who is most thorough and conscientious, leans always towards giving too much rather than too little. He seems to have in view a reader who knows nothing about Dante, or Italian history, or ordinary literature, and to devote himself to the task of informing such a reader on all these themes. As a result, his volumes are an elaborate résumé of much that has been said about the "Inferno." The Dante scholar will find in them a mine of many metals, both precious and base; the novice will also find in them a clue to lead him through the labyrinth of allusions. We recall no other editor of a world's masterpiece who has so successfully suited his commentary to students of all grades.

Mr. Vernon's method is as follows: At the beginning of each canto he presents in small capitals the chief contents of the canto; next, in a page or two of large type, he shows its subdivisions; then, in fine type, he prints a few lines of the text; under this, in medium type, is an English paraphrase; then, in large type, he makes his comments; finally, in footnotes, he adds whatever collateral criticism he has not already supplied. This arrangement, speaking typographically, is far from satisfactory. The fragments of text are so small—mere acorns compared with the full-grown oaks of comment—that they are hard to find; especially when, as often happens, several pages of notes come between one *terzina* and the next. In our view, the original should be printed so that it could be read consecutively, even though this forced a large part of the notes back to an appendix. However excellent a commentary may be, it must be properly arranged—it must employ the best mechanical devices for catching the eye and holding the attention—in order that its excellence may not be wasted. Mr. Vernon, however, pursues the method of an expositor who, in reading the text aloud with a class, stops to criticise, or to answer questions, at every line, and takes no heed as to the length of his digressions. This method succeeds admirably in the class-room, as any one who had the privilege of reading Dante with Mr. Lowell can testify, but it has serious objections in a printed book.

Coming next to Mr. Vernon's translation, we must say that, while it is always intelligent, it is never striking. The great qualities of the original, its intensity, its brevity, its elisions, are lost through Mr. Vernon's purpose of making it, logically and syntactically, fair reading prose. He seems to take it for granted that the reader will be a person of no imagination, and he therefore inserts words or phrases to complete the sense. For instance, he translates the following lines:

> "E però nel secondo
> Giron convien che senza pro si penta
> Qualunque priva sè del vostro mondo" (xi., 41-43),

"and therefore in the second Round has to repent without avail (*i. e.*, without hope of redemption) every one who deprives himself of your world." We should suppose that any one capable of reading Dante at all would not require the explanation in parenthesis. Such dilutions are the necessary outcome of a solicitude to bring Dante within reach of the humblest understanding. Often, indeed, the interpolation is justified by the abstruseness of the text, but in a majority of cases it is superfluous. A single passage, and that the familiar story of Francesca, will illustrate sufficiently Mr. Vernon's ability as a translator:

"We were one day reading for pastime of Lancelot, how love enchained him. Alone were we, and without any fear of being surprised. Many a time that reading caused our eyes to meet, and our faces to change color; but one passage alone was it that overcame us. When we read how the smiling and longed-for lips (of Queen Guenevere) were kissed by so noble a lover, this one who never more shall be parted from me, all trembling kissed me on the mouth. Both the book and he who wrote it were a Gallehaut (*i. e.*, a go-between) to us. That day we read on no further" (v. 127–138).

It is unnecessary to point out how much Dante's incomparable lines have lost, through dilution and transposition of phrase, in this version.

But, after all, Mr. Vernon's intention is not to make a new translation which shall compete with Norton's or with Carlyle's, but to make an edition which shall surpass all other English editions of Dante in its notes; and herein he has succeeded. His patience and fidelity have allowed him to spare no investigation. He has put each word under the microscope of criticism, and has summoned Dantists of all ages—from Boccaccio and Benvenuto to Scartazzini—to corroborate or supplement the information which he has accumulated. How minute he is may be inferred from the fact that he takes three pages to prove that Latini and not Latino is the correct form of the surname of Dante's teacher. Sometimes we feel that he carries his painstaking too far, as where he subjoins a "grim diary" of Count Ugolino's death, viz.:

"*First day.* The prisoners hear the door being nailed up, and remain silent all that day and the following night. *Second day.* Ugolino, on the first appearance of dawn, is so horror-struck at the emaciated faces of his offspring that he gives way to a gesture of frenzy, which, being misunderstood by them, they offer themselves to him for food; whereupon he relapses into stony silence all that day. *Third day.* Silence and despair. *Fourth day.* Count Gaddo dies. *Fifth and Sixth days.* The other three die. *Seventh and Eighth days.* Count Ugolino gradually sinking crawls about, groping over the dead bodies, which he can only feel, but is unable to see. In vain he calls upon them to awake. His sufferings at length come to an end, and he breathes his last" (vol. ii., 641).

If any reader with a sense of humor should smile at this perfectly matter-of-fact treat-

ment of one of the supreme tragic episodes in literature, he would deserve sympathy. We have ourselves long stood ready to welcome a Society for the Prevention of the Desiccation of Masterpieces by Prosaic Commentators. And yet, since we have not space for citing the many instances where Mr. Vernon's elucidation is truly pertinent, we would not lay undue stress on his defects. "Leave something to the imagination" is a rule which annotators as well as realistic novelists should follow.

As was to be expected, Mr. Vernon pays close attention to the time references and the distances mentioned in the epic, with the hope of reducing them all to a consistent scheme. To follow Dante watch in one hand and tape-measure in the other has been a favorite amusement with a certain class of his critics. We know that he entered Limbo on Good Friday and emerged at the foot of the Mountain of Purgatory on Easter morning—having traversed a distance of several thousand miles through the interior of the Earth. As much of his journey was made on foot, and was interrupted by conversations with the damned, it is obvious that no rate of speed possible to terrestrial pedestrians can satisfactorily account for the distance traversed. Therefore, the present writer has always regarded the use of time-piece and tape-measure as futile. He has also deemed it quite as unimportant whether, at a given point, Dante turned to the right or the left, as whether, when Job sat down on his ash-heap, he faced east or west. Dante has succeeded in making every step of the journey described by him vivid: to dissect the process by which he has produced this illusion, to discover inconsistencies, to warn the reader that it would be humanly impossible to walk six or seven thousand miles in three days—even with an occasional Geryon-flight—seems to us to belong to the province of trivialities. However, in an encyclopædic work like Mr. Vernon's these matters may properly be mentioned, and he somewhat disarms our criticism by declaring that "the *Divina Commedia* is a vision, and allowance must therefore be made for the marvellous and the impossible."

His volumes are enriched by two steel engravings of the death mask of Dante; by pictures of the font in the Baptistery at Pisa, and of the Torre della Fame in 1507; by plans of the Wheel of Fortune and of the Broken Bridge in the Sixth Bolgia; by three different charts of the Dantesque Hell; by Rossini's music to Francesca's story, and by a map of Italy in Dante's time. The introduction contains short essays on the cosmography of Dante, on the symmetrical plan of the epic, on the data of the "Inferno" and its beauties, and on Dante's itinerary. There are also chronological tables and a bibliography. From all this it will be seen that he has gathered material indispensable to every English-speaking student of the 'Divine Comedy.' If we have given undue space to criticising the defects of his encyclopædic method, it is because we believe that it would be possible to present the same material much more compactly than he has done, and that, in these days of exorbitant annotation, brevity has become an unheeded virtue. Moreover, as he is engaged on a new edition of the "Purgatorio" and on an edition of the "Paradiso," he may be induced to practise restraint. His modesty, his fairness, his painstaking, and his enthusiasm entitle him to the esteem of every lover of Dante.

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*Origins in Williamstown.* By Arthur Latham Perry, Professor of History and Political Economy in Williams College. Scribners.

Williamstown got its name in 1765, and the college that has done most to give the name renown was founded twenty-eight years later; yet in these six hundred substantial pages Prof. Perry gets only in sight of the latter event, and, indeed, devotes the bulk of his book to the time when the northwestern corner of Massachusetts was an Indian pass, then the site of Fort Massachusetts, and first settled as the town of West Hoosac. A treatment at once minute and discursive is required to expand the meagre tale into such ample proportions. All is fish that comes to Prof. Perry's net, and its cast is tremendous. It is only the severest self-restraint which keeps him from narrating the seven years' war at length, as he is fully conscious of its relation to the burning of the first Fort Massachusetts. But into other digressions he plunges, despite frequent apologies, with evident delight. One Indian foray suggests another, the architecture and remains of one fort lead on to comparisons with those of half-a-dozen others, and before one gets through he comes to feel that the history of the colonies and of a good part of Europe was somehow subtly determined in the valley of the Hoosac.

But the volume is by no means an example of pure antiquarian triviality. Antiquarian triviality, and whimsicality, antiquarian or other, it contains in plenty, but withal it yields the peaceable fruits of solid research continued through forty years of enthusiastic devotion to town and college. The note of personal loyalty and championship is, in truth, prominent throughout. The north line of western Massachusetts was ordered by the Privy Council in 1740 to be run "due west" from Pawtucket Falls. But "Hazen's line," run the next year, held really 1° 45′ north of west, thus saving to Williamstown about one-third of its area, which would have gone to Vermont. With a turn worthy of Thomas Fuller, Prof. Perry speaks of this as "a blessed error of the compass." So, later on, when a citizen farmer drifted away from the town and out of this history in search of richer fields, the author, with an unwavering loyalty which is enough to put Judge Nott with his abandoned farms to shame, professes to be quite at a loss to account for the man's dissatisfaction with his perpendicular Williamstown acres. On the situation and picturesque glories of the town he wreaks himself in lover-like fashion for sixty-eight pages, and can pay no higher compliment to his dearest friend than to give his name to some unpreëmpted rock or point.

The main historical value of the book consists in its full story of the strategic position of the Hoosac Valley in relation to the French and Indians on the north and the Dutch on the west, and in its collection of every scrap of evidence bearing on the personality and family of Col. Ephraim Williams, commander of Fort Massachusetts, leader of the Massachusetts men in the Lake George expedition, and founder (by will) of the college. College-founding seems to have run in the blood, as his cousin, Israel Williams, "the monarch of Hampshire," got a charter from Gov. Bernard in 1762 for "Queen's College," to be located in Northampton, Hatfield, or Hadley. Israel's motives were not unmixed benevolence, as he was miffed at Harvard for having printed his son's name too far down the social scale in the catalogue. But the Harvard lobbyists of the day were too much for him, and got the Governor to invalidate the charter; all which did not prevent the tradition of there having once been a "Queen's College" in Hatfield. A nonogenarian resident of that town vehemently assured Prof. Perry in 1880: "There used to be a college here, and I have seen it myself." The history of the college that a Williams succeeded in founding, Prof. Perry proposes to write in a volume to follow.

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*Basal Concepts in Philosophy.* By Alexander T. Ormond, Professor in Princeton. Scribners. 1894.

The purpose of this work is to propose a certain modification of the Hegelian system, suggested by studies in philosophical theology. The modification cuts pretty deep, being no less than the identification of Being and Spirit, two of the primary categories of the Hegelian logic. It is to be accomplished by some alteration of the Hegelian dialectic which is not by any means rendered clear, far less justified. In fact, clearness and conclusiveness are the two qualities this book can boast the least. An ordinary person, should he be condemned to read it, might fancy he caught a glimpse of meaning here and there; but one who has devoted a year or two to the study of philosophy, upon a modern method, will find it utterly unprofitable. An accomplished thinker may make some little use of the work, notwithstanding its grievous faults of logic.

Attempts to reform Hegelianism ought to be encouraged and treated benevolently. All things are to be known by their fruits; and certainly never idea had a fairer, fuller trial than the Hegelian system. All Germany went into it for a generation, and the fruit was disappointment and disgust. How could trial be fairer? And if any question is ever to be regarded as pretty nearly set at rest—set at rest until some very unexpected new evidence presents itself—must not this question be so regarded among the first?

At the same time, very few minds that have examined the matter with attention look upon Hegelianism with exactly the same eyes as upon astrology, or even as the majority of the very small number of persons who have conscientiously examined the evidence about ghosts look upon that belief. On the contrary, although historic experience condemns Hegelianism as a method and a ruling tendency, it does go to show that where Hegelianism, while having a certain influence, has not been strong enough to turn men from common-sense humility in regard to external nature, its influence has many a time been beneficial. So it is probably safe to say that the indefinite congeries of minds that partake of the real spirit of investigating science (not mere readers of scientific results), but at the same time are well versed in the world's philosophical thought, are inclined to think that Hegelianism, however wrong on the whole, yet contains something not without value if it could be singled out. It is easy enough to point at elements of the position of Hegelians and other metaphysicians that are quite irreconcilable with the position of scientific men. All scientific men (except some pure mathematicians) have a very unaffected reverence for nature—so genuine, indeed, that it is often subconscious—which causes them to surrender their dearest beliefs at nature's best. But the idealists, as a body, as well as some other metaphysicians, look upon things external with a sort of contemptuous disdain, and regard nature as rather a bore. This self-poise deprives them of the only means whereby they could

proceed from falsehood to truth. As long as philosophers are bred in seminaries where any species of infallibilism is taught, or imitate others so bred, such will be the main result. Theirs will be systems founded on egotism, embodying whims of more or less artistic symmetry, but destitute of the power of growth. On the other hand, it is not difficult to indicate general features of Hegelianism in respect to which it harmonizes better with the general principles of science than do most of the other philosophical systems. Here there seem to be ideas of real power. Here is something which in time must grow and choke the parasitical errors of the system. The difficulty is to give the thing the first start. Whether that can be done by any attempt to improve the agreement of Hegelianism with theology (such is the aim of this volume), may very well be doubted. We should be more inclined to look for the first buds of regenerate Hegelian life on such a tree as that of Mr. Ritchie, the author of 'Darwin and Hegel.'

We shall not advise many of our readers to try to solace their leisure by reading Prof. Ormond's not too perspicacious, nor too vigorous, nor too agreeably written volume. Two things are specially urged in it which may make some persons curious to look over the work—one the idea that personality is essential to being, the other that Nothingness has a sort of reality. We simply mention these, without saying that we think they are skilfully defended.

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*Roger Williams:* The Pioneer of Religious Liberty. By Oscar S. Straus, author of 'The Origin of the Republican Form of Government in the United States.' The Century Co. 1894. Pp. xvii, 257.

THE appearance of this biography of one of the strictest of the New England Independents, from the pen of one who bears a name that links him to another race than that of New England, is a testimony to the wide sympathy characteristic of modern scholarship. Mr. Straus has diligently gathered the biographical facts regarding the founder of Providence, and has presented them in a simple and readable narrative, constituting a small volume of rare excellence of typography, and warmly eulogistic of its subject.

It has been the fate of Williams, beyond that of any other of the founders of New England, to be treated from diametrically opposing points of view, and this contrariety is nowhere more apparent than in the story of the crucial episode of his checkered experience—his banishment from Massachusetts. Though the opposing historians have not always come from the respective States, there has arisen regarding Williams what may be called in general a Massachusetts and a Rhode Island school of interpretation—the one dwelling on the political causes of his banishment, the other representing him as primarily a martyr to freedom of conscience. Mr. Straus belongs to the latter, holding that "the cause of his banishment" lay in his maintenance that the "civil power has no jurisdiction over conscience"; and Mr. Straus finds in this principle the motive of about all that Williams did.

Something of this divided point of view is due to the peculiar combination of qualities in Williams himself—a combination which seems to a modern mind almost a contradiction. Like Robert Browne, whom he in many ways resembled, but who, unlike Williams, became outwardly reconciled to the party he opposed, Williams combined an ultra-Separatist hostility to the Church of England with the doctrine of the non-interference of the civil powers in matters of conscience. On the one hand, Browne and Williams were narrow in their sympathies to a degree which cost them the good-will of the great Puritan party, and which made their ministry everywhere divisive by reason of its opinionativeness; on the other hand, they were in advance of their times in perceiving the proper line of demarcation between Church and State.

From a modern standpoint, or even from the point of view of the discussions over toleration in England after the Westminster Assembly had begun its work, Williams stands forth most conspicuously for his doctrine of "soul-liberty." But it may well be questioned whether that appeared his most conspicuous tenet to the Massachusetts men of 1631–35 who banished him from their jurisdiction. That trait was indeed recognized; but in the speech, quoted by Mr. Straus, in which Gov. Haynes enumerated Williams's offences and spoke his sentence, and of which Williams, who reported it, affirmed, "I acknowledge the particulars were rightly summed up," the limitation of the authority of magistrates to civil affairs is placed last, and Williams's attack upon the patent, upon the oath, and upon the lawfulness of hearing ministers of the Church of England are all given precedence. There is every reason to believe that the Governor's speech represented the case as it lay in the minds of Massachusetts men at the time of Williams's banishment. Their charter was in danger of English attack, they had tried to strengthen their threatened commonwealth by an oath, they were not willing (in general) to regard their English compatriots as in an anti-Christian state; and Williams's opposition to the views of his fellow-countrymen on these points was, to their thinking, fully as dangerous as his doctrine of soul-liberty. It was quite as much, if not more, the cause of his banishment. The chief fault of Mr. Straus's book is that he fails to give due weight to these facts and others like them. He has judged Williams's relations to the men of his age by what posterity finds most valuable in his teaching, rather than by what actually appeared most conspicuous to his contemporaries of 1635. With all his carefulness of biographic detail, Mr. Straus's book produces the impression of a eulogy of an ideal, rather than of a full-rounded picture of the actual, man.

Mr. Straus agrees with Mr. Waters in holding that Williams was a Londoner by birth, but the year of his nativity he would fix as 1607, on the ground that Williams could not have become a scholar of the Charterhouse School, as he did in June, 1621, if over fourteen years of age at that time. To sustain this view, Mr. Straus gives what certainly seems a strained interpretation to Williams's own statements regarding his age; and while his theory may be correct, the query may properly be raised whether the rules of the Charterhouse were so strict as to prevent the admission of a protégé of its powerful benefactor, Sir Edward Coke, even if over the customary age. Certainly he was an exceedingly youthful reporter if the short-hand notes of "Sermons and Speeches in the Star Chamber" which won him Coke's attention were taken before he was fourteen.

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*Suicide and Insanity:* A Physiological and Sociological Study. By S. A. K. Strahan, M.D., Barrister-at-Law. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.

UNLESS bound very closely to the world of matter, a man wakeful in the stillness of the night is apt to ponder upon Sleep's elder sister. One listening to the first wail of life has a curious longing to know more of the other world from which the spark of vitality has floated. When a full flame goes out as the new spark kindles, it is a double mystery. Who sees a strong man transformed into insensitive flesh, as in his responsible and responsive capacity he disappears from our association before the point of a dagger, or a few grains of poison, and who watches the helpless and hopeless invalid keep his own flickering ray unextinguished, must ache, if he has any thought, to solve the principles, if there be such, underlying this paradox. What is beyond, and how it comes into relation with us, whether an abyss of gloom, a cloudless realm of happiness, or the negative repose of nirvana, has both attraction and repulsion, like the qualities of electricity, for the incorporeal element that believes itself immortal. But this possible immortality is reached only through the portal of a positive death. May a man from curiosity, from principle, or from despair, lay aside at his own pleasure the mortal robe that at once masks and gives identity to the lighter essence? The robe being drawn aside by necessity, or thrown off by caprice, is the spirit volatilized, or may its individuality be preserved? Does a Higher Power resent the intrusion of the immortal part unsummoned by an agent foreign to itself? Does voluntary departure from this life place the soul in jeopardy? May a man in the full exercise of his reason close upon himself the irrevocable door that shuts out the light of this world? Does not suicide, *ipso facto*, proclaim mental unsoundness? Queries dense as a Norway forest at once receive and bewilder the inquirer who steps out of the beaten path worn by the unreasoning multitude.

Every suicidal act is rational or irrational in its essence. It is begging the question to stamp suicide with the seal of insanity. To soothe the feelings of survivors to whom suicide is equivalent to murder, or because in their eyes life is so precious that its voluntary renunciation is inconceivable, juries of inquest almost invariably append "while temporarily insane" to a verdict of suicide. This may be a relic of the age when self-destruction carried with it spiritual and temporal penalties. It is a nice question how far sound judgment may overcome instinctive love of life, how far that love may be set aside by reason. "The first law of nature" is a phrase, not a fact; or, if a fact, it may receive its justification in its apparent violation. The man who evades the torture of fatal fire by leaping to certain death a hundred feet below, is not called a suicide. Would it be more suicidal to drive a dagger into his own heart as the flames seize his final refuge in the burning tower? Does the white man who uses his last shot to avoid the deadly torture that a savage foe invariably inflicts, commit suicide any more really than in expending that shot to reduce those swarming enemies by one? Abruptness is no necessary element of self-destruction. Is Father Damien giving up his life by a continous surrender to the claims of leprosy; is the martyr who obstinately, or heroically, refuses allegiance to a heterodox doctrine while judicial death lies awaiting his decision; is any saviour of a helpless individual or of a race, who, by a sudden impulse or by deliberate principle, sacrifices himself that others may live, a suicide? That the suicidal act is not literally self-inflicted does not destroy its essential character. He who plots

against himself so that a friend who believes he is using blank cartridges actually shoots him, is the real actor in the tragedy. The Curtius who leaps into the chasm to save Rome, the rear-guard that by its own destruction allows the main body to escape, the Winkelried who harvests a sheaf of Austrian spears, are virtual suicides; but by all human standards they are heroes.

The motive through which life is relinquished determines the quality of the act. That is to say, the exchange of an individual life for the sake of another or of a principle is not true suicide. It may be a useless sacrifice, but in its essence it has nothing in common with self-destruction where attainment is its own ultimate aim. This true suicide is irrational, and is divided into that where there is distinct insanity, where there is an uncontrollable impulse in that particular direction closely akin to insanity, and where the mental balance is so easily disturbed as to bring this impulse into existence by a shock or a strain. These really are variants of the one condition.

It is to the conditions leading to true suicide that the interesting book before us is chiefly given up. The perfectly sound conclusion is reached that irrational suicide is usually the outcome of mental deterioration which either has been inherited or has been developed by indulgence in vice. This last also frequently means continuous mental as well as moral deterioration; and the cultivation of the unfit by modern society, the breeding into damaged stock, generates offspring more and more impelled to go wrong. The irrational suicide is not necessarily a lunatic in other ways, but his family chain before and after him usually has many ill-forged links. The benevolence of the era, keeping alive the mental and moral cripples that natural selection would eliminate, has much to do with this offence against nature. The moral, the legal, and the sociological aspects of suicide are intelligently discussed in this volume, whose main conclusions are given above.

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*A Manual of the Study of Documents* to establish the individual character of Handwriting and to detect Fraud and Forgery, including several new methods of research. By Persifor Frazer, Docteur ès sciences naturelles, Officier de l'instruction publique (France), Correspondant der k. k. Reichsanstalt zu Wien, etc. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1894. Illustrated.

THIS book is unfortunate in its abbreviated title, 'A Manual of the Study of Documents,' which conveys little idea of the contents. The author says in his introduction that, owing to his "inability to find a less pretentious title for this little work, he has ventured to call it a manual or handbcok," and it certainly is a most complete handbook of the subject as set forth in the title-page. It is made more useful than very many of its class by an unusually full index, enabling the reader to refer to the minutest matter upon which he wishes to refresh his memory. Every point bearing upon the detection of forgery appears to be covered, from the character of writing as affected by the position of the arm, to the depth and width of the furrows in the paper made by different pens, and the most minute examination and tests of ink. Methods of detecting erasures made by scraping, rubbing, or washing are enlarged upon; and a chapter devoted to the "Hesitation and Tremor of Feebleness, Illiteracy and Fraud" is well worth careful study. Figures and photographic plates illustrating the points dwelt upon greatly help the text. A chapter "Concerning the Laws relating to the Testimony of Experts on Handwriting" contains an extract from Stephen's 'Law of Evidence,' some decisions, and reference to nearly one hundred others. Incidentally, much information is given in regard to paper, ink, and composite photography, and recording-officers or persons drawing wills or documents intended to be permanent will find valuable information in the few pages devoted to characteristics and the testing of ink. Altogether the book is a most valuable one for all who have to do with mercantile paper or legal documents, and cannot fail to interest any one who desires to extend his general information.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Baker, W. M. The New Timothy. Harpers. 50 cents.
Campbell-Praed, Mrs. Outlaw and Lawmaker. Appletons. $1.
Dostoievsky, F. Poor Folk. London: Mathews & Lane; Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
François, Gustave. Le Commerce. [La Vie Nationale.] Paris: Léon Chailley.
Gautier, Judith. Iskender. [Bibliothèque de Romans Historiques.] Paris: Colin & Cie.
Hall, J. L. Judas: A Drama. Williamsburg, Va.: H. T. Jones. 50 cents.
Koegel, Prof. Rudolf. Geschichte der Deutschen Litteratur bis zum Ausgange des Mittelalters. Erster Band, Erster Teil. Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner.
Lilly, W. S. The Claims of Christianity. Appletons.
Méneval, Baron Claude-François de. Memoirs Illustrating the History of Napoleon I. from 1802 to 1815. Vol. I. Appletons.

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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 19, 1894.*

## The Week.

THE collapse of the strike is not the most important development of the week. Transcending this in significance is the demonstration that such a strike can never again be so formidable in this country. The issue has been made in the sharpest possible way. As Senator Platt of Connecticut said, in his admirable little speech sustaining Mr. Cleveland's course:

"Mr. President, we are confronted with one supreme question, and that is, Who is President of the United States, and whether we have any United States? The question is, whether the person whom we elected to be our chief executive is the chief executive of the United States, or whether the man who calls himself President Debs is the President and chief executive of the United States."

It is now universally recognized that such a strike as Debs ordered is a rebellion, and that the people of the United States will promptly suppress rebellion. There will always be men like Debs, greedy of notoriety and crazy to show their power, but this country "will not stand any nonsense" from such people in future. The next upstart who orders the laboring men of the land to make a national boycott will fare about the same way as a man down South who should propose that his section secede from the Union.

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The prompt indictment of Debs by the federal grand jury, and his equally prompt arrest, lost something of their force through his securing bail and through his trial being put off till October. This, however, is but a necessary result of the careful protection which the law throws about the rights of accused persons. Still, the fact of the arrest of the head conspirators, the swift measures taken to collect overwhelming evidence against them, and the practical certainty that they will be convicted in due time, with a possible sentence to follow of $5,000 fine and imprisonment at hard labor for six months, could but have an immediate and powerful effect. Debs under indictment and in the shadow of the prison could not palm himself off as a Dictator much longer. Dictators who are dictated to by judge and jury have something hollow about them. Not even a Populist Governor will be so poor as to do such a Dictator reverence. In short, the demonstration that there is still a court, and that its process can run even in the awful presence of Debs, serves the great purpose of reducing him to the ranks of mortal men. Once seen to be there, he can no more wear his Olympian dignity with such éclat.

The uncompromising endorsement of the President which was given by the Senate on Wednesday week is something almost unprecedented. Such flat-footed utterances are seldom to be had from any political body. The usual thing is such a good-Lord good-Devil deliverance as that of the Minnesota Republicans on the same day, condemning the "wanton destruction of property" and calling for the "suppression of mob violence at all hazards," but also favoring "such legislation" as will compel employers to arbitrate their differences, whether they want to or not. A similar nullifying amendment was urged in the Senate to Mr. Daniel's original resolution, but, strange to say, it was voted down by a large majority. For this result thanks are due to the vigorous stand of Senator Platt of Connecticut, who, insisting that the only issue before the Senate was whether Debs or the President was the chief executive of this nation, protested against letting in anything about arbitration at all. This view prevailed, even Senator Sherman standing up squarely for approval of the President and condemnation of the mob.

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Senator Sherman suffered the full penalty for his recent astonishing utterances in regard to the Pullman boycott when, on Tuesday week, Peffer took him to his bosom, with tears of joy and surprise, as an ally. "I was delighted, as well as surprised, the other day," said Peffer, "at the distinguished Senator from Ohio (Mr. Sherman) offering a resolution for Congress to overhaul the Pullman-car business. I was surprised and delighted at such a resolution coming from such a source at such a time." The sane and orderly portion of the public was also surprised at "such a resolution coming from such a source," but no one except Peffer has expressed delight over it. It is no slight calamity for a statesman with a reputation for intelligence to have Peffer approach him with extended arms and protestations of affection, and there are few Senators who would not flee at the first sign of such an embrace. While there may be some sympathy for Mr. Sherman in the disaster that has thus befallen him, nobody can say that he has been punished beyond his deserts. He took his position with full knowledge of what he was doing, and if he finds himself standing in the Senate alone with Peffer, at the moment when other Senators are vying with each other in indignant denunciation of Peffer's incendiary ranting, he has only himself to blame.

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The House will not win a reputation for vigor and courage by going valiantly to war after peace has been declared. Its resolution of Monday endorsing the action of the President in putting down mob violence would have done a great deal of good if adopted a fortnight ago. When the crisis was actually on, the House was silent as the grave, and the members were saying to the reporters, "For Heaven's sake don't interview us on this question." They were filled then with the cowardice of their own lack of convictions. Now that the battle has been won, they discover that they were mighty men of valor all the while, and that it was simply an oversight which had prevented them from lifting up their voices before. The President and the country would have been helped by a strong deliverance from Congress when the emergency was upon us; now that it is past, no one will have any feeling but amused contempt for a House that falls a-fighting a fortnight too late.

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The men who have been burning cars, wrecking locomotives, and destroying other railroad property in Chicago doubtless suppose the railroads will suffer all the loss thus caused. In point of fact, the city of Chicago will have to pay the greater part of the bills. A law passed by the Illinois Legislature a few years ago provides that whenever any building or property is destroyed or injured by a mob or riot, the city shall be liable for three-fourths of the damage thereby caused. This means that taxes must be heavier in Chicago because of the Debs riots, and the greater the damage to railroad property, the heavier the ultimate loss which must be paid by the workingmen in the shape of higher rent to cover the increase in taxes.

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Utah is to be a State, both branches of Congress having agreed upon a bill which the President has signed. So far as population goes, Utah was entitled to admission, for the inhabitants numbered 207,905 in 1890, and there is a steady growth from year to year, which will doubtless carry the number up to a quarter of a million by the time all the formalities are completed in 1895. The fear that polygamy might be revived after the Territory became a State, and that there would then be no effective way for federal authority to deal with it, has gradually died out. Mormons themselves give the warmest approval to the later "revelation," which has practically annulled polygamy as a doctrine of the Church; and even the social line which a few years ago so distinctively separated Mormon and Gentile in Utah has disappeared. The only cause for regret about the admission of Utah is the fact that it was not annexed to Nevada and the two

made one State. This were practicable now, but it will be next to impossible hereafter. As it is, the problem of the sage-brush State, with its petty population constantly dwindling, remains apparently insoluble.

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Some Republican organs in the East are evidently puzzled that their party in Congress has not opposed the admission of Utah, or made more than a pretence of antagonism to the scheme for letting in New Mexico also, with its large element of ignorant voters. The explanation is, that the managers in Washington are very hopeful of carrying both of the new States in their first elections, and thus getting four additional Senators on their side. In 1892 the Republican candidate for Delegate in Congress was beaten in New Mexico by only 579 votes in a total of 31,019, and in Utah the Republicans polled 12,390 votes against 15,201 for the Democrats, with 6,986 for a "Liberal" candidate, while since then the Mormons have been beaten for the first time in a municipal election at Salt Lake City. The silver policy of the Cleveland administration is extremely unpopular in these Territories, and the Republicans hope to profit by this feeling. It is undoubtedly for the sake of helping their chances in these remote regions that the party managers are letting down their standard on all financial questions, and causing the adoption of the extraordinary silver platforms which amaze conservative members of the party in the East.

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One of the most flagitious changes made by the Senate in the tariff bill was in raising the duty on lace curtains to 50 per cent. These are made of cotton, and, being cheap and attractive to the eye, are in general use throughout the country. Under the tariff of 1883 they were subject to a duty of 40 per cent. McKinley, in a spirit of liberality with other people's money, raised it to 60 per cent. The Wilson bill put it back to 40 per cent., but ought to have put it lower. In point of fact, the largest manufacturer of lace curtains in this country, Mr. Clarence Whitman, of the Wilkesbarre Manufacturing Co., has testified more than once that 35 per cent. is ample, and that anything beyond that is a sheer gratuity. It should be added that the duty on cotton yarn, the raw material of this industry, is *reduced* in the present bill by 40 per cent., to which, of course, there is no objection. Notwithstanding all this, the Senate committee, at the instance of one prosperous and one bankrupt concern (there being only two in addition to the Whitman factory), has raised the duty to 50 per cent. We understand that the leading houses in the trade in this city have remonstrated strongly against this outrage, and we hope that the House will stand firm on this paragraph of the bill.

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It is as gratifying as it is surprising to be able to record a bit of Congressional legislation affecting offices proposed and passed purely as a business measure. We refer to the reorganization of the Treasury Department, which was ordered by the Senate on Saturday as an amendment to the legislative appropriation bill. This measure was reported by the joint committee on the laws organizing the executive departments, and was advocated in the House by the best men of business in both parties. It provides for sweeping away a great many antiquated and cumbrous methods in the keeping of the Treasury accounts, and for introducing the simplicity and accuracy of modern book-keeping. Incidentally it proposes to cut down the accounting force of the Treasury, to the annual saving of no less than $200,000. To get such a bill through Congress is a tremendous feat. It was inevitable that a great many members who saw $200,000 worth of offices cut off from their possible perquisites should have grave doubts about interfering with the work of the fathers, and should develop a sudden anxiety about the checking off of one man's accounts by a dozen others. But Messrs. Dingley and Dockery in the House and Senators Cockrell and Proctor in the upper chamber met all objections raised so conclusively that Senator Sherman, who set up his authority against the recommendations of both the present and the preceding secretary of the treasury, could rally only four forlorn votes against the bill. All this augurs well for further reforms in future Congresses, at the instance of the joint committee.

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A member of Congress from Illinois, on the Democratic side, has introduced a bill to make gold contracts payable in silver, or greenbacks, or leather, or mud, or anything which Congress has made or shall make legal tender. A movement of this kind was sure to come sooner or later. Thomas Paine, in view of the catastrophe of the Continental currency, declared solemnly that anybody who should propose another legal-tender act ought to be put to death. The words of this apostle of democracy cannot be quoted too often. They are contained in his "Dissertations on Government," vol. i., p. 407, thus:

> "The laws of a country ought to be the standard of equity, and calculated to impress on the minds of the people the moral as well as the legal obligations of political justice. But tender laws of any kind operate to destroy morality and to dissolve by the pretence of law what it ought to be the principle of law to support, reciprocal justice between man and man; *and the punishment of a member who should move for such a law ought to be death.*"

If that ought to be the punishment of a member of Congress who should move for a law making irredeemable paper legal tender, what should be done to one who would make specific gold contracts payable in such paper? Is there anything of liberty left when a man's right to make a contract is taken away? Not a shred. The Constitution was framed and adopted to establish justice. When this fundamental idea is abrogated, the Union is no longer worth preserving and will not long survive.

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Congressman Patterson of Tennessee, who voted against the majority of his colleagues from that State for the repeal of the Sherman law, and who opposed the proposition for free-silver coinage, has written an admirable open letter to his constituents regarding his course in the present Congress and his attitude in case of reëlection. In 1890 Mr. Patterson advocated free coinage, but that was when silver had temporarily run up as high as $1.20 per ounce, and when he had not given the subject careful study and reflection. Since then he has made such investigation of the questions involved that he is now thoroughly convinced of the danger involved in that policy. Mr. Patterson presents cogently and forcibly the considerations which have caused him to change his opinion, and his arguments are unanswerable. The frankness with which he meets the charge of inconsistency must disarm all candid critics. Indeed, his letter cannot fail to carry great weight with any man who is open to conviction. It is precisely the sort of communication which a Representative in Congress ought to address to his constituents when any difference arises between them, and it would be a good thing for the country if such open letters were more common.

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The conclusion of Mr. Patterson's appeal applies as well to all Southern districts as to his own, since it shows the peculiarly great advantage which the South could now reap from assuming a sound position on financial questions. He calls attention to the fact, which is now universally conceded, that the South has weathered the hard times with fewer failures, less bankruptcy, and more comfort than any other section. He points out that Coxey's Army secured no recruits from the South, that there have been no public soup-houses, no organized opposition to social order, and no seizure of property by mobs. He says that the tide of immigration westward has now crossed the continent, and that there is much disappointment with conditions in the far West. With a salubrious climate, a fertile soil, great variety of productions, and marvellous resources, the Southern people are now, in his opinion, "approaching a great opportunity."

All that is necessary to improve the opportunity and enjoy great prosperity is to "bring the South into closer political and commercial relations with that great and controlling section—controlling alike in wealth and population—which lies north of the Potomac and Ohio Rivers and east of the Missouri"; and the surest path to this end is by supporting a sound financial policy. It would be hard to exaggerate the force of this argument.

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The deal between Platt and Tammany is clearly exposed by Mayor Gilroy's appointment, as Police-Commissioner McClave's successor, of Gen. Michael Kerwin, one of Platt's most faithful followers. The selection is grossly unfit in itself, Kerwin being a professional politician of the worst type, who has a poor reputation and was once discharged from a place in the post-office because he neglected Government work for wire-pulling. He represents the Milholland machine in local Republican politics, and was lobbying in its interest before the Legislature during the recent session. In short, he is a perfect type of the man who ought *not* to be appointed to a responsible place in the municipal government. Tammany picks him out because he is a Tammany Republican who can be trusted to do his best to keep Tammany in power by supporting the straight-ticket policy in the approaching city election. His appointment is an outrage on the public and an insult to decent Republicans which they ought to have spirit enough to resent. They see now exactly what the advocacy of a straight ticket means—a trade with Tammany every time there is a chance, and a sacrifice of the public interests to the aggrandizement of a few professional politicians. The straight-ticket men have no expectation of electing their own ticket—and if they could, what better would a Platt-Milholland administration be than a Tammany one? What they do expect is, by helping Tammany to retain control of the city, to capture a lot of fat offices for themselves. That is "what they are in politics for." The question is whether the Republican party will be run by this gang.

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By the death of Gen. James B. Fry the country loses one of the most useful, although not one of the most famous, men of the war period. After a service in the field which included the battles of Bull Run, Shiloh, Corinth, and Perryville, Gen. Fry was assigned to duty as provost-marshal-general of the War Department, having charge of enlistments, conscription, and draft. In this capacity he rendered important and indispensable services, but they were not of the kind which attract attention like exploits on the field of battle. It was in the course of his duties as provost-marshal-general that the conflict between Blaine and Conkling took place over his head, although this event happened a year after the war and while Gen. Fry was winding up the affairs of the office. This controversy, which had the serious consequence of dividing the Republican party into two very hostile factions, grew out of a charge made by Mr. Conkling in the House on the 24th of April, 1866, that certain men who had "stood up honestly and attempted to resist bounty-jumpers were stricken down and trodden under foot by Gen. Fry." Mr. Conkling added: "The only way to acquit him of venality is to convict him of the most incredible incompetency." To this attack Mr. Blaine replied in a few peppery remarks, which drew from Mr. Conkling the answer that what Mr. Blaine said was false. For this he was called to order by Mr. Blaine, who made the point that such words were unparliamentary, and the point was sustained by the chair.

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A few days later Gen. Fry wrote a letter to Mr. Blaine which the latter caused to be read from the clerk's desk. Mr. Conkling had been acting as judge-advocate in the military service at the time when the acts that he condemned had been committed. Gen. Fry now made the point that if he knew the things that he pretended to know, he ought to have made formal charges against him. He concluded his letter by saying: "He (Conkling), therefore, can only escape the charge of deliberate and malignant falsehood as a member of Congress by confessing an unpardonable breach of duty as judge-advocate." These words were probably inserted in the letter at Mr. Blaine's instance. Gen. Fry, in publishing a review of the whole matter last year, remarked that he submitted the letter to Mr. Blaine before sending it, "by whose advice some of the expressions were sharpened." This letter led to the rancorous debate in the House in the course of which Mr. Blaine compared Mr. Conkling to Thersites, to a turkey-gobbler, a singed cat, a whining puppy, and made various other galling allusions which the gentleman from New York was the last person in the world to forget or forgive. Gradually Gen. Fry passed out of view as a party to the controversy, which continued to rage as long as Mr. Conkling lived. It is very clear now that it was a case of misunderstanding as between Conkling and Fry, for the latter tells us in his book that he afterwards met Conkling at the house of Gen. Grant in 1883, and that they shook hands on that occasion twice and parted amicably. Gen. Fry was the soul of honor. He would sooner have plucked out both his eyes than defraud the Government, or allow it to be defrauded with his knowledge or privity.

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New difficulties growing out of the internationality of silver coins in the Latin Union are constantly cropping up. Under the treaty of 1865 a standard of weight, fineness, and diameter was fixed for all the minor coins. The old coins, varying from this standard, were allowed to circulate in all the countries of the Union till January 1, 1869, and no longer, being legal tender for fifty francs in one payment. Of course the public paid very little attention to dates and minute variations from the standard. Consequently the small coins of Italy of all dates and sizes flowed into France, where they have become a common nuisance. The law requires that when any bad or uncurrent money is offered for deposit at the Bank of France, the receiving teller shall cut it in half and return the parts to the depositor. A silver coin so cut loses one-half of its trading value. Much bad feeling has been engendered in this way. Moreover, it is found that many Italian silver coins of full weight dated 1886 and 1888 are circulating in France. As the Italian Government did not coin any silver in those years, it follows that these are counterfeits. Of course the Italian Government refuses to redeem them. The upshot of the whole matter is, that the Latin Union is becoming very unpopular in France, and the cause of international bimetallism suffers equally.

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The Berlin socialists are evidently sincere. A dispute having arisen between the great brewers of that city and their employees, the socialists took a hand in it by ordering a "boycott" of the places where the product of these breweries was sold. This game, however, is one that two can play at, for the keepers of the drinking-places have closed their houses to all socialist meetings until the boycott is removed, and the great breweries have pledged themselves to supply no more beer to any places where such meetings are held. The socialists thus appear to have adopted a "self-denying ordinance" of great severity. To be deprived of both beer and meetings must be to them an unexampled hardship. For some weeks they have been leading a precarious existence upon soda-water, "ginger-ale," and other "temperance drinks," with the consequences to be apprehended from such dangerous violations of the laws of health. It is scarcely necessary to say that it is impossible to maintain any revolutionary fervor upon a diet like this, which certainly has nothing "hot and rebellious" in its character; and the cause of socialism is likely to suffer a decline unless this injudicious boycott is removed. There are limits to human endurance even in the most sacred of causes.

*A LESSON IN PATRIOTISM.*

THERE is no room to doubt that the patriotic sentiment of the American people has been powerfully stirred during the last two weeks. More than one judicious man has been heard to say that nothing like it has been seen since the civil war. It has been no mere newspaper flurry. All classes in society have been touched, and all parts of the country aroused. Men who are too young to have known the fervid national emotion which swept over the North in 1861, have for the first time had their pulses quickened by the feeling that there was something inspiring and majestic in the idea of a national authority which it would be good to spend strength and life in defending. For most men under forty, in fact, the recent revival of national sentiment has been the greatest lesson they have ever had in genuine patriotism.

This waking of the patriotic spirit is all the more gratifying because it was so unexpected. As so many times before, the people of this country have shown that they are very patient and often dangerously good-humored and long-suffering, but that there is a point beyond which the traitor or the demagogue who presumes upon their indifference, goes at his peril. No one forecast this outburst of national feeling against rebellious boycotters, any more than the similar and greater outburst against rebellious slaveholders was anticipated. Up to the very moment of its appearance, so astute and old a politician as Senator Sherman suspected nothing of the coming deluge, and was caught full in its track, just as the doughfaces of 1861 were caught in the flood which took them unawares. A good part of the praise due to the President for his prompt and resolute action is for acting before public opinion had certainly declared itself. He stood up squarely for the assertion of the national authority before he or anybody else could be sure that the support and applause of the country would be so speedily given him. But when the critical time came, the response of the nation was swift and unmistakable. It was that, and not the handful of troops at the disposal of the authorities, which quelled and conquered the frenzied mob. It was an encouraging demonstration that American patriotism may still be counted upon in times of national peril.

But still more reassuring is the form and direction taken by this aroused sentiment of nationality. It overrode all partisan distinctions, to begin with, and for a brief but blessed season silenced the ignoble voices which are so quick to proclaim that there are votes or party advantage to be got from the nation's danger. It was the nation speaking, not the politicians. Nor was it the baser passions getting the upper hand. There was no talk of war or vengeance, no comparing our strength and dignity and rights with those of another country, no boasting of what we would do to make our flag and name terrible in the eyes of the world. It was rather that purest love of country which insists that country shall be made a thing to love. To make law respected, to make property and life secure, to strike down the methods of war in time of peace, to affirm and make good the national responsibility for order, and the right of every man and every corporation to labor and to enjoy the fruits of labor—that, in effect, was the aim of the quickened national feeling, and that it has in great degree accomplished. Whose is so dull a soul as not to feel that the country is more worthy of respect and love—a better place to live in—than it was a month ago?

To bring out clearly the genuineness and worth of this manifestation of true patriotism, one has only to contrast it with the sham patriotism which has so many times, in the past few years, tried to palm itself off on the country. There is this to be said for the politicians, that they have always believed in the tremendous power of national sentiment if only they could manage to arouse it and use it. But what they have wofully underestimated in the American people is intelligence. They have thought to fire the popular heart without doing anything for the popular head. Hence have come all the futility and all the fury of our political jingoes. Hence has grown up a most tiresome and meaningless jargon about "the flag" and a "vigorous foreign policy" and making ourselves respected "in the eyes of the world." Hence have proceeded the efforts to work up the American people into a towering rage over some far-off island, which nine-tenths of them know nothing and care less about, or to get up a foreign war with some weak power which it would be a disgrace to fight. Go back only two short years ago and you will see the difference between a President who goes about, with the small arts of the politician, to stir up national sentiment, and a President who stirs it up almost before he knows it. It is in one sense ludicrous, and in another it is humiliating, to recall now the Chilian intrigue, with President and cabinet giving out war news, and pounding their desks, and hurrying up the ironclads, and ordering shot and shells from Europe, and violently waving the flag, and to remember that grown-up men thought that was the way to call forth the patriotism of the American people. The abject failure of such galvanized patriotism, put side by side with the spontaneous and successful outburst of the past fortnight, will long serve for the warning of politicians and the comfort of good citizens.

*COMMON SENSE IN THE SENATE.*

THE silence of both branches of Congress during the recent crisis was broken on Tuesday week, when the Senate took up the subject which was engrossing the attention of the whole nation, and, before laying it aside, made clear the fact that the legislative department of the Government would heartily sustain the executive in putting down the new rebellion.

Peffer was responsible for securing an expression of Senatorial opinion by insisting upon consideration of his Populistic resolution providing that the Government shall assume control of railways and coal mines and "run things" generally. He made a speech in support of his scheme which may be accepted as the epitome of Populism, and it is a satisfaction to get so clear an idea as he furnished of what his party aims at. This is nothing short of the overthrow of the existing government, with its division of powers between the executive, legislative, and judicial departments. He said:

> "I do not wonder sometimes that there is a growing feeling against the political condition of things in Washington. I do not wonder that my friends write to me expressing the hope that the Senate shall be abolished. I wrote to one of them the other day saying that I would vote for its abolition, and I would go further and vote for the abolition of the House of Representatives. I would favor the government being confined to one man (not more than one) from each State. The fewer governors that we have in this country, the better. At any rate, one man can do no worse than a few hundred men have done."

Peffer went on to "speak enthusiastically of the grand spectacle that would be presented when all workmen of the country stopped work; when all the life of the communities would be at an absolute standstill—like the silence of a Sunday morning; when nobody would be at work; when everything would be paralyzed and inert." He concluded by condemning the calling out of the troops. In short, his speech was nothing more nor less than a plea for anarchy.

This treasonable utterance aroused the latent patriotism of the Senate. Mr. Davis of Minnesota was the first to take Peffer in hand. He did not mince words in his references to the Kansas Senator. "I am amazed," he said, "to hear the trumpet of sedition blown in this chamber to marshal the hosts of misrule to further devastation." He characterized the existing situation as "insurrection," and said that, "with all the dormant and latent powers of revolution threatening the country, the Senator from Kansas was advising the dismemberment of the Government and the abolition of the legislative and executive departments." He denounced the Kansas anarchist for having no word of reproof, not a single word of reproach, for the bloodshed that had been going on in Chicago for the last ten days, or the millions of property that had been destroyed. He pronounced Peffer's proposition to stop and arbitrate "just as foolish as if some one, when the battle lines were drawn at Gettys-

burg, had insisted that the impending conflict should be withheld until Lee and Meade had argued, between the lines, the question of slavery in the Territories."

Mr. Davis showed how small a segment of the people of the United States is the band of men under the leadership of Debs, and pointed out the absurdity of their contention that they may interrupt the industries of the nation at their own caprice. As for Peffer's plea that he spoke for "the people," Mr. Davis said:

"The people are, by private letters, by telegrams, in the public press and through the pulpit, crying aloud in condemnation of this most wicked, monstrous, and cruel attack on the very foundations of our civilization, and the Senator from Kansas talks about putting this matter in the hands of the people. The people have taken this matter into their hands through the constituted authorities. It is in the hands of the people in the highest sense of the term—the people of a free country, with laws which guarantee to every man the same right which every other man has, and no more."

Gen. Gordon of Georgia, who bears on his face the marks of wounds which he received in trying to overthrow the federal Government thirty years ago, followed Mr. Davis with an equally eloquent and forcible denunciation of anarchy, and with a promise of support for the national authorities which was even more impressive in view of its source. He pronounced the pretension of Debs that he can order men to desist from labor or to begin labor at his will "so preposterous, so utterly abhorrent to every thought which an American citizen ought to entertain, that it was impossible for him to treat it with any consideration whatever." He closed an admirable speech in these words:

"He stood here to proclaim, not as a Southern man, but as an American citizen—and he wished that his voice could reach every lawbreaker on the continent—that the men who wore the gray from 1861 to 1865, and who confronted the stars and stripes in that great conflict, would be found side by side with the men who wore the blue uniform, following that same flag in upholding the dignity of the republic over which it floated, and every law upon the statute-books."

Mr. Daniel of Virginia, another Senator who served on the Confederate side throughout the war, offered a resolution as a substitute for Peffer's, which declared that "the Senate endorses the prompt and vigorous measures adopted by the President of the United States and members of his administration to repulse and repress by military force the interference of lawless men with the due process of the laws of the United States, and with the transportation of the mails of the United States, and with commerce among the States"; and that "the action of the President and his administration has the full sympathy and support of the law-abiding masses of the people of the United States, and he will be supported by all departments of the Government and by the power and resources of the entire nation." The resolution met with the warmest support from both sides of the chamber, and would have been adopted immediately, by a practically unanimous vote, but for the petty partisanship of a New England Senator, Gallinger of New Hampshire, who insisted, despite the protests of his fellow-Republicans, that it go over a day, apparently in order that he might see if he could in the meanwhile find something snarling to say about Cleveland before voting to endorse the President's course. However, the delay of a day did no harm. The important thing was that the attitude of the Senate had been made clear, and it had been shown that there is no sympathy with anarchy outside the three or four Populist cranks.

The executive department of the Government had already done its duty. The judicial department was engaged in the discharge of its prerogatives. The legislative department emphatically if tardily proclaimed that the executive and the judiciary would be supported by the representatives of the States and the people.

## *AN ETHICAL PROFESSOR REBUKED.*

We published last week a letter from a close observer of Prof. R. T. Ely, "Director of School of Economics, Political Science and History, University of Wisconsin," showing his active, everyday life as a practical ethical socialist. It was a very remarkable revelation, and naturally prompted one to inquire if the University of Wisconsin is content with a teacher of youth who is capable of such performances. A few years ago Prof. Ely sent forth his platitudes on socialism, ethics, and labor from Johns Hopkins University, but that institution was able to spare him when he desired to extend his usefulness over the wider field of the boundless West. He has been "directing" in Wisconsin University for only a short period, but it is apparent from the baccalaureate address of the President of the University, Mr. Charles Kendall Adams, delivered to the graduating class in June last, that the head of the institution is desirous of spreading abroad a belief that there are sounder economic ideas entertained there than Director Ely is emitting. The address, in fact, while not mentioning the director, is made up entirely of assaults upon his "ethical concepts." The President seemed to consider it his duty to remove from the minds of the graduating class, as far as possible in a brief address, the rubbishy ideas which the director had planted therein.

It is well known by all habitual readers of the director's voluminous and flowing publications that he travels always over the same ground, picking his way carefully, as our correspondent pointed out, in order that nobody can say surely that he is heading directly for the camp of the socialist and anarchist. We cannot better illustrate his philosophic method than by citing a few sentences from the article on the town of Pullman which he published in *Harper's Magazine* in 1885. He opened that article with some philosophic reflections upon the "momentous social movement" which is always disturbing his peace, saying of its effect: "The pretty dream of a natural order of things brought about by the free play of unrestrained social forces has vanished." Who had the dream, or whither it had vanished, he did not say, but he went on to declare that it had "given place on the one hand to pessimism, on the other and more generally to a determination not to let things go on of themselves, but to make them go in such manner as may be desired." This is what Prof. Sumner calls the doctrine of making the world over again. Ely assures us that the world had been having its own way long enough, that it was not going to be allowed to "spin for ever down the ringing grooves of change," but that the fellows with ethical concepts had determined to take hold of it and make it "go in such manner as may be desired." Says Ely: "The conviction has become general that the divine order never contemplated a social and economic world left to itself. Material is furnished out of which man must construct a social fabric according to his light." When Ely and others full of ethical concepts speak of "man" or "men," they mean themselves. They are the world-movers and renovators. The way in which they are to work, according to Ely, is to "leave the dim artificial light of the study," turn a contemptuous back upon the "dogmatic assumptions of classic political economy," and "go forth into the broad sunlight seeking immediate realization among the people."

Millionaires always trouble Ely, and he is always on the lookout for them lest they corrupt the laboring man by making him too comfortable. He investigated the town of Pullman in 1885, and discovered that it gave the laboring man a more luxurious home, at a lower rent, than he could obtain in Chicago. He was sure that there was some insidious capitalistic deviltry in this, and smelt "an overvaluation of material comfort and an undervaluation of higher ethical goods." In a passage of great ethical fervor and wonderful foresight he exclaimed:

"Not a few have ventured to express the hope that Pullman might be widely imitated, and thus inaugurate a new era in the history of labor. But if this signifies approval of a scheme which would immesh our laborers in a network of communities, owned and managed by industrial superiors, then let every patriotic American cry, God forbid! What would this mean? The establishment of the most absolute power of capital, and the repression of all freedom. . . . If free American institutions are to be preserved, we want no race of men reared as underlings and with the spirit of menials. . . . Shall we turn about and forge new bonds of de-

pendence? Is not a tendency to do this observable as one of the signs of the times? Are we not frequently trying to offer the gilded cage as a substitute for personal liberty?"

The strike of the past few weeks which the dwellers in Pullman brought on, seems to furnish sufficient evidence that their "gilded cage" had not made them "underlings" or given them the "spirit of menials." As a prophet the director has scored a bad failure, and he can henceforward contemplate with equanimity the building of any number of Pullman towns. He may in time see that his other concepts are equally without foundation in fact, provided he shall live long enough to see this "tough old world," as Prof. Sumner calls it, make practical experiment with them in its own undirected way.

That President Adams has more faith in the world's way than in Ely's is very evident from his address. "Political sages," says Ely in one of his publications, "have in all ages told us that excessive inequality of fortune is a social danger, and especially so in a republic." On this point President Adams says:

"If it could often be said that one man necessarily becomes poorer because another man becomes richer, it would surely be open to question whether this condition of affairs was not radically injurious to society. But such a position, I believe, cannot be maintained. Of course, I do not mean to assert or imply that men of wealth have not been subjected to peculiar temptations, for they certainly have, and they have, no doubt, often yielded to such temptations; but what I mean to say is, that the simple accumulation of wealth on the part of a man who detects and seizes upon the inherent possibilities of a given situation, does not of itself increase the poverty of the poor. On the contrary, it surely diminishes the poverty of the poor, for it opens countless new avenues and opportunities for labor."

No less diametrically opposed to Director Ely's views of Labor and its right to accomplish its ends by boycotting and other and more violent forms of coercion is the following:

"Capital has no right—and so far as I know, does not claim the right—to coerce labor. If it does make this claim, certainly the claim cannot be justified. For the same reason labor cannot coerce capital, the poor cannot coerce the rich. Men often seem to forget that it is the inherent and inalienable right of either to determine whether the terms offered by the other shall or shall not be accepted. Capital—and when I say capital I mean the men in control of capital—have the absolute right to determine what wages they will pay for the labor they seek. This follows from the unquestionable right of every man to determine the price which he will pay for whatever he desires to buy."

As a final quotation, though many others equally pertinent might be made, let us cite this comprehensive statement by President Adams of the real trouble at the bottom of Director Ely's thinking:

"I cannot resist the conviction that there is in this country at large a vast amount of loose thinking in regard to the rights and the wrongs of what are sometimes called the laboring classes. A part of this wrong thinking is the result of a natural and commendable sympathy, and a part of it is the result of an undiscriminating sentimentality. In a vast number, if not in a majority, of cases, suffering has come from improvidence, from extravagance, or from dissipation. Let us take care that we do not attribute results to wrong causes."

## *THE LIMITS OF ARBITRATION.*

It cannot be said that recent events have shed much new light upon the general subject of submitting disputes between employers and workmen to arbitration. The endeavor to induce the Pullman Company to submit to arbitration the question whether there was any question to be submitted to arbitration had something the effect of a *reductio ad absurdum;* and the attempts of various officious, although doubtless well-meaning, persons, to get something or other arbitrated, no matter what, did not promote serious views of the situation. The wretched Debs, in his endeavors to obtain some appearance of concession, suggests President Jackson's caller, who began by demanding a commission as minister to England and ended by begging for an old pair of trousers. But the affair has too many mournful features to be altogether ridiculous, and, in spite of the complete collapse of the boycott, it may have some important results.

As was to be expected, the demagogues hasten forward with their usual proposals for establishing Government boards of arbitration. The only result of such plans hitherto has been to create a certain number of new offices, and to increase thereby the burden of taxation upon the people. The class of persons securing these offices is usually not such as commands the respect of the community, and their adjudications are seldom desired and of little weight. They have no power to enforce their judgments, and they represent no public opinion that would make their judgments effective. As at present constituted, these boards are a useless expense. Whenever arbitration is practicable, arbitrators of higher standing than these functionaries can generally be procured; and when it is impracticable, these officers are as impotent as private citizens.

The nature of arbitration has been often enough explained, but in view of the deepened public interest in the subject it is desirable to restate some elementary truths. Speaking broadly, civil courts exist for the purpose of deciding questions arising out of breach of contract. Their judgments always direct the payment of pecuniary damages or specific performance, and are enforced by the sheriff. Turning to contracts of employment, if they are broken, an ordinary court will adjudge the payment of damages by the employer or the employed according to circumstances. Such a judgment is generally enforceable against an employer, especially since claims for wages are in many States preferred in case of insolvency. Moreover, the legal profession contains members who are not backward in offering their services without advance payment. The remedy of the workman against his employer for breach of the contract of hiring is therefore not only theoretically but practically sufficient. Of course there are failures of justice due to the rascality of employers, but the law does not appear to be at fault.

The remedy of the employer against the workman is perfect in the contemplation of the law, but, owing to the impecunious condition of many workmen, it is practically useless. The game is not worth the candle, and a suit by an employer of labor against a laborer, for damages for breach of his contract to work, is an unheard-of thing. As we have recently pointed out, if contracts were made between employers and trade-unions, actions for damages against the unions would be efficacious remedies, because the unions have funds that could be levied upon. But at present such actions could not, as a rule, be maintained. Moreover, the suggestion, when made in England, called forth a vigorous protest from the camp of the labor agitators. They have evidently no idea of surrendering what they regard as an advantage of position in their contest with capital. Nor is it very probable that this element would look upon the proposition with different eyes in this country, or even that public opinion demands anything of the kind. As we consider it for the best interests of workingmen to make their contracts directly with their employers, rather than to be compelled by the sentiment of their own order to submit to the "walking delegate," we are not especially concerned to thrust legal responsibility upon trade-unions, although they are certainly entitled to it.

It has been proposed that laborers engaged in works which the public interest requires to be carried on without intermission should be prevented from suddenly quitting work, in breach of contract, by making such acts misdemeanors. Such legislation involves no violation of liberty; but it would be violently opposed by the labor agitators, and public opinion does not yet seem to demand it. We have recently witnessed many endeavors to accomplish the same end by the use of the power of the courts to punish for disobedience of their orders. An act not punishable by statute is in this way made punishable at the discretion of a judge, and we need hardly state the grave objections that exist to this practice. It will evidently require statutory regulation, in which case much relief may be afforded; but this regulation can scarcely be extended to disputes in industries not affected with a public interest.

We are thus brought back to the question with which we started: How can the judgment of an arbiter be made effective? We have seen that the judgment of a court of justice is not effective against a workman, and that all

suggestions for making it effective are repudiated by the spokesmen for "labor." They now cry for arbitration; but what they desire is legislation that shall compel employers to pay better wages than they are willing to pay. They wish, when an employer refuses to grant the terms desired by his workmen, to have some third party called in who shall tell the employer that he must grant these terms, and who shall be able to enforce his decree by the armed power of the State. But they reject all proposals for empowering the arbitrator to call in this power against the workmen. It is evident that no such arbitration as this can be conceded. If there is to be any effective interference by outsiders or by the public in trade disputes, it must be made effective upon both parties. And even so the possibilities of such interference, unless voluntarily sought by both parties, are very limited. No power can compel an employer to pay wages if he has no money, and if men are compelled to work by force, their labor, which is of the nature of slave labor, will not be very productive. A bill was once introduced in Parliament to compel night-watchmen to sleep six hours every day in order that they might be more faithful at night; but there are limits even to the omnipotence of Parliament.

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*FRIDAY NIGHTS IN CONGRESS.*

THE national House of Representatives has two committees often confused—the committee on pensions and that on invalid pensions. The latter is concerned with the late civil war and the former with all others. It is their business to receive and consider a crowd of applications from persons of all ages and both sexes who can establish some species of connection with some one of our five wars, but who have been shut out by some technicality, defect of evidence, or more genuine barrier from the operation of our extra-liberal pension laws. How many of these petitions get reported to the House by the committees in the form of bills is of course variable. When the noble Republican party was in power, it furnished a rich grist from the mill of the committee on invalid pensions, putting on the pension list pretty much every living man who was in the late war, and every wife, daughter or mother of every one deceased; and when the Democracy came in, it must be admitted that the committee on pensions succeeded in resuscitating an extraordinary number of heroes and their representatives over whom the Seminole and Mexican wars had cast a halo of chivalric glory.

But it is one thing to report a bill and quite another to pass it. There is a list called the "private calendar," which entombs as many reported bills as the list of "missing" does wandering champions. If these pension bills waited for the regular consideration of the House, they would never come up. Accordingly, Friday nights are by rule set apart for them. The House of Representatives takes a recess at five o'clock, and at eight reassembles—for the private calendar. At that hour, in a hall filled with a lifeless, effluvia-laden gas that no analytical chemist would class as atmospheric air, there assemble a few score—sometimes not fifty—jaded legislators who have survived the sickening session from twelve to five o'clock. They are about equally divided between Northern Republicans and Southern Democrats.

Between these two parties the number of moderate men who attend because they think they ought to, who support reasonable proposals because they are reasonable, and are bent on considering every case judicially, is nearly crushed out. Like Mr. Pickwick between the editors, they receive the fire-shovel of Pickler and the carpet-bag of Jones patiently, waiting for some chance to mediate, to reconcile, to recall attention to the business in hand and induce the fanatical belligerents to speak to the question, and not either to the galleries or to the constituencies; but their efforts have small success. Every Friday night the speaker *pro tempore* takes the chair to yield it immediately to some chairman of the committee of the whole. The private calendar, or rather such portions of it as relate to pensions and the removal of charges of desertion, is called up. As a matter of course, the measures reported have some element of doubt or weakness; whatever merit they have is equitable and not legal, otherwise they never would be the subject of special legislation. Yet, in spite of this admitted fact, some passionate Grand Army member presses them as if equity were equal to law, and as if the fact that a claim was meritorious at all made it impregnable, and in return some watchdog of the Treasury insists that the evidence is not complete, and that the case is clearly outside law and must not receive the sanction of even a special act. Sooner or later the charge is sure to come from the Republican side that the entire Democratic party is sold to the Confederate interest, and has no friendship for the soldier; and this is met by an indignant reclamation from some Southern member that ex-Confederates have an entire respect for the boys in blue, and never will vote against any honest claimant, but that the present instance is one of those fraudulent, etc., etc., etc.

Between these two, both employing every parliamentary resource of persistency and obstruction, both making long speeches for their constituencies, both goading each other into interruptions that raise the flame hotter and hotter, the two hours and a half prescribed for this particular legislation get wasted and frittered away, and Friday night after Friday night ends with nothing done. But the peculiarly farcical incident which gets repeated almost weekly is this: A bill of the class named is reported, in which without very great difficulty a defect of evidence is discovered. It would be strange, indeed almost miraculous, if after thirty years a claim could be brought up for special legislation which was in all respects without a single flaw. All that its friends assert is that it is meritorious, and that its merits should outweigh its defects. No matter. Mr. Jones of Virginia is sure to rise; he solemnly calls for the reading of the bill and report. He has probably done just the same when the bill was up on some previous Friday. With much elaboration, repetition, and feeling he goes over and over the evidence again and again, points out its defects, asks the committee for what he knows cannot be supplied, and appeals to members not to press such a bill. He has tempted its friends to enter into a perfectly useless discussion, into which trap they instantly fall, as they have done many Fridays before. He now has an excuse for a second speech, in which the same ground is gone over and over again.

Under the most favorable circumstances a vote is reached. The vote is favorable to the bill, but there is no quorum, as there never is on these nights, and as there is not on one-fifth of the bills that are passed by the House after the reports of committees. Never mind. Mr. Jones solemnly calls "no quorum." He will not withdraw his point of order, though appealed to by nine out of ten Democrats present. Neither will the friends of the bill withdraw it, though appealed to by as many Republicans. The clerk calls the roll; there is not one-third of a quorum present. The committee rises, the House adjourns; the evening has been wasted. Mr. Jones and his three or four supporters protest that they never obstruct any but an objectionable bill; the other side recriminates, and those who want to do business and who mean to do business begin considering for the hundredth time what is to be done in a House whose rules make it possible for one man to block everything, and where personal spite and political suspicion turn men into schoolboys.

That pension legislation, especially in the way of private bills, has been reckless and wanton in the past the country is well convinced. That the Democratic majority has it as part of its duty to keep a firm hand on all such work is true. But the proper way to check it is to attend with a quorum and vote all bad bills down; it is not to slip behind the barrier of a few obstructionists who

resort to indiscriminate blocking in order to get a little personal renown.

## TOLSTOI ON MAUPASSANT.

PARIS, July 4, 1894.

THERE are few names in current French literature more popular than that of Guy de Maupassant. He belongs to that realistic school of novelists which had for its first leaders Flaubert and the Goncourt brothers. This school is now somewhat superseded by what is called the psychological school, which recognizes for its chief M. Paul Bourget. The Maupassants are a Norman family, and Guy de Maupassant made his début in literary life under the auspices of the author of 'Madame Bovary.' He certainly felt also the powerful influence of Turgeneff, whom he saw regularly at those monthly dinners an account of which is to be found in the curious 'Journal' of the Goncourts.

In 1881, Turgeneff was paying a visit in Russia to his friend Tolstoi, the famous author of 'War and Peace' and of 'Anna Karenina,' who had not yet become the apostle of a new religion. He handed him a small book: "Read that," said Turgeneff. "It is by a young French writer. You will find it not bad. He knows you and appreciates you." This is told by Tolstoi in an interesting study which he has just published on Guy de Maupassant. Turgeneff added, on giving the volume: "As a man, he makes one think of Druzhinin. Like him, he is an excellent son, an excellent friend, a safe man; and, like Druzhinin again, he is in relations with the workers—he directs them, he helps them. Even his ways with women remind one of Druzhinin." I confess being in total ignorance of Druzhinin, and these comparisons and allusions say nothing to my mind. Tolstoi, who knew Druzhinin well, felt at once a great sympathy for Maupassant, and this sympathy increased after he had read him; he often said of him, "I should like to know him." When he heard of the terrible nervous malady to which Maupassant fell a victim, in the prime of life, he thought for a moment of going to France and nursing him. All his attentions would have been in vain; Maupassant had a general paralysis, and had finally to be shut up in an asylum, where his reason left him before his physical pains had ended in death.

In 1881, when Tolstoi was first acquainted with the works of Maupassant, "I was," he says, "in the midst of my inner task of reconstructing my general views of the world, and during this time the artistic activity to which I had before consecrated all my strength, had not only lost all the importance which I had before attributed to it, it had frankly become disagreeable to me on account of the undue place which it had occupied in my life, and which it generally occupies in the thoughts of the wealthy classes." Tolstoi read the book lent him by Turgeneff only to please him. He confesses that he recognized at once that the author had talent. The book is perhaps the most immoral of all the writings of Maupassant. I dare hardly give its title. There is in it an attempt to show how right and wrong are mingled in human nature, how there can remain natural, innocent, tender feelings in persons whose life is given up to the most horrible corruption. The heroines of the book are common prostitutes of a provincial town; the heroes are quiet, commonplace citizens who consecrate the hidden part of their existence to *liaisons* (I cannot find another name for it) with these prostitutes. There is the most bitter irony in the pictures of these singular relations, which combine something domestic (and sometimes pastoral and sentimental) with the worst brutality.

It is written in the 'Imitation of Christ' that there is something impure in the purest mind, and something divine in the most degraded soul; but the writer of the 'Imitation,' when he expressed this profound sentiment, felt very differently from Maupassant. Our realistic writer did not mean to give us a lesson in humility; he took a real, and one might say almost a wicked, delight in confounding all the elements of social life and all the notions on which are built our ideas of propriety, of decency, of chastity, of virtue. He did not write even in the vein of Victor Hugo:

"Ah! n' insultez jamais une femme qui tombe!
Qui sait sous quel fardeau sa pauvre âme succombe."

For Maupassant, the "femme qui tombe," or rather the "femme tombée," is as good as any other, if not better.

Tolstoi recognizes in Maupassant the special faculty of concentrating his attention on a particular point and subject—a faculty which gives to the man who possesses it the privilege of perceiving what others could not perceive. He saw what others did not see. Only he did not unite in his talent the three conditions which, in Tolstoi's opinion, are indispensable for a true artistic creation:

"(1.) A normal—that is to say, a moral—relation between the author and the object of his creation. (2.) Clearness of exposition and beauty of form, which are one. (3.) Sincerity—that is to say, a very real sentiment of love or of hatred for what the artist paints. Maupassant united only these two last conditions, to the total exclusion of the first, which means that there did not exist in him a normal, that is to say, a moral, relation between himself and the object of his descriptions."

Maupassant saw what others would not have seen; his form was very fine, beautiful, and plastic; he was sincere in that he really loved or hated, but "he did not know the difference between right and wrong; he loved and painted what he ought not to have loved or painted, and he did not love or paint what he ought to have loved or painted." Take, for example, the little tale 'Une Partie de Campagne.' It exhibits a total ignorance of right and wrong; we are made to consider as very delightful and amusing the way in which two gentlemen, while boating, seduce, one the mother, the other the daughter. "The sympathy of the author," says Tolstoi, "goes out visibly to these two scoundrels."

Maupassant was one of the last heirs of the school of "l'art pour l'art," which was so often and so eloquently patronized by Victor Hugo. It seems as if there were no morality in art, as if the two words were incompatible. I was once mildly criticising one of Paul Bourget's first novels to a young married woman—the most virtuous of women, I don't doubt. It was at a dinner-table; my neighbor turned on me with an extraordinary air of compassion, I might almost say of contempt, and asked, "What has art to do with morality?" I have no doubt that, after having first read Bourget, she read afterwards Maupassant; she probably found him even more artistic.

Turgeneff had expressly recommended Tolstoi to read the 'Histoire d'une Fille de Ferme.' This story particularly displeased Tolstoi: "The writer evidently sees in women who are obliged to work physically only brutes incapable of rising above physical law and maternal love." After having read one volume of Maupassant's, Tolstoi said to himself that he was, after all, only one of those clever men who nowadays use their talent in describing what ought not to be described. He ceased to think of him till he fell on another book, 'Une Vie,' and he changed his opinion. "It is not only," he says, "the best book Maupassant wrote, but it is the best French novel written since the 'Misérables' of Victor Hugo." Here he found united the three conditions which I have mentioned above. "The sense of life no longer consists in the adventures of all sorts of dissolute men and women. As the title shows, we have here the description of a life destroyed—the life of a charming, innocent woman, ready for all that is noble, and destroyed precisely by that coarse and bestial sensuality which in the author's previous stories appeared to him the phenomenon which is the centre of everything and which dominates everything. Here the sympathy of Maupassant goes out to all that is good."

There is much exaggeration in the following statement: "The form, which was fine already in the first stories, reaches here a degree of perfection which, in my opinion, has not been attained by any French prose writer." Tolstoi enters into a minute and very delicate analysis of 'Une Vie.' He does full justice to the feeling of life that runs through the book. Speaking of the heroine, he says: "One feels that the author loves this woman, and he loves her not for the beauty of her form, but for her soul, for all that is good in her. He suffers with her, he torments himself on her behalf, and this sentiment forcibly penetrates the reader, in whose soul arise naturally questions which make him reflect on the signification, the meaning, of human life." Here and there are some false notes, but, on the whole, Maupassant appears in this book "as a serious man, whose eye pierced deeply into life and who was beginning to decipher its meaning."

After this, Tolstoi read 'Bel Ami,' of which the hero might be called the Professional Lover. Tolstoi stigmatizes the book as "très sale," and the judgment is not too severe. Still, he discerns in it a serious idea, a sort of indignation which the author feels in view of the prosperity and successes of a sensual brute and in presence of his surroundings. In contrast with this happy brute, Maupassant places an old poet who understands the terrible lessons of life and death; but these lessons are lost on Duruy, the "Bel Ami," who is so full of animal energy and of lubricity that he "hears without hearing and understands without understanding. He hears and understands, but there is in him a spring of voluptuous life which flows with so much force that the evidence of the end which is in reserve for him, as it is for all, does not trouble him."

In the later novels of Maupassant, all the conceptions of life, in Tolstoi's judgment, become confused. He takes the trouble, however, to analyze them all, with much interest; he reviews in succession 'Mont-Oriol,' 'Pierre et Jean,' 'Fort comme la Mort,' 'Notre Cœur.' He discovers in all these a sort of indifference, something factitious; the defects manifest themselves more and more as Maupassant's books become more popular. The eulogies of the press, the avidity of publishers which makes them more and more generous, the constant flatteries of the public, the seductions of the world, have their influence, and it is not a good influence. The novels are even written in haste; Maupassant makes of his art a *métier*. He tries to invent the most interesting personages, the newest and most original situations; he ceases to preoccupy himself with any morality. The personages

are so immoral that their sufferings cease to interest us and we cannot have any sympathy with them. In his criticisms, which have the merit of being very impartial, Tolstoi does not spare the intellectual *milieu* in which Maupassant was thrown; he is very severe on the celebrated Renan, and cites some curious passages from his 'Marc-Aurèle' which show what a secret communion there was between the obscenity of Maupassant and the immorality of the 'Abbesse de Jouarre.'

On the whole, Maupassant's books will remain for a while as a curious document on the manners and thoughts of the end of the nineteenth century in France. Such men as "Max Nordau" will cite them as proof of the decadence and degeneracy of the Latin race. Though their form is sometimes very perfect, I doubt if they will take a permanent place in French literature. Such books as 'Colomba,' by Mérimée, will be read long after 'Bel Ami' is forgotten.

# Correspondence.

## THE QUESTION OF THE DAY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There are few parts of this country that have on hand any more important and pressing question than that which lies at the foundation of all government, viz., the right of citizens, either as individuals or as organized companies, to carry on any legitimate business without fear of molestation. This right has been utterly lost in large sections of our country, and is in danger everywhere. Can there be any more pertinent question put to every candidate for Congress or any State legislature this fall than this? "Will you, if elected, do everything in your power to secure such legislation as will make it possible for every citizen, from the humblest day laborer in the land to the millionaire, to carry on any legitimate occupation without dictation or violence from any source whatever?"

We must choose between government and anarchy, and no man who is willing to occupy even a doubtful position should be allowed in any office, high or low. W. H. Johnson.

Granville, Ohio, July 11, 1894.

## SENATORIAL NOMINATION BY CONVENTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Illinois Democratic Convention at Springfield, June 27, coming as it did almost upon your date of publication, escaped mention in your columns.

It is perhaps worthy of notice that, after a preliminary campaign in which much discussion was indulged in as to whether it would be advisable to nominate in convention a candidate for the United States Senate, the question was finally decided in the affirmative with but one dissenting vote. Thus the Illinois idea of bringing the Senate as near the people as is possible under the present method of electing Senators, dating from the Lincoln-Douglas campaign of 1858, strengthened by the nomination and successful canvass of Gen. Palmer in 1890, has become, we may hope, a settled rule.

Mr. Franklin MacVeagh, the present nominee, is a brother of the Hon. Wayne MacVeagh, Minister to Italy. He represents the best elements of our citizenship, and has nothing of the professional office-seeker in his make-up. If it should become the universal custom to make senatorial nominations in conventions chosen by the people, would other States fare as well as Illinois, or would the bosses in States where the machine is strong be able to carry their Quays and Murphys successfully through the gauntlet of a popular campaign?

Lee F. English.

Chicago, Ill., July 9, 1894.

## M. REINACH AND MR. WALDSTEIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: M. Reinach, in his letter published in your issue of May 31, meets my censure of his way of proceeding in a question of archæological science by opposing his method to my own. Here are the facts:

(1.) M. Reinach maintained and maintains dogmatically that the "plaques" are forgeries.

(2.) Prof. Furtwaengler maintains with equal dogmatism that they are genuine.

M. Reinach considers Prof. Furtwaengler "a great archæologist, the greatest of our age after Brunn, a man who is capable of holding a personal opinion, not a vacillating dilettante in archæology." I wish to state in all sincerity that Prof. Furtwaengler, as well as M. Reinach, has made most invaluable contributions to modern archæological research.

But what is the result of such assertion, and what is the good done to science? I can certainly see what harm arises out of such unqualified statement of opinion: it is a blunting of the keen edge of veracity which it is the supreme, almost religious, aim of science to sharpen and refine.

I, for my part, prefer, whether it concern the "plaques," or "the tomb of Aristotle," or any other question, to refrain from a final decision when the data at our command do not warrant a complete induction. The scientific method is the same for archæology as for any other department of knowledge; the shadings from the "demonstrably certain" to the "barely possible" are the same, or ought to be the same. Yet our practice has been different from that of other departments of learning. It is time to stop and to protest; and I confidently leave it to the judgment of scientific men to decide which is the course of true science or of dilettantism, M. Reinach's or mine.

In the case of the head of Iris from the frieze of the Parthenon, I stated its identification in terms which left *no doubt* of its authenticity; the case of the metope head in the Louvre approaches complete certainty; in the case of the "plaques," I have given the student all the material I have found, have stated what I consider probable, always ready to modify my opinion in accordance with the evidence bearing upon the problem.

When I say that the method of the comparative study of style (to which the first chapter of my book on Pheidias is devoted, as the subsequent ones are meant to be illustrations of this method) is tested by the identification of the "plaques," whether they be forgeries or not, I speak the truth. It is misleading to quote as an analogy "the method consisting in detecting that a reduced copy of the Venus of Melos resembles the Venus of Melos"; the plaque was an unidentified terracotta *fragment* of one mutilated figure from the Parthenon frieze, not a reduction of the best-known statue.

It would be better if M. Reinach devoted some of the energy which he expends upon passionate statements to the verification of the dates upon which he founds serious accusations against one of his colleagues. There is one portion of his letter upon which I must comment with emphasis and severity, for it concerns scientific ethics and personal honor, and I beg your readers to give close attention to the following facts. The dates which it is necessary to bear in mind are the following:

1880: Acquisition of the metope head by the Louvre Museum (not 1882, as M. Reinach has it in his last letter).

Christmas, 1881, to 1882: My identification of the head in the Louvre Museum.

August, 1882: Sir Charles Newton's announcement of my discovery in the *Academy*.

Autumn, 1882: My first publication in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies*.

End of 1882: Meeting of the Société des Antiquaires de Paris, in which a discussion takes place *based on my publication*.

1883: Publication of the discussion in the *Bulletin de la Société des Antiquaires*.

1885: Publication of my book; the chapter on the Louvre head in print before the publication of the *Bulletin*.

Now, let me say at once, as I stated years ago, that I in no way wish to cast blame upon the authorities of the Louvre Museum, and that it would be absurd to reproach them for not making every discovery in the museum of which they have charge.

In April, 1886, M. Reinach published a letter in the *Nation* headed "Suum Cuique," in which he charged me with not duly acknowledging the prior discovery and publication of the metope head by the authorities of the Louvre Museum (M. de Villefosse). In June of that year I replied to M. Reinach, and showed conclusively that my discovery was independent and my *publication* was the first, upon which the French publication was based. In the same month a letter from M. de Villefosse himself appeared in the *Nation*, in which he disclaimed any part in M. Reinach's attack, and unequivocally acknowledged my priority. M. Reinach, in his reply of July, had to acknowledge this, though he did not do it generously and with good grace. Now, eight years after this discussion, M. Reinach again implies in his recent letter that I had not duly acknowledged the priority of my colleagues.

This is a wanton imputation upon my honor which I must refute clearly. When I made the discovery of the head, it had been in the museum for nearly two years, and there was *no sign of its recognition* as belonging to the Parthenon. Further, I asked for all information, corresponded about it, had the cast sent to London, and was not informed of any relation it might have held to the metopes. On the contrary, I was told that all that was known about it was, that it came through Vienna from the Piræus.

Whatever the purchasing board of the museum may have had in the inventories, and whatever remarks may have been made at the meeting of the Société des Antiquaires when my paper was discussed, the identification of this head as belonging to the metopes of the Parthenon was as clearly a discovery of my own as any discovery of which I have ever heard, and M. Reinach ought long ago to have acknowledged this, instead of returning to an unfounded charge.

But there are some points of detail in M. Reinach's letter which might tempt me to doubt of his *bona-fides* if they could not be explained by his eager inaccuracy. The point being the priority of date, he makes the following curious omissions. In his first attack

in 1886, he mentions the date of the *meeting* of the Société des Antiquaires as 1882 (the publication which alone I might have seen being 1883); and, though he mentions my publication in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies, he gives no date.* He thus naturally leads the reader to believe that the one which really followed had preceded the other.

In his recent letter he mentions the date (1882) of my first article; but continues, *without mentioning the date*, "*Meanwhile*, in the *Bulletin de la Société des Antiquaires*, a notice *had* appeared," etc., this notice being subsequent to my publication—in fact, based upon the discussion of my paper. He furthermore gives 1882 as the date of the purchase, whereas it was 1880.

This needs no comment. Upon such grounds M. Reinach has brought forward such serious charges.

The discovery is of small merit, and is not of sufficient importance to warrant so much discussion. But the question of scientific ethics raised by M. Reinach's proceedings emphatically is. What he was bound in honor and honesty to do after his first attack, and what he is bound to do now unequivocally, is to state his own mistake and to acknowledge fully my clear identification of the Louvre head. If he does not do this, I must refuse to enter upon any further discussion with a man who (whatever his other merits) has views upon the canons of conduct among men of science so diametrically opposed to my own. CHARLES WALDSTEIN.

KING'S COLLEGE, CAMBRIDGE, July 3, 1894.

P. S.—What does M. Reinach mean by his hint: "I remember having erased from my proof-sheets a rather too frank qualification of M. Waldstein's dealing on that occasion"? No doubt this is very generous forbearance on the part of one whose letter on a definite point drags in every disparagement he can find against me, made by himself or any other person, and ranging from my style to my character. C. W.

## THREE MADISON LETTERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Some letters from Madison to his brother, Ambrose Madison, recently came into my possession, and among them I find three of more than ordinary interest. The resolution on freeing slaves is an incident in Virginian history of high importance, while the letters on the Constitution have never been printed, and give a new light on Madison's position.

Respectfully, WORTHINGTON C. FORD.

WASHINGTON, July 12, 1894.

Richmond, Dec. 15, 1785.

Dr. Bro'r

I wrote to my father a day or two ago by Col. Burnley, to which I refer. The principal step taken since by the H. of Delegates has been the rejection of a bill on which the assize scheme depended. The majority consisted of 63 against 49. Yesterday the vote of the Speaker decided in the affirmative a resolution to repeal the act which permits masters to free their slaves. I hope the bill which must follow on the subject may be less successful. Many who concurred in the resolution will probably be content finally with some amendment of the law in favor of creditors. Should it prove otherwise this retrogade step with regard to an emancipation will not only dishonor us extremely, but hasten the event which is dreaded by stimulating the efforts of the friends to it. The residue of the Revisal from No. 65 will be put off, except the Religious Bill and a few others. Leave was given yesterday for a bill in favor of British Creditors, but not without proofs that it will be opposed in every stage of its progress thro' the House.

. . . . . .

New York, Nov. 8th. 1787

Dear brother,

Having mislaid your last favor, I cannot acknowledge it by reference to its date. It contained two requests, the one relating to Mr. House's rule of calculating the weight of the tobacco; the other to my being a candidate in Orange for the Convention. In answer to the first point I enclose the rule exemplified. If this should not suffice, I will send you a calculation in detail for the whole account. In answer to the second point, I am to observe that it was not my wish to have followed the act of the General Convention into the Convention of the State; supposing that it would be as well that the final decision thereon should proceed from men who had no hand in preparing and proposing it. As I find however that in all the States the members of the Gen'l Convention are becoming members of the State Conventions, as I have been applied to on the subject by sundry very respectable friends, as I have reason to believe that many objections in Virginia proceed from a misconception of the plan, or the causes which produced the objectionable parts of it; and as my attendance at Philadelphia may enable me to contribute some explanations and informations which may be of use, I shall not decline the representation of the County if I should be honoured with its appointment. You may let this be known in such a way as my father & yourself may judge best. I shall be glad to hear from you on the subject, and to know what competition there will probably be and by whom.

As far as present appearances denote, the N. England States, R. Island excepted, will all adopt the new Constitution. N. Jersey certainly will. So will Pennsylvania according to the best opinions, by a very decided majority. I have favorable information also from Maryland; though it is not improbable that the opposition likely to be made in Virginia will have some effect on that side, as well as on the side of N. Carolina, which in general has been said to be well disposed. Like information has been rec'd from the two more Southern States; but it is too early to pronounce on their disposition. This State (N. York) is much divided. The party in power are unwilling to surrender any portion of it. The other party is composed of the more respectable citizens, and is warmly attached to the proposed Constitution. Whatever may be the sense of the majority the State will scarcely have a will of its own, if New England on the one side and N. Jersey and Pen'a on the other come heartily into the measure.

A French packet arrived a few days ago; but brings no decisive information concerning the Dutch. It continues to be uncertain what their fate is to be. A war between Russia & Turkey is said to have been declared by the latter. A great change has taken place in the French Ministry. The Parliament lately banished has got back to Paris, and it is expected that the new taxes against which they remonstrated, will not be enforced. Provincial assemblies are at length established throughout the Kingdom. The Marquis de la Fayette is a leading member of one of them. The Count de Moustier is appointed Minister to the U. States in place of the Chevalier de la Luzerne, and may soon be expected here.

. . . . . .

Richmond, June 24 [1788].

Dear brother,

Yesterday carried us through the discussion of the Constitution by paragraphs. To-day will probably bring forward some proposition and debates relative to the final step to be taken. The opposing party will contend for previous amendments. On the other side, a conciliatory declaration of certain fundamental principles in favor of liberty, in a form not affecting the validity & plenitude of the ratification, will be proposed. The final question is likely to be decided by a very small majority. I do not know that either party despairs absolutely. The friends of the Government seem to be in the best spirits; and I hope have the best reason to be so. At the same time it is not impossible they may miscalculate their number; and that accidents may reduce it below the requisite amount. Two members on that side who went away with a purpose of returning, are still absent, it is said; and a third is so ill as to render his vote somewhat precarious. It may well be questioned whether on every estimate this loss, if it should continue, may not endanger the result. Yours affect'y

# Notes.

THE Congregational Sunday-school and Publishing Society, Boston, has in press a new 'Comprehensive Concordance to the Holy Scriptures,' by the Rev. J. B. R. Walker, to be sold at a nominal price, which could probably as readily have been obtained if the Concordance had been based on the revised version instead of (as it is) on the authorized.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. will publish immediately an illustrated edition of the complete Poetical Works of Sir Walter Scott, in two volumes, with an introduction by Prof. Charles Eliot Norton.

D. Appleton & Co. have nearly ready 'Essays, Biological and Geological,' by Prof. Huxley (the eighth volume of his Collected Essays); 'A Rejoinder to Prof. Weismann,' by Herbert Spencer, reprinted from the *Contemporary Review;* and 'Gen. Lee,' by Gen. Fitzhugh Lee, in the "Great Commanders Series."

E. R. Wallace's 'Descriptive Guide to the Adirondacks' (Syracuse: The Author) has been for more than twenty years available to tourists, and still, after many revisions, preserves a pleasant old-fashioned flavor and retains a few antique cuts among the very numerous excellent photographic views of scenery, portraits of persons, etc. The work is the product of wide familiarity with the region and a hearty fondness for it, and enters into very minute details in all practical matters. An excellent map is folded in a pocket in the cover; it embraces not only the Adirondacks proper, but their outskirts, for the Guide treats also of Schroon Lake, Lakes Luzerne, George, and Champlain, Trenton Falls, the Ausable Chasm, and even the Thousand Islands.

Prof. J. Everett Brady of Smith College has issued, for use with his own classes, a manual entitled 'Women in Roman Literature,' for which he claims nothing more than that it is a compilation, or collection of material, rather than an original and critical study of the subject. This little volume of but eighty-seven pages is likely to prove useful to those who have not ready access to larger works; and the collection, in the appendix, of all the literary productions of Roman ladies which have come down to us cannot but prove a great convenience to any one who desires to survey the whole field at a glance. The book might have been improved by more careful proof-reading. It is perhaps to this cause that we should ascribe the curious mistake on page 12, where Pope Anastasius I. is twice called Pope Athanasius—a name unknown to the list of Roman pontiffs.

The most striking article in vol. xxxix. of Sidney Lee's 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) is that on the late Henry Morley, whose death occurred only on May 14. No such prompt inclusion of what we may call the current dead has, we think, been shown before in the progress of this great work. As a whole, the volume, the sixth and concluding one of the letter M, possesses but slight literary interest. A number of old New England worthies and unworthies (if we must put Thomas Morton of Merry Mount in the latter category) figure in it, with Lindley Murray, the

grammarian. Charles Edward Mudie, it appears, before founding his famous circulating library, published for the first time in England, in 1844, the Poems of J. R. Lowell, and an oration of Emerson's in the same year. Both the elder John Murray and his namesake are commemorated in this volume, as is Lord Mansfield (William Murray), of whom it is recorded that in 1769, "on the question whether literary copyright in published works existed at common law, or was a mere creation of statute," he held the former view, though "the latter was eventually affirmed by the House of Lords."

The *Commercial and Financial Chronicle* has issued its 58th volume, embracing the half-year just closed. The value of these volumes as a complete history of contemporary finance is well known and appreciated.

'American Street Railway Investments' is the first number of a publication, designed to appear annually, which deals with the capitalization, history, equipment, and management of the corporations organized in this country for municipal surface transportation. The work comprises reports on more than 1,000 street-railway companies, operating in about six hundred cities and towns. An alphabetical arrangement by localities is wisely followed, and the book itself is a useful addition to investment statistics. It is published by the Street Railway Publishing Company of New York.

The latest volume in the dainty "Collection Lemerre Illustrée" (Paris: Lemerre; New York: Meyer Frères & Cie.), is Paul Bourget's 'Steeple-Chase (Maurice Olivier).' The story is simple, pretty, and pure, and its appearance in this handy form is welcome.

A new volume by Maurice Maeterlinck (Brussels: Edmond Deman; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer) contains three works: "Alladine et Palomides," "Intérieur," and "La Mort de Tintagiles." The first of these three dramas "for marionettes" is the longer and more important, but in none of them does the author strike a new subject or a new method of treating an old theme. There is nothing to be learned from "Alladine and Palomides" and "Tintagiles" which has not already been told in "La Princesse Maleine." Indeed, the effects in this play have been used again in the two works under review, just as "Intérieur" is a weaker "L'Intruse." The same impression of mystery, of vagueness, of mediæval mustiness and superstition is made by these dramas as by the others. There is no greater power—there is distinctly less power in them. M. Maeterlinck is repeating himself, and does not justify the high promise held out for him in Mirbeau's article which first brought him into notice. Very curious are the cuts which illustrate the volume, and which are admirably in keeping with the old-time plays.

"Jean Dornis" is evidently the pseudonym assumed by some new woman writer, and 'La Voie Douloureuse" (Paris: Calmann Lévy) is no doubt her first venture. It is a beautifully written and touching story, full of tenderest grace and deep feeling; sad, as the title indicates, but neither emotionally nor sensationally sad. The characters which suffer most, Jeanne and Yvon, are not weaklings, but endowed with good strong wills, clean minds, clear intellects, and a proper sense of morality. It is refreshing to come upon a well-written and very interesting novel in which the hero and heroine have genuine moral fibre, and prefer fighting against temptations to wallowing in sensuality, either physical or intellectual. Though the scene is laid in Brittany, the authoress has refrained from over-abundant descriptions and excess of local color—another cause for gratitude. 'La Voie Douloureuse' will be appreciated by all readers as it has been by Leconte de Lisle, who acknowledges in a brief letter the dedication of the work to him.

Gyp's 'Le Mariage de Chiffon' (Paris: Calmann Lévy) is bright, brilliant, and witty, as a matter of course. It is a capital book to pick up at the seaside or in the mountains, on a train, or on a steamer. It calls for no effort of the brain to follow the workings of Mlle. Chiffon's mind, and one is gently interested throughout. The young lady's language is composed of a choice assortment of slang, and this will probably prove puzzling to readers who are not versed in this form of French. They must bear in mind that Gyp likes slang as much as she likes swells; and all her aristocrats understand this peculiar jargon, it would seem. Nevertheless, Chiffon would be vastly more charming did she talk good French, and she need lose none of her piquancy, *teste* the delightful heroine of Jean de la Brète's 'Mon Oncle et mon Curé.'

'En Pique-nique' (Paris: Colin et Cie.) is the annual volume of stories, poems, and sketches contributed by members of the "Société des Gens de Lettres." The contributions are all short, necessarily, there being twenty-six of them in this book of 324 pages, and a few are in verse. There are grades of merit among the tales: some are very good, some fair, and some poor, even though written by well-known men. Zola's contribution is of the last-named class. Pierre Maël, Jean Rameau, and Jacques Normand contribute good work, and Jules Simon has a few pages on Renan which, short though they are, are particularly interesting. Paul Gaidot's "Le Secret de Janneyriat" has been read in English; it is the story of the great actor who voluntarily sacrifices his certainty of fame in order to insure the success of the woman he loves.

Signor de Tassinari's brief 'San Francesco d'Assisi' (Florence) may be described as an afterglow of M. Sabatier's brilliant biography. The Italian's rosy enthusiasm gives us a eulogy rather than a study of his subject. If not very original, he is at least in love with his hero, and that fact by itself makes his little brochure worth while.

Part xxiv. of the 'Atlas to Accompany the Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies' in course of publication by the War Department contains three maps of especial interest—one showing Sherman's operations in 1863–65; another, the campaigns of the Army of the Cumberland during the war; and the third, Utah in 1860, made under Floyd's direction. Parts xxv. and xxvi. consist wholly of views, mostly from photographs, of Forts Sumter and Moultrie after their capture in 1861, of Nashville, the vicinity of Chattanooga, and other places in Tennessee, as well as in Georgia and Virginia. They are of great value. A special interest attaches to the view of the locomotive *Hero*, stolen by a detachment of Gen. Mitchell's men in their famous and tragic endeavor to burn bridges and cripple the Confederate railways; also to that of the Libby Prison. In No. xxvii. the maps and plans are resumed, with Charleston and its defences for the chief, and perhaps the 1867 map of California, Nevada, Oregon, and part of Idaho in the second place.

We have received from Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, the sixth instalment of Kiepert's grand atlas, containing maps of the British Isles, Saxony and Thuringia, Austria-Hungary, Hither India and South America, each accompanied by what we may call its special gazetteer, viz., statistical text, with an index. From B. Westermann & Co. comes the third part of the Spruner-Sieglin 'Atlas Antiquus' (Gotha: J. Perthes), with representations of ancient Palestine and Phœnicia, Greece, Northern Italy and Spain. In this connection we may mention also, coming from the same house, parts ii. and iii. of 'Ritter's Geographisch-Statistisches Lexikon' (Leipzig: Otto Wigand), in which A is concluded and B advanced to Bern.

The last four of the total six numbers of Charles Yriarte's illustrated 'Figaro Salon' (New York: Boussod, Valadon & Co.) have reached us, and are marked, like Nos. 1 and 2, by several Napoleonic selections. We bracket also the allusive canvas of Uhde's "The Flight into Egypt" and Jean Béraud's "Le Chemin de la Croix," in which there is a studied and disagreeable anachronism. In No. 6 we have F. Roybet's "La Main Chaude," an obvious companion piece to his last year's success, "Propos Galants." The pictures by several women are noticeable—a portrait of the papal nuncio by Mrs. Wentworth, and of Mme. Réjane by Mme. "Gyp," with a study of the nude by Miss Lee Robbins. The last two are lightly touched off in the text by M. Yriarte. There is a respectable sitting figure of Jeanne d'Arc, by Mme. Signoret-Ledieu; but the most striking piece of statuary is Saint-Marceaux's "La Faute."

Mr. Waters's "Gleanings in England" in the July number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* will interest Rhode Islanders and Long Islanders, but are most remarkable for a large body of notes relating to the family connection of the Apostle Eliot, which is all but conclusively identified with the family whose pedigree is given in the Visitations of Essex, published by the Harleian Society. "One fortunate discovery in the shape of a will may settle the whole matter for us"; and who so likely to make this discovery as Mr. Waters? He prints the will of the Apostle's father among the rest.

The *Geographical Journal* for July opens with Mr. C. R. Markham's presidential address before the Royal Geographical Society, in which he dwells especially on the most recent Arctic expeditions. His highest praise was given to Mr. Peary, whom he looks upon "as an ideal explorer." An interesting statement was made in respect to the new catalogue of the Society's library, which is now in print. It is an alphabetical catalogue brought down to 1893, and has two appendices, the first containing an alphabetical list of all the collections of voyages and travels, with an analytical table of contents to each volume; the second being devoted to anonymous and periodical literature "arranged in geographical order." A still more important work which is in preparation is a subject-catalogue, which is to contain the titles of books, pamphlets, and papers in periodicals and transactions. It will comprise about 110,000 titles, 84,000 being those of papers and articles, and will be completed, it is hoped, in two years. Mr. W. L. Sclater continues his account of the geography of mammals, in this paper treating of the Australian region, in which he includes New Guinea, New Zealand, the Moluccas, and all the Pacific islands. The recent territorial arrangements in Africa between England and the Congo Free State and Italy are explained with the aid of two useful maps showing plainly the new boundaries. The other maps are one illustrating Mr. Sclater's paper, and an admi-

rable map of Tibet on a scale of sixty miles to the inch, embodying the very latest information received from travellers and the official reports of the Indian Survey. It is interesting to note upon this map that the middle courses of the great rivers of eastern Tibet are still left indeterminate. This part of Asia, containing very probably the most magnificent river scenery in the world, is still as inaccessible to white men as the North Pole.

The very interesting and scholarly lecture which M. Théodore Reinach delivered when the Greek music of the hymn to Apollo was given at Paris last April, appears in full in the *Revue de Paris* of June 15. The paper needs no praise, either in regard of its interest or of its learning. It is a most valuable contribution to our scanty knowledge of ancient music, and need only be indicated. Part of the music of the hymn is given, with both the modern and the old Greek notation. Other noteworthy articles in the same number of the *Revue* are "Une colonne de guerre au Soudan," by Commandant Péroz, being a liberal instalment of his forthcoming book on the campaign of 1891-92 against Samory; a study of "Le Père Joseph," by M. Alfred Rebelliau, in which the more recent and more favorable view of the celebrated counsellor of Richelieu is asserted against the popular notion of him derived from A. de Vigny and Michelet; an appreciation of the Memoirs of the Prince de Joinville by Comte A. de Circourt, himself an old Legitimist and one of the few survivors of the French navy of 1830; and an article on the revival of the Olympic games, which contains many statistics of modern sport, but very little about the Olympics, old or new.

In a communication to the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-Lettres the director of the French School of Rome announces the opening of a new gallery of casts which will serve as an annex to the chair of archæology in the University, and will be open to study. M. Geffroy also reports that at the last sitting of the Academy of the Lincei he saw and examined the leaden *ex-voto* objects recently found in the ruins of the temple of Anxur. They are all child's playthings: a little table, a little chair, a little sconce. The Jupiter of Anxur was, as is well known, worshipped under the form of a beardless boy, and it appears that these were deemed suitable offerings to a divinity of tender age. In the course of the excavations in this temple the orifice of a sort of natural conduit, which runs far back through the rock, has been found. Out of this blows a steady and strong draught of air.

A movement has been set on foot at Aquila in the Abruzzi, the nearest considerable town to the site of the ancient Amiternum, the birthplace of Sallust, for the purpose of commemorating that historian by the erection of a monument. The names of Bonghi, Brunn, Crispi, De Gubernatis, Gregorovius, Max Müller, Overbeck, Von Sybel, and others in the list of patrons of the undertaking guarantee its serious character. Contributions from the United States are solicited. They may be sent to Prof. F. B. Tarbell, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill., who will forward them to the executive committee. "The names of subscribers will be recorded, for permanent preservation, in an appropriate volume in the Municipal Palace of Aquila."

A committee of citizens of the District of Columbia, with Frederick Douglass at its head, invites subscriptions to a plain monument to John Brown on the site of the historic engine-house at Harper's Ferry. The Baltimore and Ohio Railroad has granted the land and will take care of the shaft proposed to be set up. The secretary is Robert H. Terrell, 609 F Street, N. W., Washington.

—The four days' meeting of the National Educational Association held at Asbury Park, N. J., which closed its session Friday evening, July 13, had several noteworthy features. It was preceded by a four days' session of the National Council, composed of two representatives from each State, the meetings of which were largely attended, and marked by interesting papers. The association now has a fund of $30,000 to $40,000, and is able to make appropriations for researches, as it did for the expenses of the "Committee of Ten"; but it declines to do so, at least till its fund amounts to $50,000. This is unfortunate, as the new department of child study, just admitted (thanks to the efforts of United States Commissioner Harris and President Lane, with only four dissenting votes), has now greater need and could make better use of money than has ever been possible before, seeing that associations for this study have been organized in no less than nine cities or States. The sentiment of the educators against the strikers found expression in many ways and at nearly every meeting and section; the climax, perhaps, being reached on Wednesday evening, when things looked darkest and it seemed doubtful if Western delegates could reach their homes. The vast audience was asked, at the suggestion of Superintendent Maxwell of Brooklyn, to rise and sing "America." The singing and the effect were nothing less than electric, and a large part of the audience were in tears at the close. Every one seemed disposed to ask whether teachers had done their full duty in inculcating civic and industrial virtue. The many discussions of the "Report of the Committee of Ten," which was adopted and the committee discharged, footed up, perhaps, somewhat as follows: For State universities no good could come of it, as satisfactory arrangements now generally exist between these institutions and the schools that fit for them. In several faculties where it had been carefully considered, it was reported that nothing could be done. The doctrine that every study has equal educational value if well taught—which is a leading dogma of the Report, although one member of the committee declared it had been definitely voted down—found no support or supporter, but a strong consensus of opinion against it. The sentiment was also widely expressed that the Report was in the interest of the 3 per cent. of the boys fitting for college, more than in the interest of the 97 per cent. who do not go to college, and a few doubted whether most studies should be begun in the same manner by these two classes. Much was said in favor of unification of studies and against the distracting influences of the mob of branches that have in recent years entered the school curricula. The last chief vein of interest which ran through scores of papers at this great meeting was moral training. On the whole, these meetings have steadily improved during recent years. College and university men, whose presence was once almost suspected, have not only come in, but have greatly helped. Most of the papers are more carefully prepared. The school book and supply interest has been relegated to a building of its own, and although the noise of many axe-grinders is still heard—sometimes even in the papers—it is distinctly less than it used to be. The publishers' exhibit by itself was never more suggestive or interesting.

—The commemorative volume contributed by the pupils of Prof. Henry Drisler, in honor of the fiftieth year of his official connection with Columbia College, has just made its appearance (Macmillan). It is a handsome book of about three hundred pages, representing a very wide range of subjects in philology, philosophy, ancient art, and archæology, and appealing to the literary public as well as to professional scholars. Prof. Gottheil, in a paper which is not altogether *caviare* to the general, collects all the references to Zoroaster found in Syriac and Arabic literature, which incidentally include many curious passages on the adoration of the Magi. Prof. Butler points out a remarkable anticipation by Anaximander of Mr. John Fiske's contribution to the theory of evolution—the discovery of the importance of a prolonged period of infancy to the psychical and physical development of man. The general reader will find much new and interesting matter in Prof. Gudeman's "Literary Frauds among the Greeks," and in Prof. Hopkins's discussion of the question, mooted some time ago between Max Müller and Whitney, of "Henotheism" in the 'Rig-Veda.' Mr. Hopkins reaches the striking conclusion that the poets of the Rig-Veda were esoterically, to a great extent, unitarians; and that the hymns represent the fading of pure polytheism, and the engrafting upon a polytheistic stock of a speculative homoousian tendency, soon to bud out as philosophic pantheism. "Every Vedic poet is more or less a Xenophanes. The 'Rig-Veda' is not naïve; it is theosophic throughout." In connection with this sophisticated tendency it is worth while to inquire once more, What is the age of the Vedic hymns? Jacobi and Tilak have quite recently broached independently an ingenious astronomical theory which assigns to them a date of between 3500 and 2500 B. C.; but Prof. Perry, in his "Notes on the Vedic deity Pūsan," remarks that this great antiquity will not be able to maintain itself, and that little of the Vedic literature can be placed earlier than 1500 B. C. Prof. Sloane takes a somewhat new view of the relation of the Arabs to Aristotle, assigning to the monastic sect called "The Brothers of Purity," and to Avicenna, a rôle more important and original than is customary to concede to them. They were not merely blind conservators of the great philosopher's doctrine; they absorbed new ideas from the Koran and from Christianity, and by their restless investigations reached "a modified and powerful peripateticism which was distinctly their own." This had its influence, in part directly, in part through the Moors and Averroes, upon the scholasticism of the West, and finally upon the whole movement which issued in modern science.

—Turning from philosophy to literature, we note Mr. Brander Matthews's clever paper, which suggests a profitable line of inquiry, and draws some well-founded parallels between ancient and modern drama. The "Medea," as he suggests, is obviously a "star-piece," and *Medea's* "star-part" is dexterously provided with what we call "exit-speeches." It was in all probability written to "fit" some actor of special talents, just as M. Sardou, in composing "La Tosca," fitted Mme. Sarah Bernhardt. The immense vogue of the Euripidean plays was due in some measure to the dramatist's technical mastery of stage-business, and his clear conception of what the spectator demanded. With Mr. Matthews's criticism may be classed Mr. Woodward's dis-

sertation on "Iphigenia in Greek and French Tragedy," and Mr. Hussey's investigation of the relation of Plato to the Attic comedy. He infers that the first four books of the Republic were published before the others; that "the waves of laughter" apprehended by Socrates in the fifth book were set in motion by the comedian Theopompus in his play of "The Stratiotides" (The Soldier Girls), and may have given rise to the defence in the fifth book. The School of Art and Archæology is represented by Mr. Julius Sachs's discussion of the "Medusa Ludovisi," which he plausibly makes out to be a dying Penthesilea, and in three admirable essays of Prof. Merriam. These, by their mastery of method and detail, remind us of the tradition that still lingers in the American School at Athens of the rare usefulness of Mr. Merriam's directorate. The originals discussed belong to the Metropolitan Museum; and the essays prove that there is material in New York as well as in Athens for the trained student of ancient art, and that we need no longer go abroad for experts competent to classify and interpret it. In Mr. Jackson's learned paper on Persian armor, we notice a few misprints. We must pass over certain articles whose elaborate or purely technical character does not admit conveniently of summary. We notice two misprints on p. 117.

—The master and fellows of Balliol College have appointed the Speaker of the House of Commons to succeed the late Lord Bowen as their Visitor. Mr. Peel has gladly accepted his unanimous election, and is now duly installed. The nearest analogy to the position of the Visitor of an Oxford college offered in the constitution of older American colleges is that of the "Corporation" or "Board of Trustees," and it must be admitted that the analogy is anything but close. In the very unusual event of a failure on the part of the college fellows to elect a head within the statutable limit, the College Visitor is bound to act in their place and choose for them. Within two years this case arose at Pembroke College, whose present head was chosen by its Visitor, Lord Salisbury. The Visitor of Pembroke, as of Hertford College, is the Chancellor of the University *ex officio*, the Bishop of Winchester is *ex officio* the Visitor of five Oxford colleges, while twelve others are visited by other ecclesiastics, or functionaries; the Earl of Pembroke is hereditary Visitor of one (Wadham). Thus Balliol stands alone among the twenty-one Oxford colleges in having the power to bestow the visitorship just given to Mr. Peel. The statutes of Balliol College do not apparently contemplate the possibility of the simultaneous or nearly simultaneous demise of its master and its Visitor, for the Visitor's presence is necessary at the "induction" of the master, while no Visitor can be duly elected unless the master has cast a vote at the election.

—The lectures delivered in the spring of 1893 at Florence are but now beginning to be printed. The first volume, just published under the title of 'La Vita Italiana nel Cinquecento: Storia' (Milan: Treves), contains articles by Ferrai on Francis I. and Charles V., by Masi on the Reformation, by Del Lungo on the Siege of Florence, by De Johannis on Political Economy in the Sixteenth Century, and the Discovery of America, and finally articles by Rondoni on Siena in the Sixteenth Century. Although all are readable, only the lectures of Masi and De Johannis deserve special mention. Signor Masi in a few pages says more that is to the point on the subject of the Reformation in Italy than will easily be found elsewhere. He shows that it never became a popular movement; that, in spite of its being for a time a fad among all society people, the Reformation never took a real hold in Italy, all the persons who favored it being either, like Contarini or Vittoria Colonna, unable to break with Catholicism, or, like Ochino and Socinus, too heterodox even for Protestantism. As to the opponents of the Reformation, they never for an instant granted that there could lie back of it more than pedantry or mere wrongheadedness, and so well did they succeed in impressing this view that it is still the prevalent one in Italy, as is proved by Balbo's 'Storia d'Italia,' the most popular and most prized by the Italians themselves.

—Signor De Johannis's article is even more interesting. It is truly refreshing to come across a writer who confines himself to a definite portion or period of the Renaissance, and treats it from the sociologist's instead of from the art critic's or scandal-monger's point of view. Without wholly denying that the discovery of America hastened the decay of Italian prosperity, Signor de Johannis protests against the usually accepted view that this was a principal cause. He shows that at the end of the fifteenth century Italy was already in decline, and assigns, as chief sources of evil, senseless extravagance in public and private life, State interference with commerce, and crushingly burdensome taxes. The momentum of the decline was then increased by the Spanish hegemony, Charles V. being guilty not only of doubling the evils already existing, but of encouraging the revival of feudalism and monasticism, and, worst of all, of destroying credit by systematic coin-clipping. The final blow came from the increase of the precious metals. Contemporary Italian writers, Signor De Johannis affirms, were well aware of many of the factors in the ruin of their prosperity, and, in the discussions which arose, anticipated a number of the economic theories of to-day, and may thus be considered the real founders of the science of political economy.

—Vienna is at last to have a Goethe monument—that is to say, if the final decision of the Goethe-Verein may be accepted as final. Since 1886 the question of the erection of such a monument has been discussed, referred to committees, submitted to juries, reconsidered by the judges; and all this with the same heat and degree of partisan feeling which characterize the politico-religious quarrels that invade Parliament, the municipal council, the university, and even the hospitals. Alas for the old Vienna *Gemüthlichkeit!* Hellmer and Tilgner are the sculptors who have divided artistic Vienna into two hostile camps, not for the first time. When, a number of years ago, prizes were offered for the best design for a monument to Mozart, Prof. Edmund Hellmer was awarded the first prize; but popular opinion rebelled in favor of Viktor Tilgner, whose busts had become deservedly famous, and the jury, after adding to its numbers, reconsidered the matter, and charged Tilgner with the execution of his design. The same two sculptors were asked to hand in designs for the Goethe statue. Both designs were pronounced excellent, but Tilgner had violated one of the rules of the competition by submitting a model twice as large as prescribed, and hence the prize was awarded to Hellmer. The decision, however, only reopened the former controversy as to the relative merits of these artists, and, to give it added zest, one of the jurors himself, Dr. Albert Ilg, director of the imperial historical art collections, and a well-known writer on æsthetics, who had been compelled to vote against Tilgner, turned against Hellmer in the fiercest manner, at the same time attacking the sculptors of Vienna in a body as ignorant and without an adequate conception of the personality of Goethe. The Association of Artists thereupon held a solemn indignation meeting, at which Prof. Rudolph Weyr, one of the most highly esteemed artists of Vienna, soundly castigated Dr. Ilg. The dispute reached its height when Tilgner himself, although an intimate friend of Ilg, repudiated his warfare in an emphatic manner. "I feel," he said, "as if Ilg had seized me by the legs and hurled me at my opponents in order to crush them." The Goethe-Verein, divided between the adherents of Tilgner and Hellmer, resolved to hold an extraordinary meeting to consider the advisability of ordering a new prize competition. Several hundred members were hurriedly added to the association, and a sensational outcome was expected. But, fortunately, calmer counsels prevailed, and the meeting confirmed Prof. Hellmer in the right to execute the work. An anonymous writer in the *Neue Freie Presse*, in whom it is easy to recognize that graceful *feuilletoniste*, Herr Hugo Wittmann, taking up the charge of ignorance brought by Dr. Ilg against the Vienna sculptors, reminds him that Dannecker, the creator of the best Schiller bust in existence, never learned to spell correctly, and he adds, in an æsthetic apothegm worthy of Lessing: "Was, der Künstler wäre nicht gebildet, er, dem das grosse Geheimniss der Welt, das Walten der Menschenseele und die Entstehung des Lebens sich erschlossen hat? . . . Ihm, dem Bildner fehlte es an Bildung? Er macht sie ja!"

## MARSHALL'S PAIN AND PLEASURE.

*Pain, Pleasure, and Æsthetics:* An Essay concerning the Psychology of Pain and Pleasure, with special reference to Æsthetics, by Henry Rutgers Marshall, M.A. Macmillan & Co. 1894. 8vo, pp. xxi, 364.

Mr. Marshall's volume is another indication of the rate at which the tide is rising in our country in matters philosophical. The feelings of pleasure and displeasure form a truly immense portion of the life of Man, but Man's attempts to give to himself some intimate account of their conditions, whether inside or outside of his organism, form a very shabby episode of his achievements in the theoretic line—so shabby, indeed, that one's first impulse is to shy away from any book with the word "Æsthetics" in its title, with the confident expectation that, if read, it could only emphasize once more the gaping contrast between the richness of life and the poverty of all possible formulas. A better day, it is true, has begun to dawn of late, since the high-priori road has been less travelled, and the Kantian, Hegelian, Schopenhauerian, Herbartian, and other Teutonic efforts to reduce the life of æsthetic feeling to some single essential conception, have begun to yield to the more modest study of minute particular effects. But either through hollowness where ambitious, or where solid then through triviality, the outcome of æsthetic theorizing has not been such as to puff one up with pride. Everything that is subtle in our preferences escapes from the accounts that are given; the nature of the pleasure and pain-processes in the nerve-cen-

tres still remains unknown; and the student concludes that the experience of a single strain of melody or verse of poetry, of a single square foot of genuine color, is more important to the soul than the reading of all the books on beauty ever composed.

Now it cannot be said that Mr. Marshall's book quite puts an end to this state of things. No philosophy, however wide its sweep or deep its dive, will ever be a substitute for the tiniest experience of life. But, all allowances made for this necessity, it may well be said that Mr. Marshall's essay is the most successful of all yet published attempts to conceive our pleasures and displeasures under something like a single point of view. It is written with extreme dryness, for hardly a concrete example of a beautiful effect adorns its pages; but one does not feel (as in so many German essays) that this is the dryness of an irreclaimably inartistic nature on the author's part. It seems rather the respect of an artistic nature (which is also philosophical) for facts to which it knows in advance that philosophy must be inadequate; and the deliberate preference, while philosophizing, to be as abstract as it can, and to leave particulars, with their subtlety, to be disposed of by the concrete man. Beauty, indeed, must be dissected; but the dissecting-room is no place for the living body of her to come in.

This respect for the sacredness of individual likes and dislikes is perhaps Mr. Marshall's most striking feature as an æsthetician. Anything remoter from academic dogmatism cannot be conceived. The beautiful in art or nature is such only because it can give pleasure to somebody. There is not within the field of possible pleasures one tract in which those lie which we call "higher" or "æsthetic," while all outside of these are low and common. All fields of pleasure-getting are within the scope of the æsthetic, provided they befall us in such a way that their after-taste is as agreeable as their first impression. But the revival of a pleasure in our thought need not itself be pleasant, and often does in fact bring with it a consciousness of consequential pain. When this is the case, we do not *judge* the experience as we immediately *felt* it; and non-æsthetic pleasure, or that pleasure which is ephemeral, thus becomes contrasted with æsthetic pleasure, or that which is permanent and unmixed with any source of later pain. The æsthetic value of an experience is thus, for Mr. Marshall, a resultant of its pleasure-giving and pain-giving tendencies in the long run; and any object will have positive æsthetic value (whatever be the *sort* of pleasure which it yields), provided that pleasure be pure and do not pass into its opposite anon. Thus *the exclusion of secondary displeasures*, of pains, whether of restriction or of excess, is one great principle of beauty, *the elimination of ugly elements* is one great line of progress in the different arts. This by itself, however, could lead only to tame correctness, to the "icily regular, splendidly null." Not only the purity thus reached, but positive and vivid pleasantness must characterize the elements that are left, if we are to have a rich effect; and the conditions both of vivid and of permanent pleasantness are thereupon carefully studied by our author, from whose general theory it follows that contrasts, releases of inhibition, and satisfactions of expectancy, width and variety of field, with repetition of elements, and shifting centres of interest, must all be present for the maximum of pleasure to be attained.

The general theory just referred to is that of the physiological conditions of pleasure and pain. Mr. Marshall rejects *in toto* the notion that there may be specific nerves or specific brain-centres for these qualities of consciousness. Since any "content" whatever of consciousness, any sensation, emotion, idea, or volition may be a pleasant experience, and then, the conditions changing, become a painful one (or vice-versa), he prefers to consider pleasure and pain as mere *manners* of experiencing the "content," manners due to modifications in the neural process, whatever it may be, by which the content is brought to our attention. There is no content which under certain circumstances might not come to consciousness in a pleasant, and under other circumstances in a painful, manner. In other words, there is no content which *essentially* is either painful or pleasant. Pleasure and pain are therefore not distinct objects of consciousness, as sensations, relations, emotions, and volitions are; but they are (in Mr. Marshall's decidedly awkward terminology) *quales* of *other* objects. And more than fifty pages are given up to showing that the usual division of consciousness into three primordial kinds, intellection, pleasure-pain feeling, and conation—all coördinate with each other—is incorrect.

Were there separate nerve-tracts to be shown for the three kinds of consciousness in question, the division would be correct, according to our author. But the pleasure-pain feeling has no separate nerve-tracts, and merely follows the temporary state of nutrition of the tracts for intellection and conation. The fact that all pleasures, whether of sensation, thought, or action, are ephemeral, points to something being *used up* in the case of pleasure. This points to *storage;* and the fact that the too long continuance of any experience produces pain points to the storage-account being *overdrawn* in the case of pain. Mr. Marshall's physiological theory accordingly is this: that when the organs involved in any conscious affection respond with unusual efficiency to the stimulus which excites them, we feel pleasure; and when they respond inefficiently, we feel pain. Efficient response is response great in amount; and it is greatest when the surplus stored force in the nerves is greatest. Inefficient response is small response, due to little or no stored force being available. In other words, pleasure is the concomitant of all copious and free discharges of force; displeasure the concomitant of scanty and difficult discharges.

The number of particulars in our experience which this simple conception covers is surprisingly large, and is followed out by Mr. Marshall with a minuteness, both constructive and polemic, which is altogether admirable. He takes so many things into consideration that in a review like this it is quite impossible to give any impression of his scope. The radical point in his treatment, and the point which all later-coming theories will have to emphasize as he does, is the essentially mutable and shifting character of our enjoyments and displeasures. In the twinkling of an eye they are changed, according to the conditions of rest or fatigue of the organs by which we experience them, the whole secret of epicureanism being to catch the proper moment and interval for pure delight. Another point original with Mr. Marshall is that the pleasure of relief from a tedious experience is felt not in the organs whose functions stop, but in *other* organs than those which a moment since were giving us displeasure. These other organs, inhibited until now, start into an activity which we realize with gratification, while the previously taxed organ sinks to rest. The gratification of the new activity is the so-called relief. We think Mr. Marshall much less happy in his account of the "pains of obstruction," which are a class of displeasures as definite as is the class of pleasures of relief. Thwarted or suspended activity leads to craving, and this, says our author, is a pain due to the "gorged condition of the nutritive channels" in the parts whose exercise is inhibited, and in remoter parts upon which these vainly "call for aid." In short, "craving" is due to nutrition "beyond the limits of storage"; but would appear, on these terms, to be a pain whose physiological condition is precisely the reverse of that laid down for pains in Marshall's general law.

In spite of this and other shortcomings, however, we must repeat that no previous writer has given a general formula which covers anything like the same amount of ground. Acquaintance with Mr. Marshall's work will be indispensable to every future student of the subject. His own learning is admirably complete; we cannot name any modern author of consequence of whose writings he has not taken account. The modesty of his tone is also remarkable, considering that his mental temperament is "radical," and that he is fighting for a creation of his own. Apart from its special topic, too, the book is full of shrewd and original psychology. All these qualities render it almost "epoch-making" in the present situation of science. But the definitive value of its teaching is another matter, on which we must confess to some misgivings. First of all, the terms of Marshall's general law, that any nerve-discharge is pleasant when it is greater than that which the stimulus habitually calls forth, are evidently not ultimate. Merely to say that a process exceeds what is habitual is not to give a physical definition of it. Physiologists will certainly not be satisfied with Mr. Marshall's law until they can translate it into their own terms. Only when the habitual comes to signify some determinate form of physiological equilibrium, and the super-habitual another form of process, will they accept it as the expression of a genuine psycho-physic relation. At present, while professing to be physiological, the law is really, they will say, quite "transcendental." An even graver fault, we think, may be imputed to Mr. Marshall: Is not his whole attempt to find a single formula a vicious one? Are the various forms of displeasure of which we are susceptible, rightly to be gathered up under the single name of "pain"? Have such diverse disagreeables as toothache, nausea, nervous anxiety, grief, and the perception of ugliness, anything in common except their common intolerability? And in particular, might not "pain" *par excellence* (the tactile pain of cutting, burning, crushing, and inflammation), and nausea also, well be energies of specific nerves, while the milder and less localized displeasures might be such "*quales*" as Mr. Marshall contends for? The conscious quality is so different in these different cases that mere analogy would naturally lead one to ascribe them to entirely different processes. Is not also the conception of "Æsthetics" far too wide for any profitable treatment in general terms? Have the classically beautiful, the interestingly ingenious, the emotionally exciting, the neatly accurate, the grotesquely unreal, and the humorous, anything in common except that they are *welcome*, and is it likely *a priori* that the welcomeness is in all cases due to the same kind of process being aroused?

Such doubts, and many others, remain to

haunt one after reading Mr. Marshall's book. They show how rude in these matters human thought still is. In science the first things produced are sweeping theories. Then come special inquiries; and finally sweeping theories again. We believe Mr. Marshall's sweeping theory (although worth more than any previous one) to belong to the earlier and ruder kind; and we suspect that real knowledge of pleasure and pain can for some time to come only grow out of humble study of separate and particular effects.

## GEN. JOHN PATERSON.

*The Life of John Paterson*, Major-General in the Revolutionary Army. By his great-grandson Thomas Egleston, LL.D., Professor of Mineralogy and Metallurgy in the School of Mines of Columbia College. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1894.

It seems not a little strange that a Revolutionary hero "so proper and so soldierly" as Maj.-Gen. John Paterson should have been left to wait till the present year for his proper and his soldierly commemoration. Because of this long delay, the soldier with all his merits, and the biographer with all his industry, must needs pay their respective penalties. Materials which might have been used to heighten the soldier's meed of fame and to lighten the task of his biographers were lost in the burning of Gen. Paterson's house in 1809, and have been left to perish elsewhere by slow decay under a lack of the requisite biographical interest in his renown among even his lineal descendants. When in 1876 Lieut.-Gov. Rockwell was called to deliver a centennial address at the town of Lenox, Mass., a town of which Gen. Paterson was perhaps the most distinguished citizen, the orator found that at that date the Revolutionary patriot and soldier "had become one of Massachusetts's lost heroes." It was, indeed, the very meagreness of the knowledge then attainable about him that has led to the study and research which have resulted in the present volume. The author confesses that in all his laborious quest he has found comparatively little which has never been published before, but this little is valuable alike for the light it throws on the character of a well-balanced man, and on the peculiarities of the time in which he acted so long, so unambitiously, and yet so conspicuously. The shortest abstract and the briefest chronicle of Gen. Paterson's life and career will suffice to show that he was a man of merit and of mark in his day and generation.

Born at Farmington, Conn., in 1744, and graduated at Yale College in 1762, he was bred to the profession of law while teaching in the public school at New Britain, Conn. Early in 1774 he removed to Lenox, Mass., was at once elected the clerk of that "Propriety," and was sent as its delegate to the General Court of the colony. A leader in the political agitations of the time, he was a member of the Berkshire Convention of 1774 which protested against the ministerial policy of England, and signed the "Solemn League and Covenant" against all commercial dealings with England so long as the oppressive acts of Parliament should remain in force. He was a member of the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts, which met from time to time in 1774 and 1775. Before the year 1774 ended he had raised a regiment and was commissioned its colonel. Soon after the affairs at Lexington and Concord his regiment was enrolled as a part of the Continental Army. Early in 1776 he was sent with his troop to Canada, but reached our army there in time only to share in its disasters and miseries. After a short service under Gates he joined the army of Washington, took part in the battles of Trenton and Princeton, was made brigadier-general in 1777, was detailed again under Gates and fought in the battles of Saratoga, wintered with Washington at Valley Forge, held the left flank at the battle of Monmouth, commanded at West Point, and, because of his trustworthiness, was left to serve with the army of observation in the Highlands on the Hudson while Washington marched to Yorktown. He was commissioned major-general in 1783. As he was among the first to join, he was among the last to leave the Continental Army. He was one of the founders of the Society of the Cincinnati. As a major-general of the militia of Massachusetts he defended the cause of law and order in Shays's Rebellion. Removing in 1791 to southwestern New York, he was the first judge of Tioga County, its first delegate in the State Legislature, and its chief justice in 1798. He was elected from his district a member of the U. S. House of Representatives in 1802, and served in it for a single term. When the county of Broome was set off from Tioga, he was made chief justice of Broome, and held that office till his death in 1808.

With the exception of Lafayette he was the youngest officer of his rank in the Revolutionary Army. Because of his legal knowledge and his military capacity selected again and again as a member, sometimes as president, of courts-martial, he was a member of the most historical of all the military tribunals of the Revolution—the tribunal which tried and condemned Major André. In his habits he was, says his biographer, diffident and retiring; in his literary tastes, a man of varied accomplishments; as a lawyer he was sound, as a judge he was as just and conscientious in dispensing justice as he had been faithful and efficient in his military career.

The author has, of course, found it difficult to give unity to a volume which is partly biographical, partly historical, and partly genealogical. And there are signs of haste in its compilation. The binder of the book has misplaced the cut which exhibits one of the basreliefs on the battle monument at Freehold, in Monmouth County, N. J., and the author misstates in saying on page 106 that this monument is situated at Hopewell, N. J., where the military council was held which led to the battle at Monmouth. This is, of course, a slip of the pen. It is hardly accurate to say that the resolution of the Continental Congress recommending the colonies to establish new forms of civil government after the royal authority had practically lapsed throughout the continent was passed on the 15th of May, 1776. The resolution was passed on the 10th of May. It was only a preamble to it which was passed five days later. The biographer becomes obscure by being brief when he says that Gen. Paterson, as a member of the Massachusetts Provincial Congress, assembled in its third meeting, "was instructed on the 14th of February, 1775, to bring in a resolution to appoint an agent to go to the Province of Quebec and collect the sentiments of the people there relating to the matters which disturbed the harmony existing between the mother country and her colonies"; that "John Brown was made this agent"; and that "the news which he brought back resulted in the disastrous Canada campaign, which was undertaken under the impression that Canada, like the other colonies, was dissatisfied, and was both likely and willing to join the other colonies in defence of their rights."

The historical facts are that, a month or more before this Congress met, the Massachusetts Provincial Congress of November, 1774, had appointed a committee "to devise means of keeping up a correspondence between this province, Montreal, and Quebec," for the sake of gaining frequent intelligence about the movements in Canada; and persons no less distinguished than John Hancock, Samuel Adams, and Dr. Joseph Warren were made members of this committee. It is true that Gen. Paterson, on the 13th of February, 1775 (not "the 14th of February," as Prof. Egleston writes), was "instructed" to bring in a resolution to appoint an agent to go to the Province of Quebec, but his motion to this effect did not pass. It was recommitted, and he was then instructed to bring in a resolution "empowering the Committee of Correspondence of the Town of Boston to correspond with Quebec, etc., for and in behalf of this province." This resolution was reported and passed on the next day.

It is quite erroneous to suppose that the military operations conducted by the colonies against Canada "resulted" from the news which John Brown sent back to the Boston committee of correspondence. As the place which Canada held in the political and military strategy of the early Revolutionary period seems to be as little understood by Prof. Egleston as it was by Dr. Stillé in his 'Life of Anthony Wayne,' we shall perhaps be pardoned if we seek to set this matter in what seems to us its true light.

Any one familiar with only the speeches of Edmund Burke on the parliamentary taxation which led to the Revolution, will remember that the whole change of ministerial policy in the matter of such taxation dated from the conquest of Canada by Great Britain, and was caused by it. "The first glimmerings of the new colony system began to dawn," Burke tells us, immediately on the close of the war which resulted in the conquest of Canada from the French, with its consequent unification of all the Atlantic colonies under British authority after the Treaty of 1763. At that period, he adds, "the necessity was established of keeping up no less than twenty new regiments, with twenty colonels capable of seats in the House of Commons," not at all because of any further danger from foreign attempts against the peace of the colonies, but simply in order to keep the colonies in subjection to the mother country. Then it was, says Burke, that Townshend began to dazzle the country gentlemen of the House, "great patrons of economy," with "the image of a revenue to be raised in America." The colonists took note of this change, and of the motives which had led to it. William Samuel Johnson, the Colonial Agent of Connecticut, wrote from London to Jonathan Trumbull in June, 1767, that too many of the British rulers at that time "seemed to indulge haughty ideas of empire, and [to think] that America should be made entirely subservient to the dignity, plunder, and general emolument of this country."

The leaders of the American Revolution were well advised of the part which the conquest of Canada had had in precipitating this change of colonial policy. John Adams refers to the fact again and again, not with more clearness than others, but perhaps with a more emphatic iteration. As Canada was designed to be a *point d'appui* for the support of the ministerial policy in asserting British parliamentary supremacy over all the colonies south of it, and as Canada could easily lend itself to the support of such ministerial supremacy because

of its dominating position, and because the Indian tribes of the North and Northwest could be wielded from that position for the intimidation of the provinces southward on the Atlantic border, it was seen at once that as Canada had become the key of the new political and military strategy of Great Britain for purposes of offence, so Canada must be made the key of political and military strategy in the hands of the early Revolutionary leaders for purposes of defence. So clear was this position of Canada, whether for purposes of offence or defence at this juncture, that we find Dr. Samuel Johnson hinting with a caustic sneer in his Tory pamphlet of 1775, 'Taxation no Tyranny,' that the British Ministry might see the refractious colonists brought "at their feet" by restoring Canada to the French (that the colonists "might have an enemy so near them"), and by "encouraging the Indians now and then to plunder a plantation." He recognized this caustic proposal to be a "wild" one, but it was, he said, no wilder than the idea that Americans should not be governed and taxed for Great Britain's benefit, after Great Britain had fought and conquered for their safety from French domination in Canada.

On the 22d of October, 1775, we find Richard Henry Lee writing to Gen. Washington: "Before this reaches you, you will have heard of Col. Allen's unlucky attempt upon Montreal, nor have we from the last accounts much prospect of success from St. John's. The ministerial dependence on Canada is so great that no object can be of greater importance to North America than to defeat them there. It appears to me that we must have that country with us this winter, cost what it will." And a few days later, October 26, 1775, we find Gen. Washington writing to Gen. Schuyler, as he was moving to the support of Gen. Montgomery: "The more I reflect upon the importance of your expedition, the greater is my concern lest it should sink under insuperable difficulties. I look upon the interests and salvation of our bleeding country, in a great degree, to depend upon your success." Moreover, the conquest of Canada was deemed essential to protect the natural right of the New England colonies to the fisheries in the Northeast—a right which had to be protected by stipulation in the Treaty of Peace of 1783, after it had failed to be protected by right of conquest in the Revolutionary war.

How all these strategic and economic reasons in favor of the conquest of Canada were intensified by the passage of the Quebec Bill (a bill which had for its object, as the Continental Congress charged, to substitute the institutes of French customary law for the common law of England, and thereby "to make Canadians proper instruments for assisting in the oppression of such as differ from them in modes of government and faith"), is matter of too common knowledge to call for more than mention. Just as little need we more than mention the difficult and ambiguous rôle which the Revolutionary agitators were called to play when, in their addresses to the people of Canada, they invited friendly coöperation, while in their Address to the people of England they inveighed against the Quebec Bill because, in reëstablishing the Roman Catholic religion in its ancient rights, that bill, they said, had reëstablished a religion "fraught with sanguinary and impious tenets." That the Roman Catholics of Canada could not contain their resentment, and broke out in curses on what they called "a perfidious and double-faced Congress," when they read this address in the translations distributed among them, we may see in the letters of that day (Force's Archives, vol. ii., p. 231). John Brown was far from being always over-sanguine in his reports, whatever he might write to Gov. Trumbull or others. He wrote to the Boston Committee of Correspondence on the 29th of March, 1775, that there was "no prospect of Canada's sending delegates to the Continental Congress." We know from the minutes of the Continental Congress that others than John Brown brought reports from Canada direct to that body. How little John Brown had to do with procuring or even precipitating the campaign against Canada in 1775 and 1776 might have been inferred from the fact that the Continental Congress revived the whole project of "the emancipation of Canada" in 1779, discussed at length with Gen. Washington (through a select committee raised for the purpose) the military combinations which might then be deemed essential to that end, and abandoned the enterprise only with great reluctance, while still pledging themselves to "embrace with alacrity every favorable incident which should facilitate and hasten the freedom and independence of Canada, and her union with these States."

Prof. Egleston gives a whole chapter to the history of Shays's Rebellion and of the part which Gen. Paterson took in its suppression. We entirely concur with the author in holding that the conduct of Paterson was not blameworthy because at one time, in the course of his operations, he promised some of the insurgents that if they would disperse they might remain peaceably at their homes, and, if tried at all, should be tried in their own counties. Gen. Lincoln, the commander-in-chief of the State militia, had promised as much to certain insurgents whom he had paroled, and this proceeding of his was subsequently approved by the State Legislature. Perhaps Gen. Paterson, in the reaction which followed the rebellion, was blamed because he had not lived up to a threat contained in a postscript to one of his letters addressed to Gen. Lincoln from Lanesborough, in which, under date of February 5, 1787, he had said that if he should judge it practicable to attack the insurgents in Berkshire County with a probability of success, he would not "wait the determination of the General Court that they are in a state of rebellion, but would consider them as such and act accordingly." By thundering so loud in the index, he made it a little difficult for himself to defend his lenity, and to show the consistency with which he had practised it on "rebels" who, without his knowing it, had been formally declared such just one day before he launched this menace at them in the despatch to his commander.

We may say, in closing, that Gen. Paterson in one of his letters during the Shays Rebellion uses a word which is new to us. Writing about what seemed to him a better political outlook in the early part of 1787, he says: "I most sincerely congratulate you on the happy prospects which are before us in the *aristocration* of legal and constitutional government." The biographer, too, takes liberty with both history and philology when, in describing the sufferings of our troops in Canada from smallpox in 1776, he uses the word "vaccination" as convertible in meaning and currency with the word "inoculation."

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*The Animal as a Machine and a Prime Motor*, and the Laws of Energetics. By R. H. Thurston. John Wiley & Sons. 1894.

In this little book Prof. Thurston pursues that way of attacking the Second Law of Thermodynamics (or, as he prefers to call it, the Law of Carnot) which is his own. That law is that heat flows from hot bodies to cold, as water runs down hill; so that when bodies are all cooled down to one level of temperature, the heat in them above the absolute zero is no more available to run an engine than is the height of the sea above the centre of the earth available to turn a water-wheel. At one time great ingenuity was expended to discover some exception to the Second Law of Thermodynamics; but the only exception which withstood examination was the hypothesis of Maxwell. Maxwell supposed a diaphragm in a vessel to separate two portions of air; and that in this diaphragm was a little sliding door at which should sit a tiny doorkeeper who should look out for the very fast-moving molecules coming one way and for the very slow-moving ones coming the other way, and open the door for these and for no others. In that way the air on one side would become heated, and that on the other side cooled. It was the first time an advantageous route for science had been found through fairy-land; and when it was further remarked that, by replacing the little door by a lobby with two doors and putting a fan-wheel in the lobby, an engine could be run directly, the analogy to the running of a water-wheel by the gravitational energy of the ocean became striking. Prof. Thurston considers our inability to use the great heat above the absolute zero of ordinary objects to be a shocking waste; and one of the chief purposes of this little book is to adduce evidence that living animals are machines in which the Second Law of Thermodynamics is "evaded." Inasmuch as he says the Law of Carnot "asserts the necessity of waste," and further says this waste does not take place in the living machinery, perhaps "violated" would have been a clearer word than "evaded."

Prof. Thurston certainly succeeds in showing that, accepting extant experiments upon animals (and they are both elaborate and numerous) for what they may be worth, they distinctly point towards some violation of accepted laws of energy. Thus the careful experiments of Hirn showed that more heat by a third part was generated by the human body than the combustion of food would account for. Moreover, when Hirn compared the amount of work a man performed with the reduction of the heat generated while he was at work below what was generated at the same time while he was at rest, he obtained a result which Prof. Thurston argues is contrary to accepted laws of thermodynamics. "The animal system," he says, speaking of it as a motor, "conceals some secrets that science has still to discover." Dr. Pavy's well-known experiment on two pedestrians is also cited to show that "the body as a heat engine is capable, apparently, of performing more work than the food would seem competent to do." Dr. Austin Flint failed to explain from known physical principles the results of his experiments upon the pedestrian Weston in a walk of 310 miles.

Prof. Thurston's conclusion is, not that there is any inaccuracy in the law of the conservation of energy, which rests with him upon metaphysical grounds, but that the Law of Carnot is somehow "evaded." If the mechanical conception of the universe, that all that exists is expressible in terms of mass, space, and time, upon which Helmholtz rested his celebrated enunciation, be accepted, it is known that the "Law of Carnot" follows as a corollary. By the majority of physicists the alternative will be felt to be either, on the

one hand, to suppose that all the observations that have been made upon animals are subject to a common error, due to the same cause, whatever that may be; or, accepting the experimental evidence, to conclude that the law of the conservation of energy is not exactly fulfilled in living animal bodies. The Law of Carnot was enunciated long before the law of the conservation of energy, and, if it be regarded as the assertion that the average motions of the different parts of a system tend to equalize themselves or to approach final ratios, is incontestably quite as certain as the law of energy.

Prof. Langley has recently taught us how one of the great wonders of the animal world —that of the soaring bird—is performed. Now, if we are to take his successful explanation as a model by which to explain other animal marvels, it must be confessed that the way the bird turns this way or that way to take advantage of the lulls and puffs of the wind, is not unlike the opening and shutting of the doors of Maxwell's devils, thus affording some comfort to Prof. Thurston. The book has, at any rate, the merit of calling attention to one of those residual unexplained phenomena in the patient study of which, not in blind denial of them, the progress of science consists.

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*Crumbling Idols.* By Hamlin Garland. Chicago and Cambridge: Stone & Kimball.

In these twelve essays, dealing with art, literature, "and the drama," Mr. Garland recites his credo to whosoever will listen. Its articles have two broad divisions—the renunciation of the past and all its works, and the belief in what is to come out of "the mighty spaces of the West" and its "swarming millions of young men and women." Veritism is the name in which devils are to be cast out, and the artist himself is to be a veritist, to whom the "satyriasic French novelist" will be anathema maranatha no less than the "blind fetishism, timid provincialism, or commercial greed which puts the work of" the masters "above the living, breathing artist." Shakspere, in fact, "lies, sunk and sinking, just as every other human soul sinks into the sand." And, again, "Shakspere, Wordsworth, Dante, Milton, are fading away into mere names—books we should read but seldom do." Yet their spirits have not departed into an unpeopled limbo, for even "the veritist and the impressionist will try to submit gracefully to the method of the iconoclast who shall come when they in their turn are old and sad." These things being so, is it a sign of narrow consistency if the reader ask, Why, then, say elsewhere that "the surest way to write for all time is to embody the present in the finest form with the highest sincerity and with the frankest truthfulness"?

"Contemporaneousness," one finds, is the white robe of Mr. Garland's artistic faith, and mediocrity its palm branch, for "our national literature will come to its fulness when the common American rises spontaneously to the expression of his concept of life," and in that day "there will be no overtopping personalities in art," nor ever again "will any city dominate American literature." Instead, the real novelist of the elect sections "is walking behind the plough or trudging to school in these splendid potential environments," while "the novel of the slums must be written by one who has played there as a child, and taken part in all its amusements; not out of curiosity, but out of pleasure-seeking." And finally, from the "interior spaces" of the West comes the confession, "We propose to discard your nipping accent, your nice phrases, your balanced sentences, and your neat proprieties inherited from the eighteenth century. Our speech is to be as individual as our view of life."

Mr. Garland has written both prose and verse wherewith to illuminate his creed, and by them it should be judged no less than by its naked enunciation. The practice of most men is notoriously better than the worst of their dogmas, and Mr. Garland will not be found an exception to the rule. If one might venture to advise so bold and confident a spirit, it would be to make, in the name of the breadth he now and again eloquently advocates, yet another essay of the culture at present pronounced by him sterile, false, and dying.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Academy Architecture. 1894. Scribners. $2.
Bates, Arlo. The Torch-Bearers. Boston: Roberts Bros. 50 cents.
Clark, J. W. Libraries in the Medieval and Renaissance Periods. Macmillan. $1.
Dunning, Rev. A. E. Congregationalists in America. J. A. Hill & Co. $2.75.
Emmet, W. Le R. Alternating Current Wiring and Distribution. The *Electrical Engineer*.
Forney, M. N. Political Reform by the Representation of Minorities. The Author.
Gardner, Sarah M. H. Quaker Idyls. Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.
Hobson, J. A. The Evolution of Modern Capitalism. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XXXIX. Morehead—Myles. Macmillan. $3.75.
McCrackan, W. D. Romance Switzerland. Teutonic Switzerland. 2 vols. Boston: Joseph Knight Co.
Nitti, F. S. Population and the Social System. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
O'Neill, Moira. An Easter Vacation. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 26, 1894.*

## The Week.

THE letter of President Cleveland to Chairman Wilson was both timely and just. Mr. Cleveland had a perfect right to send it to Mr. Wilson. Mr. Wilson had an equal right to read it in the House or to send it to the clerk's desk to be read if the House was willing. The Senators, each and all, have the equal right to vote for or against the President's views. This is a comprehensive statement of the case, and it cannot be considered as alarming in any point of view. Nor can it be said that "undue pressure" has been brought to bear on Senators by the President. Our history does not show the existence of danger to liberty in that quarter. As a matter of fact, the sayings of a President are of little avail with Senators or Representatives unless those sayings find a response among the constituencies. Probably Mr. Cleveland's desire and intention were to awaken such a response, and he has succeeded in doing so.

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Senator Gorman has "freed his mind," and it is to be hoped that he feels better for it. Certainly he has done no harm to the cause of tariff reform by his passionate outburst of Monday against Mr. Cleveland. The Maryland Senator deceives himself greatly if he supposes that the people are going to pay much attention to a controversy as to the President's attitude toward the forced compromises in the tariff bill while the matter was pending in the upper branch of Congress. The country has studied the career of Grover Cleveland for a dozen years with the utmost care, and long since made up its mind in regard to him. The one charge which it is most ridiculous to bring against the President is that of disingenuousness, duplicity, and deceit. It is a mere waste of words for Gorman to try to convince the public that Cleveland deliberately misled Senators as to his attitude. He might as well set out to demonstrate that he himself is a statesman whose sole aim has always been the public interest.

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There is no higher authority on constitutional law in the United States than Judge Cooley of Michigan, and President Cleveland may well feel proud to receive an expression of the "unqualified satisfaction" which he feels with every step taken by the executive in vindication of the national authority during the recent crisis. Judge Cooley is of the opinion that "a great and valuable lesson in constitutional construction has been settled for all time." There can be no dissent from this view. The President's course has been formally endorsed by each branch of Congress almost unanimously, and it has been sustained by an overwhelming majority of the people in every part of the country. It was practically a new issue in the administration of the national government, and the executive was called upon for a decision as to the proper construction of the Constitution. It is fortunate for the future of the United States not only that Mr. Cleveland's decision was right, but that it has been promptly and universally accepted as right. As Judge Cooley says, a great issue has been "settled for all time."

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An extraordinary lot of jargon comes from the mouth of Gov. Hogg of Texas, indicating that Senator Gordon, as the leader of the Loyal Confederate Legion, ought to have an eye on him. According to the *World's* report of a militia review at Austin last week, the Governor was in very low spirits as to the future of the nation. President Cleveland's action in sending troops to Chicago without the sanction of Gov. Altgeld had gone far, he thought, towards the dismemberment of the Union. We were on the eve of a revolution if such things should go on. "In that event," he said, "I want to see Texas fall on her feet, and live under her old Constitution of 1836 as a republic." There are several obstacles to this dénouement. One is, that General Gordon, with his army of Confederate veterans larger than Lee ever commanded, would march to Texas and bring the Lone Star back to the place where she belongs and perhaps hang Governor Hogg on a sour-apple tree. Another is, that the Texans themselves don't want to "fall on their feet and live under the old Constitution of 1836." They want to stand on their feet and live in the American Union, whether President Cleveland sends troops to Chicago or whether he sends them to Austin —and he would as soon send them to the latter city as to the former.

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All the Hoggs in Texas are not Governors. One of them is a professor, and he introduced resolutions at the recent State Teachers' Association calling for a systematic course of instruction in the schools "which shall embrace not only a broader patriotism, but a more extended moral instruction, especially in regard to the rights and duties of citizenship, the right of property, the security and sacredness of human life." He rightly maintained that the ideas on these subjects which got into the heads of the 25,000,000 school-children of this country would come out when they became citizens, and that if they are to disapprove of the open defiance of the rights and security of property, their education on the subject cannot begin too early. His resolutions were not adopted, but were commended to the attention of the National Educational Association. Superintendent Hogg of Fort Worth seems to be right on the trail of Gov. Hogg of Austin.

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The latest batch of riotous boycotters to be indicted at Chicago were released on bail, and their bail-bonds were signed by city officials. This is but one more proof of the sympathy of the city authorities with the violent strikers. It is no wonder that the power of the mob was so desperate in a city so governed. The anarchist vote is still thought to be worth angling for in Chicago. We shall see men running for city offices at the next election on a platform of the city for strikers, no troops, and death to employers who will not arbitrate. There is no likelihood of success on such a platform, any more than there was in the attempt to beat Judge Gary for having tried and condemned the Haymarket anarchists. The sentiment of the city is no doubt overwhelmingly on the side of law and order. But the strikers and the agitators make so much more noise than the respectable folks that your stupid politician runs after the rioters, and then is surprised when the people read the riot act to him as well as to them.

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"President" Debs has issued his proclamation to the people of the United States urging them not to ride in Pullman cars. The object of this is twofold: first, to carry out the boycott that Debs attempted to enforce but could not; second, to express the sympathy of the American people for rioters and incendiaries, law-breakers, and train-wreckers. It is safe to predict that so long as Debs's desperadoes are attacking trains and turning switches and loosening rails, those people who must travel will ride in Pullman cars, because they are 50 per cent. stronger and safer than ordinary cars. Apart from this consideration, it is quite certain that all but the merest fraction of those who can afford to ride in Pullman cars will do so to show their abhorrence of mobs, if for no other reason. The outburst of approval of President Cleveland's action in sending troops to Chicago to suppress Debs and raise his blockade, is a sure sign that the only boycott which meets public sympathy is that which the railroads are applying to the villains who are throwing stones through car windows, and sawing bridge timbers, and displacing rails and switches.

One thing about the Pullman situation that seems to stick in the crops of a great many people is the fact that the company did not lower rents when it was forced to lower wages. Mr. Pullman's statement of facts in regard to the car-building business—a statement fully confirmed by his competitors—has stilled fault-finding on the score of reduced wages. The men earned less, but the company earned nothing. That is admitted; but people say, "Yes, but the company is not only a car-builder, it is a landlord as well, and should have lowered rents when it did wages." Now, what are the facts? About two-thirds of the Pullman employees do not live in the company's houses at all. They have homes in Roseland and other adjoining places. Rents there are as high as in Pullman, accommodations and conveniences considered. So if the company had lowered the rent of the one-third of the employees on the premises, it would have been bound, in justice, to make an equivalent present to the other two-thirds. Then what would the neighboring landlords have said at such a cutting under the ruling rentals? They would have had a grievance, and in accordance with strict "ethical concepts" would have had a just claim on the Pullman Company for a sum equal to their diminished receipts. In short, there would have been no end to the absurdities and injustices which would have resulted from any such attempt to make up to the men in rent what they were losing in wages. There would have been just as much reason in asking the local butcher or grocer or clothier to knock off one-quarter of his prices on account of a reduction in wages. When we add the fact that no workman was compelled to stay in Pullman, and that the company was actually $70,000 behindhand in rents due from employees, we see how little there is in the whole contention.

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The statement of the law relating to strikes, made on Wednesday week at Indianapolis by Judge Baker of the United States Court, deserves general attention. The case before him was that of a striker accused of contempt of court in violating an injunction, and Judge Baker laid it down flatly that it was contempt of court for any body of men to engage in a combination "to strike and to interfere with anybody else who goes to work, and to denounce them as scabs." A request under such circumstances, Judge Baker said, was equivalent to a demand, and he added, with great plainness and vigor:

> "If in the night time some highwayman should step up and say, 'Please give me your purse; I will thank you to do it,' notwithstanding the politeness of his language, I should understand it as a threat. And so when a member of a strike committee, with an angry mob behind him of strikers, clothed with authority, should say to some other man in the employ of the road: 'Please, now, don't you think you ought to come out?' the court understands it as a threat. It is the highwayman's politeness; it means that life will be made miserable for him if he refuses, that they will do what they did out here at Fontanel—break switch-locks, and hurl innocent men to death. That is what it means. They talk about being peaceable. Every one that has any sense at all knows that a strike would not amount to anything unless they follow it out by violence. They know that if they would do what they have a right to do, decently and orderly, go about their business and leave the employees alone, a strike would not amount to anything. They know it would absolutely fail."

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These remarks of Judge Baker were apparently *obiter dicta*, and the question raised is of such far-reaching importance that it will unquestionably be carried to the Supreme Court of the United States for final decision. But it is greatly to be desired that the precise point involved should be kept free from all confusing elements, and that the attention of the public should be fixed upon it. The question is not of the right to strike; that, if not conceded, is at least not in issue. It is not of the right to combine to strike, although that question will require thorough consideration. The true question is, how far a striker may go in preventing his former employer from hiring another man to take his place, and how far a combination of strikers may proceed in the same direction. From another point of view, and altogether the higher one, the question is whether or no a man desiring to work shall be protected by the law against the threats and the violence of men who desire that he should not work. We hear much longing expressed for "industrial peace." It is upon the answer to this question given by the Supreme Court of the United States that industrial peace depends.

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Judge Baker's decision in the case of the Lake Erie and Western Railroad Company vs. Bailey is the most comprehensive and exact statement of the rights of workingmen and the paramount rights of society that the labor troubles have given rise to. It stands in respect of judicial opinions on the same plane with Senator Davis's speech in public discussion. It is replete with sympathy for the poor man, but firm in its maintenance of the right of the state to exist. Society cannot exist unless the right of every man to labor and to enjoy the fruit of his labor is protected and upheld. "If society were overthrown," says Judge Baker, "and men turned back into conditions of anarchy, as they were in large measure during the dark ages, when power and force made right, the condition of the laboring man would not be bettered. If such were the condition of society, the man or the men with great intellectual power and great wealth would become the masters of the laboring classes, as in the dark ages, and the laborer would be little better than a slave." An assault upon life or property committed by members of a labor organization, he affirms, is just as much a violation of law, both human and divine, as one committed by a single individual against a traveller on the highway. "If they compel submission, it is robbery, because whoever compels me, by force or terrorism, to give up one dime of my money, or one dime's worth of my property, is equally guilty, whether it be the man who meets me on the street corner in the night time, or an organized band of strikers who take possession of my property and deprive me of its use."

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But that is not the worst of it, says the judge. These combinations teach disregard and contempt of all law:

> "They make people think that human rights are of no value. They teach the fantastic and monstrous doctrine that a man who is hired to labor, and is paid for his work, has some sort of equitable right in the property of his employer, together with a right of perpetual employment. It has been said on the floor of the United States Senate that the laborer has a sort of equitable lien on the property of the man for whom he works, whose money bought the property, together with the right of perpetual employment. It may do for men that are reckless of the welfare of human society—who care nothing for its peace and good order—to imperil life, property, and liberty, and the perpetuity of our institutions by teaching such doctrines; but the judge who tolerates it ought to be stripped of his gown and be driven from the sacred temple of justice."

Truer words were never spoken from the bench.

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Congress has been humoring "Labor" by passing what seemed to be a harmless sort of act, but there is already trouble about the new law. It provides that the first Monday in September, "being the day celebrated as labor's holiday," shall hereafter be a legal public holiday "in the same manner as Christmas, the first day of January, the 22d of February, and the 30th day of May are now made by law public holidays." In the first place, there is no act of Congress under which the days just mentioned are public holidays; they are made such by State laws. In the second place, the new law does not make it clear whether Congress intended it to apply to the District of Columbia alone or to the whole country. In the third place, the first Monday of September is not universally "the day celebrated as labor's holiday." The second State in the Union observes the first Saturday of September; and if the act just passed is of national application, Pennsylvania will have two labor holidays in the same week. The bill appears to have slipped through Congress without much notice, as a harmless sop to "Labor," but it will be necessary to pass another law to clear up the uncertainty and confusion caused by its hasty enactment.

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The conduct of the Senate in insisting upon increasing the appropriation for the Department of Agriculture against

the recommendation of Secretary Morton, is as unprincipled as it is indefensible. Secretary Morton has distinguished himself by effecting very great economies in the administration of his department, in accordance with the principles and professions of the Democratic party, and he has the mortification of seeing his labors nullified by a mongrel majority of Populists, Republicans, and recreant Democrats, who propose to compel him to devote a million dollars to the extirpation of a single weed. The attitude of the Populist Senators is especially noteworthy as showing the insincerity of their professions of anxiety to relieve the burdens of the common people. The House of Representatives may with the greatest propriety make a vigorous fight upon this item.

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The passage by the House of the resolution for a constitutional amendment providing that Senators shall be elected by the people was generally expected, but it is universally admitted that the matter will be shelved in the other branch. There will be little protest against such action by the Senate, for public sentiment has not yet become pronounced in favor of the change. The chief argument urged for the amendment is the claim that legislatures are subject to corruption and often to bad influences, and Congressman Everett of Massachusetts made a forcible reply to this when he said:

"Who choose the legislatures, Mr. Speaker? Where do those legislatures come from? They come from the people; they come from the very ones to whom you wish to intrust the election of Senators. I believe in the people; but I believe that if there is corruption in the legislatures, it must be because there are weak spots somewhere in the people that lead to this corruption. If there is corruption showing itself in the elections of the legislatures which choose the Senators, that corruption will show itself sooner or later in the popular vote."

When one sees a Peffer in the Senate, it is natural to think that the blame must lie in the method of choice; but when we find that the popular vote gave the same state a Lewelling for Governor, we perceive that there is no assurance of obtaining statesmen by any device.

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Poor Secretary Gresham has done it again. After having so many times incurred the honest scorn of the newspaper Jingoes, he has now tried to please them by "reversing himself" and taking the nations by the ears in the heroic Blaine fashion, but only to find himself scorned and flouted worse than ever. To be sure, the basis for the scorn seems rather crumbly on investigation. He had grossly insulted Japan, it was clear, but the Japanese minister denies it, and says that he and his Government are well pleased with the course of the Administration in the Corean affair. This may be Oriental duplicity, however. It has that air. Other terrible features of the story look more kindly on examination. When the whole correspondence is published, the able editors may be the ones to have to reverse themselves. But that will not help Mr. Gresham. Reversed or going ahead, they are always able to make out that he is a blunderer and an ignoramus and a no-account American. He should have known better than to meddle with Corea. We read that a Japanese empress named Jingo attempted the conquest of Corea in the sixteenth century. Naturally her American descendants are touchy on that subject.

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There is much interesting reading for the friends of liberty in Hawaii in the record of the proceedings of the Constitutional Convention for the day when it was decided to appoint a President for six years. A few timid souls objected. Delegate Emmeluth thought the convention had no right to appoint a President. Minister Damon said that to appoint a President in a convention called for another purpose "looked too much like a sharp move." Delegate Kahaulelio observed that it seemed as though "in Honolulu the people could not trust their representatives." Counsellor Smith favored going through the form of a popular election, on the ground that it would "look better abroad." But all these absurd views had no weight beside the argument set forth by Councillor Brown. Said he: "We have got things now in our own hands. Shall we loosen our hold in the slightest degree? We never know in this country what politics will bring forth. I advise holding on to what we are sure of, and taking no chances of losing it." He was strongly supported by Delegate Robertson, who pointed out what an "enormous temptation" it would be to the royalists to try to carry the election, if one were weakly conceded. He, too, thought it "better to take no chances." Delegate Vivas said that, with action like that, a fight would come sooner or later, as "stable government was not a possibility as long as such oligarchical proceedings were tolerated." But twenty-seven out of the thirty-six delegates decided to take no chances, regardless of how it would look abroad. President Dole himself, much to his credit, protested against the action, and affirmed that the convention "could not constitutionally appoint a President." But he accepted the office, nevertheless, and thus presents the curious spectacle of a President who confesses that he has no constitutional warrant to his title.

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These deep mysteries of Hawaiian representative institutions we have in vain asked their official champions in this country to expound. They remain silent, but we get the needed light from a man on the spot. One of the truest and most forward patriots now in Hawaii, Mr. W. N. Armstrong, gives the true constitutional view of the situation in an article printed in the *Hawaiian Gazette* of June 15. He shows how "the necessities of the case demand an uncommonly strong central government with very large powers in the hands of a few," and then adds, with a noble disregard of how it will look abroad:

"This proposal is not 'democratic,' but is based on the necessities of the case. If we were here alone, very little government would be quite sufficient, because the true Anglo-Saxon does not require much government; each man rules himself. It must be distinctly understood that, besides ruling themselves, the whites must create a form of government through which they can rule natives, Chinese, Japanese, and Portuguese, in order to prevent being 'snowed under.' That is, we need two distinct forms of government made up into one form; one for ourselves and one for aliens, who outnumber us. That which may be quite sufficient for us, would probably be utterly insufficient for them if we wish to keep control."

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A recent article by M. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu in the *Journal des Débats* is devoted to the "homestead." This word is now often heard in political discussions in France, and it seems that in their rather desperate struggles to do something to quiet social discontent, the French politicians have grasped at it as suggesting an American institution which they might utilize. M. Leroy-Beaulieu considers the matter with his usual ability, and points out that, taking the word in the sense in which it is used in the statutes granting Government lands to actual settlers, the institution would be in France an impossibility. He then examines the "homestead exemption" acts of the several States, and shows how completely they have failed to accomplish their purpose. They have had no effect whatever in fixing families to the soil, in making population permanent, in causing the transmission of property from father to son. Nor has the true purpose of this legislation—the protection of the wife and infant children—been attained. The power to encumber and to alienate being retained, the exemption act becomes utterly ineffective. It is said that in Seneca County, in the State of New York, there were forty declarations of "homestead exemption" within the two years following the passage of the act, about 1850; since which time there has not been a single one. As M. Leroy-Beaulieu says, it is idle to discuss the policy of trying an experiment in France which has so completely failed in this country; besides which, there are conditions in French institutions which would make the scheme incongruous. We must confess that it is rather surprising that the plan of rendering small homesteads actually inalienable has not received more attention in this country. It would be to a certain extent a return to mediæval conditions; but then, trade-unions are mediæval institutions, and they have been enthusiastically advocated by some modern reformers.

*A WASHINGTONIAN PRECEDENT.*

In the debate on Monday, Senator Gorman appealed to the authority of George Washington to shield the Senate against what he called executive dictation. George Washington's example is better authority than Senator Gorman's interpretation of his words. What Washington did is of more consequence than what Gorman said. We therefore propose to examine the record of Washington's first term of office, and of the first Senate of the United States, in order to see how far Mr. Gorman is justified in his appeal to history.

It will be useful, as a preliminary step, to ascertain what the Constitution says about the duties of the President towards public measures. Article 2, section 3, says:

"He shall, from time to time, give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient."

This does not restrict the President to an annual message. He can send messages every day of the session if he likes. He is not restricted to general principles. He can go into details to any extent. He is not limited in any way whatever either as to time or as to form or manner of communication. He can make his communications either in writing or in person. It is customary now for the President to communicate his views in writing in all cases, but that was clearly not the original conception or intention. Washington himself presided over the convention that framed the Constitution. His name is the first one appended to it. He was the first President elected under it. The Senate which sat during his first Presidential term contained eleven members of the Constitutional Convention. What they did not know about the spirit and meaning of that instrument we shall not be likely to learn from Arthur P. Gorman at the present time.

The outrage committed by President Cleveland within a few days past consists in writing a letter to the Hon. W. L. Wilson, a member of the House of Representatives, which that gentleman obtained leave to make public. The letter dealt with certain details of the tariff bill and gave the President's views concerning the same. Is there anything harmful in that? The Constitution says that he shall recommend such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient. In this particular case he recommended them to the chairman of the House committee on ways and means—a very fit person to receive a communication of this sort. He might have sent the same letter, without the change of a syllable, to either branch of Congress or to both. If he had gone to the Senate in person and taken the Vice-President's chair and told the Senators all that he told Mr. Wilson, and then had waited to see them vote, he would have done no more than Washington did in the month of August, 1789, without exciting unfavorable comment among members who had sat with him in the Constitutional Convention. But if Mr. Cleveland had done this, Mr. Gorman and Mr. Vest and several other great constitutional lawyers would have been petrified with amazement and indignation.

The narrative of Washington's action in the case referred to is found in the diary of Senator Maclay of Pennsylvania, who kept a record of the proceedings of the first session, when that body sat with closed doors. Congress was then sitting in New York. On the 22d of August, 1789, President Washington, having a communication to make to the Senate concerning the Cherokee Indians, went to the Senate Chamber in company with Gen. Knox, secretary of war; the Vice-President, John Adams, vacated his chair and President Washington took it. He told the Senate what he had come for, and said that he had brought Gen. Knox along because he knew all about the business. The Indians had complained of harsh treatment by the people of North Carolina. The papers in Gen. Knox's hands would explain the situation more fully. Then the President handed a treaty of seven articles to the Vice-President and asked him to read it. He did so. There was so much noise in the street from passing carriages that the Senators could not hear it. So the Vice-President went back to the beginning and read the first article again and immediately put it to a vote. Hereupon Mr. Maclay suggested that, as the subject was of some importance, he would like to have the accompanying papers in Gen. Knox's hands read also. Here, says Mr. Maclay:

"I cast an eye at the President of the United States. I saw that he wore an aspect of stern displeasure."

The first article of the treaty was postponed, then the second, and then the third. Finally, a motion was made and carried that the whole subject be postponed till the following Monday. Then, says Mr. Maclay:

"As I sat down, the President of the United States started up in a violent fret. "'*This defeats every purpose of my coming here*,' were the first words that he said."

The whole story will be found in pages 122-125 of Mr. Maclay's book, and we commend it to the serious attention of Mr. Gorman and the other great constitutional lawyers who are impressed with the teachings of Washington, and are alarmed for the independence of the Senate.

*PLAYTHING LABOR COMMISSIONS.*

The strike now being over but for the sporadic bandits who keep on wrecking trains, it appears that the President will soon appoint the promised commission to investigate it, or "sit on the corpse." A common impression is that this commission is going to arbitrate something or other, or at least to offer to do so. This is because the law under which it is to act is known as the arbitration law of October 1, 1888. But the appointment of the commission is provided for in sections 6 to 11 of that statute, which were meant to cover a case like the present, where both parties to a "difference" will not agree to submit to arbitration. In such event a commission may be named by the President, "either upon his own motion or upon the application of one of the parties," to "examine the causes of the controversy, the conditions accompanying and the best means of adjusting it." The appointees have no power to decide or arbitrate anything, but shall report to the President and to Congress, and thereupon their "services [at $10 a day] shall cease."

From all this it is clear that all we shall get out of the inquiry will be a huge Government report which nobody will read, which will settle nothing and satisfy nobody. A striking example of the futility of such Government commissions is afforded by the recent bringing to a close of the labors of the English Royal Commission on Labor. Appointed by Lord Salisbury in 1891, it has taken testimony from all sorts and conditions of men and has sought contributions from the ends of the earth, with the result of having filled sixty-five blue-books, spent $250,000, and accomplished absolutely nothing. Some of the volumes and reports contain instructive facts and views, but they were all accessible beforehand. Many of them are loaded down with fantastic opinions and wild theories of cranks and revolutionaries, who were delighted at the chance to get into print at Government expense, but who are no more edifying there than when mouthing at street-corners or in socialist mass-meetings. By sound economists and by agitators alike, the commission is condemned as a gigantic failure.

Yet there is nothing more popular just now than commissions to investigate labor or silver. A Dutch commission on labor has been sitting since 1890, and has just published its twentieth volume. It would seem as if the design were to crush out all rational interest in the investigation. Men will say: "If we've got to read those thousands of pages before knowing the merits of the labor question, let us die in happy ignorance." A mere epitomized index to the English commission's publications fills more than 200 pages. What a warning that is to mortals to leave hope behind if they enter there! Yet the demand for commissions survives even such horrible examples. As far as the European governments are concerned, the principle

on which they agree to name a commission on labor or silver has been well described by the German economist Bamberger. He said that Caprivi's latest silver commission was very much like the advice of a physician to a hopeless invalid to go to the south of France: it interested the patient for a while, though it did him no good whatever, and relieved the physician. Lord Salisbury was hard beset by the Radicals in 1891. They wanted laws on wages and strikes and arbitration and heaven knows what. "No," said his lordship gravely, "I can't commit the Government to such measures just now, but I'll give you a labor commission." Thereupon there was great rejoicing in labor circles. Something was going to be done at last. Even the Tories saw that things could not go on as they were much longer. Well, the Labor Commission has come and gone, and things do go on as they did, and will continue to do so in spite of the sixty-five blue-books. Meanwhile, the patient has had something to occupy his mind for three years, and the physician has had a pleasant vacation.

For the complaining workingmen, on the other hand, a labor commission is a good deal like a plaything. It gives their leaders a splendid chance to air their views and get a respectful hearing from grave investigators, and be bound up and buried at Government expense. They will have nothing new to say to the Chicago commission. They will state their grievances and their ideas of what ought to be done, and then the Pullman people and the railway managers will give their side of the case and say what cannot be done, and then all will be printed and turned over to Congress, and nobody the wiser or the better. If the workingmen are pleased with that sort of thing, they are welcome to it. All we can say is, they are easily pleased. Erasmus Darwin's little boy used to get so tired half-way round the park that he could not possibly walk another step, and then his father would give him his cane to ride home, and he would gallop off in delight. If the strikers can be sent back to work equally happy with their commission, it is certainly wise to give it to them. But that it will ever prove any thing more than an expensive plaything there is no reasonable prospect.

### *THE NEW THEORIES OF WAGES.*

THE boycott and the sympathetic strike were not the only institutions that were badly damaged during the recent disturbances at Chicago. Anarchy in general received a blow more than sufficient to make up for the encouragement recently given it by Gov. Altgeld's pardons, and socialistic views and tendencies were severely nipped by public opinion. The position taken by the "ethical school" of political economists in regard to wages has had a great deal more to do than is commonly supposed with arousing discontent among wage-workers, and it is interesting to see how untenable this position becomes when examined in the light of recent events.

The gist of what used to be known as the "wages-fund theory" was that wages were paid out of previously accumulated capital. It was further laid down that, at any particular time, the amount of capital intended to be applied to the payment of wages was a fixed quantity. It followed from this that whatever tended to increase the amount of capital applicable in this manner was a good thing for those who earned their living by selling their labor. Provided their numbers did not increase in the same proportion as capital, their wages necessarily would increase. It was also a corollary that whatever induced people to devote a larger part of their wealth to productive enterprises, was advantageous to the working-classes. The expectation of profit, therefore, was the mother of wages.

When the "ethical school" took hold of political economy, the first thing they attacked was the wages-fund theory, and they succeeded, according to their statements, in "exploding" it. It was too mathematical in character for sentimental purposes. They said that all the theory amounted to was the identical proposition that with a certain dividend and a certain divisor you will get a certain quotient. Instead of this dry and heartless way of looking at things, they proposed to establish an "industrial partnership" between the workman and the master, in which the profits were to be divided in a more equitable manner than of old. The scientific basis assumed for this partnership was found in the doctrine that the workman's wages came out of the product of his industry. Thus, if a man was hired to build a boat, a certain portion of the boat, as fast as it was constructed, became ethically his, as the embodiment of his labor. In other words, workmen were rightfully entitled to a share in the profits of their labor; and when this doctrine became diffused among them—which it naturally did with great rapidity—they at once felt that they were suffering great injustice because this share was not larger.

The weak spot in the new theory was always the possibility of there being no profits, and we have never been able to discover that the ethical professors were willing to explain how this difficulty could be overcome. But the strike of the Pullman workmen throws the whole matter into the clearest light. The Pullman Company asserted positively that it was making no profits at all, even after it had reduced wages, and that therefore it would not raise wages. But the workmen said that that made no difference; that if the company could not pay wages out of its future profits, it must pay them out of its past profits. These profits had either been fixed in the business or had been distributed to stockholders as dividends; but that did not affect the demands of the workmen. Wages, they had been told, came out of profits, and they no doubt thought it immaterial whether these were present, past, or future.

In this, it must be admitted, the workmen exceeded their instructions; but this only makes it clearer how impracticable the theory of those instructions was. Just so soon as any strain comes, men naturally fly back to what is not only the common-sense view, but also the actual and necessary fact, that wages are paid out of accumulated capital. No doubt wages are paid because the capitalist expects to make a profit by paying them; but they must be paid in advance of the profit—before it is certain that any profit will be made, or, if any, how much; and they remain paid although the whole capital is lost. They are sure; profit is contingent. It is because of this that profits require to seem large in order to tempt capitalists to make investments. They know that they may have to expend large sums in wages before they get any return, and that perhaps they may never get any return. Into such a partnership as this workmen cannot enter, although it may be for the interest of the capitalist to share the profits with them, when he makes any.

The "ethical" theory thus crumbles away when it is put to the test of experience. It would require that the employees of the Pullman Company should now work for nothing, for that would be about their share of the present profits of the concern. On the other hand, if the sounder theory of wages is adopted, everything is made to depend upon the accumulation of wealth and the expectation of profit, for the expectation of profit leads to the competition of employers for the services of laborers, and the possession of wealth makes this competition effective. The present condition of business is sufficient to make the folly of threatening investors and denouncing capitalists apparent. No better plan for keeping wages low can be devised than to assure the owners of wealth that, if they invest it, the control of it shall be taken out of their hands, and the proportion of it which they shall pay in wages be determined by other people.

### *CLUBS WITHIN THE CHURCHES.*

NO development of church life within the past ten years has been more striking than the rise and prominence of what may be called clubs within the churches. The Christian Endeavorers, with their gigantic annual meetings and membership wide as the world, are just now the most conspicuous organiza-

tion of the kind, but there are many others. A little hand-book lately printed by the *Congregationalist* gives a long list of church associations for men and boys, running all the way from the Young Men's Christian Association, founded fifty years ago, to the "Knighthood of King Arthur," organized only last year. The public is beginning to hear a good deal of the "Boys' Brigade," a church organization about four years old in this country, but already numbering 10,000 members. Then there are the well-known Episcopal "Brotherhood of St. Andrew," "Boys' Clubs," and "Men's Clubs," the "Men's Sunday Evening Clubs," and various others.

Of course, the obvious intent and main avowed purpose of these clubs is religious. They are organized as auxiliary to regular church work. "The Men's Sunday Evening Club," for example, was got up to help clergymen solve the distressing problem of the Sunday evening service. By having a club take charge of the service, and devise special programmes, and give particular attention to music, and induce the pastor to agree to preach short sermons, gratifying results have followed in certain churches, for a time at least. Others are more frankly social. Thus, the object of one "men's club" is said to be a monthly meeting "of the nature of smoke talks without the smoke." But this is an extreme case, it must be admitted, and most of the clubs in the list exist avowedly for the purpose of doing some kind of religious work in connection with the church in which they are established.

Yet there appears to be little doubt that their success and increasing members are due to causes not directly and explicitly religious. Novelty is the main charm in many of them, and no doubt some will disappear, as their predecessors did, after this attraction has worn away. To go to church or prayer-meeting simply may seem a stupid affair to many a young person who may be quite fascinated, for the time at any rate, by wearing a badge and belonging to a society with a mysterious set of initials. Doubtless many a boy is lured into church or Sunday-school by the uniform and military drill and summer encampments of the "Boys' Brigade," whom it would have been hard to catch by any of the staid old forms of public worship. But it is the social element which undoubtedly gives these organizations within the churches their great hold. They are peculiarly strong in country churches, and it is in country places that the social influence of the church is most felt and appreciated, and, we sincerely believe, needed. Nothing is more depressing about the decay of churches in New England hill towns than the corresponding decay of the social intercourse which once went hand in hand with the life of the churches. If the new church clubs can do what the old theology cannot any longer, and develop the social side of life in the very place where it most of all needs cultivating, it is no wonder that they are popular or are encouraged.

The deeper relations of such organizations, whether to the church or to society in general, invite a more thorough discussion than we can give here. Some persons see in them a perilous spread of the mania for organization, which, in the industrial sphere, has wrought so much evil, substituting the tyranny of the majority or of a few skilled leaders for the independent judgment of the individual. Clearer, perhaps, is the insidious danger to the Church herself—the historical Church, we mean a fountain of authority and channel of divine grace. There is no telling what these organizations which she is now warming in her bosom will do to her when they get their growth. After the "smoke talk without the smoke" may come the preaching service without the sermon. Indeed, the tendency at present decidedly is to let the smoke in and crowd the sermon out. The "Men's Sunday Evening Club" already insists upon a "short sermon." From that the step is not a long one to such an attraction as we recently saw advertised in the notice of an evening service in a country town, "Sermon omitted." That step taken, could the morning sermon long escape assault? Seriously, the teaching, authoritative function of the Church seems menaced by these clubs which are usurping so much of her time and strength; just as, on the other hand, her very welcome of their aid is a sign that she feels her grasp upon the affection and the conscience of men to be loosening. Meanwhile, there is no denying the extent of their power over the young people of the modern church. In the main they are doubtless liberalizing in their effect, and do much for the social life of those whom they most attract.

## FRANKLIN'S "EXPLANATORY REMARKS."—I.

BROOKLYN, July 21, 1894.

WHEN preparing my "Bibliography of Franklin" some years ago, I spent much time trying to unravel a sentence in a letter of Joseph Galloway's to William Franklin, dated March 30, 1764, in which he stated: "I enclose a Copy of your worthy Father's Remarks on our Assembly Resolves. No answer has yet been attempted by the Proprietary Faction, who seem much depressed."

A careful search failed to find these "Remarks," or anything that could be construed to be such, in any edition of Franklin's writings. Still, I could not but draw the inference from the quotation that it had been printed, for, though written sheets were often handed about from hand to hand in the colonial days as a way of disseminating political arguments, yet, had such been the means of circulation for this paper, it would hardly have been possible for the opposite party to see it, without which an answer on their part was not conceivable. I therefore made a careful examination of the columns of the two Pennsylvania papers published at that time for the whole period in which the publication could possibly have been made, but without finding it. From this I inferred that it was printed either as a pamphlet or broadside; but as correspondence and search in various directions failed to furnish the slightest clue to it, I did not feel justified in making a hypothetical title for inclusion in my list, and merely made a mental note of it as one of several Franklin *introuvables* to be watched for.

This led to my later discovery, in the English Rolls Office, of another allusion to the piece, in a letter from Gov. Penn to the Proprietors, which further convinced me that it had been printed at the time, but otherwise brought me no nearer to its discovery. Recently, however, I have been fortunate enough to purchase the piece. It is a folio broadside, of two pages, headed:

"EXPLANATORY REMARKS ON THE ASSEMBLY'S RESOLVES,
Published in the *Pennsylvania Gazette*, No. 1840."

Before noticing it, an outline of the political controversy which produced it may be of interest. The real matter at issue was of long and serious standing, having been practically the main political question for many years in Pennsylvania; but the supply bill passed by the Pennsylvania Assembly in the spring of 1764 was the immediate cause which precipitated new action on the part of the Assembly party in Pennsylvania. In June, 1763, Sir Jeffrey Amherst informed the Governor of the colony of the danger of the Indian outbreak later known as Pontiac's conspiracy, and asked an immediate calling of the Assembly to vote the troops and supplies necessary to quell it. Among other acts voted in pursuance of this was one granting "his Majesty the sum of fifty-thousand pounds," to which the Governor refused his assent, being bound by instructions from the Proprietors (*Votes*, v, 325-6). The Assembly at once appointed a committee "to draw up and bring in certain resolves upon the present Circumstances of this Province." A new supply bill was also framed, to which the Governor again refused his assent, and to which the Assembly resolved unanimously to adhere; and a message was drawn and sent to the Governor explaining the reasons for their action (*Votes*, v, 329-30). This in turn produced a message from the Governor and a counter-message from the Assembly, leaving each side determined to maintain its position. The committee on resolutions therefore promptly introduced (March 24, 1764) a series of resolves, which were at once published in the local press.

The resolutions so adopted were in effect an indictment of the proprietary government. But evidently Franklin did not feel that the mere vote, however unanimous, of the Assembly, asserting a series of facts was sufficient to cause conviction of the truth of the resolutions by the public. He accordingly prepared this series of "Explanatory Remarks," his prefatory paragraph stating:

"Resolves of Assembly being short Resolutions, formed after Debate and full Consideration of any particular Matter, they are generally very concise, and seldom contain the Reasons at large upon which they are founded; and although they are always so full and expressive as to be clearly understood by those who have attended to the Subject, yet, to enable others rightly to comprehend their Meaning an explanatory Account of the Facts seems

necessary. It is with this View the following Remarks are submitted to the Consideration of the Publick."

The remarks that follow, taken in connection with the original resolutions, constitute the most satisfactory party platform or statement of grievances I have yet found on the whole proprietary dispute in Pennsylvania. The paper is too long to print entire, but a few excerpts are worth making.

The first resolve practically states the view of the popular or Assembly party as to their relation to the Proprietors.

| RESOLUTION. | FRANKLIN'S REMARKS. |
|---|---|
| That it is the Opinion of this House, that the Proprietaries of this Province, after having delegated their Powers of Government, can be justly or legally considered in no other Light than as private Owners of Property, without the least Share or constitutional Power of Legislation whatever. | As this Resolve is the first in Order, so it is the most important, and is intended to point out the deepest Wound which has been made, by an undue Attachment to Proprietary Interest, in the original Constitution of this Government. By the Royal Grant, "free, full and absolute Power, is given to the Proprietary 'lieutenants and Governors,' to ordain, make, |

and enact Laws, for the Raising of Money, &c., according to their Discretion, with the Advice, Consent and Approbation of the Freeman of the Country, or of their Delegates and Deputies." The Powers of Legislature being thus fully granted by the Crown, to the Governor for the Time being, and the Peoples Representatives, 'tis evident the Proprietaries can have no Constitutional Share in Legislation, or Right to give Instructions to their Governor, whereby his "Discretion" must be totally destroyed. And therefore all such Instructions are a manifest Violation of the Royal Favour to the good People of this Province, and a most dangerous Invasion on the Rights of the Subject. They not only destroy the Exercise of Judgment in the Governor, but render the Representative Body of the People mere Cyphers in the Constitution. And vain is it for the People to send their Delegates to the seat of Representation, as all they can do when met, is to give up their Freedom and Exercise of Judgment, betray those very Rights they were sent to preserve, and servilely submit to Proprietary Will and Pleasure. Much better will it be for the Inhabitants of Pennsylvania to invest the Proprietaries with absolute Power at once, permit them to ordain and enact Laws at Three Thousand Miles Distance, and only transmit them here for Publication and Execution. For whose interest they will in that Case be calculated, and of what Spirit they will partake, modern Measures have fully demonstrated.

The second and third resolutions relate to the misuse of the proprietary power of binding governors from assenting to laws passed by the Assembly:

| RESOLUTIONS. | FRANKLIN'S REMARKS. |
|---|---|
| That the Obstructions and Delays the Measures of the Crown have so repeatedly met with in this Province during the late War, were solely owing to Proprietary Instructions, respecting the private Interest of the Proprietaries.<br>That all the Mischiefs to the Province, which the Governor mentions in his late Messages, as occasioned by those Obstructions, are therefore chargeable wholly to the Proprietaries. | The first Attempt to enforce this mischievous Claim, happened about Fifty Years past, when William Penn, in Governor Evans's Commission inserted a Clause reserving "to himself and his Heirs their final Assent to the Laws" which should be passed; and thus assumed the Royal Power, which by the original Charter was reserved to the Crown. How evidently does this demonstrate, that Men of the fairest Characters are not to be trusted, when under the Influence |

of private interest. A virtuous Opposition, however, both in the Proprietary Council, and Assembly, repelled this Invasion of their Rights, and the reservation was declared illegal and void. And from this Time Proprietary Instructions never appeared, till the Beginning of the late War. A Time when the Frontiers were bleeding in every Quarter, and the unhappy Inhabitants reduced to every Kind of Misery and Distress that the deepest Want, and the most relentless Barbarities of a savage Enemy could devise and inflict. This it seems was thought the most convenient Time to enforce those Claims, and reduce the People to a Subjection to them. And certainly a Time like this was necessary to their Success. For, upon their being laid before the Assembly, they plainly appeared to be formed solely with a View to increase the immense Wealth of the Proprietaries, and to oblige the People to bear their Burthens; and were found equally regardless of the Orders of the Crown, as of the Good and Safety of the distressed Inhabitants.

Influenced by these illegal Instructions, what unjust Claims have the Governors of this Province made in Favour of their Principals! They first insisted that the Proprietaries should not be taxed at all, although their Property was to receive equal Protection from it; then that their Quitrents should not be rated; next that their located and uncultivated lands should be exempted; and lastly that the Bills of Credit, issued as well for the Protection of their Property as that of the Inhabitants, should not be a Tender in the Payment of their Rents, contrary to all Justice and good Conscience. The Assembly, consistent with that Duty they indispensably owed to their Constituents, could not agree to these unjust Demands. This created Disputes; those Disputes created Delays, which greatly obstructed His Majesty's Measures; and whether the Proprietary Pretensions, or the Assembly's Opposition, were most just and well founded, is submitted to the Candid and Impartial.

Resolutions four to eight are in elaboration of the preceding, describing how the Governor had been placed under penal bonds by the Proprietors (in order that, like Governor Denny, he should not dare to depart from their instructions), and to the partial system of taxation which discriminated between lands held by the Proprietors and those owned by the colonists.

PAUL LEICESTER FORD.

# Correspondence.

## THE GREAT NORTHERN STRIKE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In an editorial in your number for July 12 you unjustly charge the committee of St. Paul and Minneapolis business men who were called upon to assist in the settlement of the strike on the Great Northern Road with giving a decision in favor of the strikers upon a matter which was not submitted to arbitration as you claim. The agreement to settle by arbitration was made between the president of the road and the strikers May 1, and provided that the men were to be taken back without prejudice on account of the strike except certain ones. Had this been in writing, no question would have arisen. As it was, however, verbal, the committee was called upon two weeks later to give its understanding and recollection as to the exact exceptions made. The following are the exact words of the report of the committee upon this subject:

"It was agreed between Mr. Hill and Mr. Debs that all the employees of the company might return to their proper employment without prejudice for having taken part in the strike, except those men who had maliciously injured or destroyed the company's property, or were in the hands of the law. As no other exceptions were made, this committee is of the opinion that the men who abandoned their trains between stations, as claimed, however reprehensible such conduct may have been, have a right to be restored to the employment of the company under the terms of the agreement. The committee's interpretation of the meaning of the term 'those in the hands of the law' was, and now is, that the men in the hands of the law, if found guilty, should not be employed by the company in the future, but, pending the determination of their cases, they should not be excluded from employment by the company because of the charges brought against them."

The editorial in the *Pioneer Press* of May 14, a copy of which I enclose herewith, states the case correctly, and you must see that your article puts the committee in a false light. As one of that committee and a reader of your paper, I trust you will correct your statements made in the article referred to.

Yours truly, CHARLES P. NOYES.

ST. PAUL, MINN., July 19, 1894.

[Our implied censure of the committee really rested against the original agreement on the basis described by our correspondent, in terms differing little from our own.—ED. NATION.]

## PULLMAN AND ITS INHABITANTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While living at South Chicago, which is only a few miles from the town of Pullman, I had observed in conversation with men who had worked at that model town, and who had sought work in the Illinois Steel Works at South Chicago, a feeling of discontent with and hostility towards Pullman and its social regulations. The denunciations were general rather than specific, and the tone was rather one of envy more than anything else. The fairly large number of workmen I met gave me the impression that on the whole it was for a man's advantage to live in one of Pullman's houses. It was not necessary, but good policy, to rent from Pullman, and on the whole they failed to appreciate his benevolence in furnishing them a good, clean brick house with unlimited pure water, gas, and sewerage. The general complaint seemed to be that they were too much under Mr. Pullman's thumb; there was no room for individuality or independence. There was a gentle but never ceasing Pullman pressure about them. The workman owned nothing except the clothes on his back and the furniture in his rented house. The house, the land, the grassplot in front of each house, the stores, the school, the church, the very streets were Pullman's. As nearly as I could make out, the cause of discontent was lack of individual freedom, and opportunity to acquire something one's own. The very commendable desire of nearly all skilled workmen to have and control a bit of land and some sort of a habitation thereon for one's very own—a castle of rest, where he is supreme boss in his own household—this was impossible under the conditions of life in Pullman's model town.

Coupled with the fact of the suppression of the individuality of the workman, or rather lack of opportunity to get on like his brother workmen in other places not "model," was a feeling of perhaps awe and envy in the average workman's mind at the stupendous and seemingly unlimited resources of the Pullman Company, or, as they thought, Mr. Pullman himself. The contemplation of the immense Pullman building on Michigan Avenue, and Mr. Pullman's magnificent private residence, together with the fact that a few years ago he

was merely a plain, humble workman like themselves—a carpenter and house-mover—these impressions, constantly reinforced by the sight of the sumptuously furnished Pullman cars they manufactured for him, showed a plane of living far beyond any possibility of their attaining. Trivial as it may seem, the fact that their master bore a European title helped widen the gulf between employer and employee. The promptness with which the whole town, previously Republican, voted the Democratic ticket when Mr. Pullman expressed a desire that they should vote the Republican ticket, was no surprise to observers who knew the employees personally.

Had these same men been engaged in manufacturing pig-iron, for instance, instead of an article which constantly reminded them of a higher and to them impossible condition of life; had they been living in a frame dwelling of their own in a back street, on a lot 25 feet by 100, paying their own taxes for water, sidewalks, and pavement, instead of living perforce in a rented building in a community where they had nothing to do with the local government, I doubt very much if the meddlesome Debs could have made them under such conditions his unfortunate dupes.

After years of intimate association with the American workingman, I am convinced that one of the strongest sentiments in his breast is the love of home. When, at the close of a day's toil, he can put on his coat and hat, leave the shop behind him, go home, "wash up," and eat supper, smoke his pipe and read the paper or watch the children play, or play with them while his wife is "doing up the dishes"; when he feels he owns everything about him in fee simple, that he is the boss and master in his own house—that man is happy. When his wife in the back kitchen hums "Home, Sweet Home," it is full of kindly meaning to him. Mr. Pullman in his scheme for a model community for American workmen overlooked this peculiar American characteristic. Hence, in my humble opinion, these tears. E. L. C. Morse.

Ithaca, N. Y., July 23, 1894.

## LABOR ANARCHISTS OF THE LAST CENTURY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It may be of interest to see that the methods of strikers have not changed in a hundred years. In a letter to John Ross, under date London, May 14, 1768, Franklin says:

"Even this capital, the residence of the King, is now a daily scene of lawless riot and confusion. Mobs patrolling the streets at noonday, some knocking all down that will not roar for Wilkes and liberty, courts of justice afraid to give judgment against him; coalheavers and porters pulling down the houses of coal-merchants that refuse to give them more wages; sawyers destroying sawmills; sailors unrigging all the outward-bound ships, and suffering none to sail till merchants agree to raise their pay; watermen destroying private boats and threatening bridges; soldiers firing among the mobs and killing men, women, and children, which seems only to have produced a universal sullenness, that looks like a great black cloud coming on, ready to burst in a general tempest."

And to Joseph Galloway, under the same date:

"While I am writing, a great mob of coal porters fills the street, carrying a wretch of their business upon poles, to be ducked and otherwise punished at their pleasure for working at the old wages. All respect to law and government seems to be lost among the common people, who are, moreover, continually inflamed by seditious scribblers, to trample on authority and everything that used to keep them in order."

Further on in the same letter:

"Several of the soldiers are imprisoned. If they are not hanged, it is feared there will be more and greater mobs; and, if they are, that no soldier will assist in suppressing any mob hereafter. The prospect either way is gloomy. It is said the English soldiers cannot be confided in to act against these mobs, being suspected as rather inclined to favor and join them." A. B.

July 15, 1894.

## A CORRECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your article on "Gov. Altgeld and the President," in the *Nation* of July 12, speaks of the authority under which the President acted in sending federal troops into Illinois, as derived from sections 5298 and 5299 of the Revised Statutes, and assigns dates to the sections. Section 5299 was enacted April 20, 1871, as you state; but section 5298 was enacted July 29, 1861, not 1891. The mistake is the more confusing as Gov. Altgeld, in his first communication to the President, refers to the "federal statute" under which the President was acting as "in reality a war measure," which, in a sense, section 5298 undoubtedly is.

This in the interest of accuracy, not of Altgeldism.—Truly yours,

Russell Whitman.

Chicago, July 16, 1894.

## THE PUBLIC LIBRARY IN NEW HAMPSHIRE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you permit me to call attention to an error in your notice (July 12, p. 28) of my 'Public Libraries in America'? You make it appear that I state that New Hampshire has passed a law requiring towns to establish and maintain public libraries. I only said that such a law had been presented to the Legislature of the State and ably advocated by its author, a member of the State Library Commission. That such a law can actually be passed in any State for some years to come is very doubtful. W. I. Fletcher.

Amherst, Mass., July 19, 1894.

## HAWAIIAN SALARIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your editorial in the *Nation* of May 24, entitled "Playing the Missionary for All He is Worth," is full of remarkable mistakes. A prominent one is in your comments upon your statement that the Government has voted its members increased salaries. The appropriation bill for "salaries and pay-rolls," you say, "was made valid for *two* years so as to guard against unpleasant contingencies." This ought to have indicated to you that the pay provided for was to cover the whole period of two years. You suppose the salary voted was for one year, and with this fundamental error on your mind you are led to make false and unjust criticisms. You say the "Hawaiian chief justice receives $1,500 a year more than Chief Justice Fuller." The truth is that the statute fixed my salary at $6,000 a year, and the Legislature, having only biennial sessions, voted me $12,000 salary for the two years. Chief Justice Fuller's annual salary is $10,500, and he thus receives just $4,500 more a year than I do.

You also say: "Each of the cabinet draws $1,000 a year more than the members of our cabinet." The fact is that the salary of a cabinet minister here is $9,000 for two years. Dividing this by two, the annual salary is $4,500, which you are pleased to say is $1,000 more than that of a secretary of a department of the United States Government! The former salary of a minister here was $9,600 for two years, or $4,800 per annum. The present ministry thus voted themselves a reduction of $300 a year.

Will you please make these corrections and oblige your subscriber, A. F. Judd,
Chief Justice Supreme Court of the Hawaiian Islands.

Honolulu, June 15, 1894.

[We must, of course, accept the Hawaiian Chief Justice's interpretation of an appropriation act which, on its face, naturally bore the meaning we gave it. In asserting that the present ministry voted themselves a reduction of $300 a year, however, Chief Justice Judd is scarcely ingenuous. Whatever the salaries may have been at some indefinite period, the record of the proceedings of the councils shows that increased salaries were voted the ministers by the ministers, and that despite a rule cited against their right to do it. We should have been glad if the Chief Justice had specified any other of the "remarkable mistakes" of which the offending article was "full."—Ed. Nation.]

## POPULAR ELECTION OF SENATORS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The proposition to give directly to the people the election of United States Senators, which has been embodied in Senate and House bills for amending the Constitution, and has been discussed in the pages of the *Nation*, suggests the idea of giving to each State three Senators instead of two, with the provision that in each State one Senator should be chosen by popular vote every two years at the same election at which Representatives in Congress are chosen. This plan would preserve the equality of the States required by our federal system, and, the term of a Senator remaining six years, would improve upon the present division of the Senate into thirds, in that each class or third would contain a member from every State in the Union, and the biennial renewal would bring a third of the entire membership fresh from the people of all the States. An enlarged membership of the Senate will be recognized as an advantage, in view of the immense volume of business pressing upon its committees. J. W. H.

Washington, July 20, 1894.

## THE PARTHENON FRIEZE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have just rediscovered among my files of journals the letter of Dr. Waldstein on the above subject, and beg to be allowed to say a word on it. As long ago as my first residence in Athens, twenty-five years ago, I was victimized by one of the so-called antique terracottas, admirably made and ingeniously broken to prove its genuineness better. I then discovered that the manufacture of these "plaques" was a business at Athens, and that any desired number of them could be got by

exercising a little caution. I am not surprised that Dr. Furtwaengler should have been deceived, for his work on the 'Master-Works of Greek Sculpture' shows that, however much he may know of archæology, he knows very little indeed of art; but I am surprised that Dr. Waldstein should persist in maintaining the possible originality of these terracottas, for the genuineness of which there is not the least evidence. The very variations which he takes for evidence of it is proof only of the cleverness of the Athenian counterfeiters, who are extremely able sculptors, in some cases at least, and quite capable, once the manner is furnished, of giving you excellent imitations of any epoch. The simple fact that, in the official excavations of the débris of the Acropolis, no fragment of these hypothetical sketches of the Parthenaic artists was found, ought to satisfy one that their existence was a myth. If they were the originals, where would one expect to find remains of them if not on the spot where the originals were used for the reproduction in marble? And where were they found? No one can tell us—in excavations here and there, where they could not have had any relation to the Parthenon.

Dr. Waldstein's appeal to the authority of the late Alessandro Castellani is unfortunate, as that fortunate dealer himself admitted to me that he knew very little about archæology, and did not pretend to judge of the genuineness of an antique (?), but limited himself to the quality of the art. The extraordinary counterfeit of a Roman horn which he sold to the Emperor Napoleon III., and which was given to the museum at S. Germain, showed that his expertise could be supported only at the expense of his honesty, which is, I am sorry to say, the case with a good many dealers in antiquities. At all events, his testimony in favor of the "plaques" is worth nothing, for he could not even tell a false from a genuine "figurine," and did not pretend that he could.

The counterfeiting of all classes of antique objects is now carried to such perfection that we can in most cases be certain of the genuineness of one only by knowing where and by whom it was dug up; but for the Parthenon plaques there never was a reason, except utter inexperience in such articles, for accepting them as antique. M. Reinach's judgment in these matters is one in ten thousand; and if there were a judgment more trustworthy than his, I should say it could only be that of the maker of the counterfeits himself.

Yours truly, W. J. Stillman.

Rome, July 7, 1894.

## "BACK AND FORTH."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: For the last ten years I have been in constant association with Cornish miners located on Lake Superior. The expression "foorth and back" is a common one as used by these men, and, as far as I remember, conveys the idea of "wrong end to" or "hindside forth." I have heard a woman say, referring to her husband's head-gear, "'Ee 'ave 'is 'at on foorth and back." I recall a Cornish pitman discussing the failure of a duplex steam-pump to run, saying, "I gnawed they pump wudna run, fur 'ee 'ad they rockers in foorth and back."—Yours truly,

J. Parke Channing.

Narragansett Pier, R.I., July 19, 1894.

# Notes.

John Wiley & Sons announce 'The Memphis Bridge,' by George S. Morison; 'A Text-Book on Roads and Pavements,' by Fred P. Spalding of Cornell University; 'Sewage Disposal,' by Wynkoop Kiersted; 'The Principles of Modern Dairy Practice,' from a bacteriological point of view, by Gösta Grotenfelt; and 'A Record of the Transportation Exhibits Building of the World's Columbian Exposition of 1893,' by James Dredge.

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready 'Mediæval Europe 800 to 1300 A. D.,' by Prof. Ephraim Emerton of Harvard, in continuation of his 'Introduction to the Study of the Middle Ages.'

J. Selwin Tait & Sons will shortly publish 'Before the Gringo Came,' stories of early California days by Gertrude Atherton; 'A Seventh Child,' by John Strange Winter; and 'The Untempered Wind,' by Miss Joanna N. Wood, a Canadian writer.

Prof. A. C. Fraser's two-volume edition of 'An Essay concerning Human Understanding,' from the Clarendon Press (Macmillan), contains not only Locke's great Essay, but a very valuable introduction of 134 pages of biographical and critical matter, embodying, perhaps, the best thoughts of Prof. Fraser himself, who has also added copious foot-notes, to the extent, as we estimate, of a third of the two volumes. The best of all the new matter is, we incline to think, the account of the various interpretations which have been given, not only of the Essay itself, but of its different topics, books, and chapters. The critical sections bring out with great clearness over against Locke the views of real existences—self, God, and outward things—which characterize Prof. Fraser's school. It need hardly be said that this edition constitutes henceforth an indispensable instrument for every teacher of Locke, and might be used along with Fowler's little digest, reviewed in these columns in 1880.

The Rede lecture delivered at Cambridge, England, on June 13, by J. W. Clark, Registrar of the University, has been printed in a thin volume ('Libraries in the Medieval and Renaissance Periods'; New York: Macmillan). The subject naturally lent itself to illustration, and the lecture was in fact delivered with the aid of lantern slides, drawn from books, manuscripts, and photographs of libraries still in existence. Only seven of these are reproduced in the printed volume, whose value would have been greatly enhanced if the remainder had likewise been admitted. Still, the principal types of lecterns and shelving, and the disposition of chained books either on their sides or on end with their fore edges showing, are well depicted. Mr. Clark proves that the fittings of collegiate libraries were imitated from the monastic, and in general makes evident the closeness of tradition in these matters from classic times, with such changes as the invention of printing necessitated.

The number of plans in 'Academy Architecture,' the annual review for 1894 (New York: Scribners), is relatively small, as usual, but the elevations and interior views possess quite the average interest. They are drawn in the main from the exhibitions of the Royal Academy, London, the Royal Scottish Academy, Edinburgh, and the Glasgow Institute of the Fine Arts, and are supplemented by some foreign examples, in which the United States is represented. Drawings and photographs from the finished building or monument or detail are mingled. Curious is the design for a new cemetery at Chiavari, Italy. There are several views of the interior of the Court Museum at Vienna, and some queer Russian structures, including an iron memorial church. The editor himself supplies a view of his fine girls' school-building at Zurich.

Prof. Dr. J. Scheiner's 'Die Spectralanalyse der Gestirne,' brought out in the original German edition four years ago, has been translated, revised, and enlarged, with the coöperation of the author, by Prof. Edwin B. Frost of Dartmouth College. Ginn & Co. have just published this excellent treatise on astronomical spectroscopy in appropriate and available form for the purposes of both teacher and investigator.

The seventh volume of the 'Journal des Goncourt' comes from the press of Charpentier. It covers the years 1885-'88, and, aside from the querulous and fretful complaints of M. Edmond de Goncourt, treats chiefly of Daudet's ill health and his need of chloral. There are passages about other authors, here and there, and numerous references to Porel, who managed the Odéon and brought out "Henriette Maréchal" and "Germinie Lacerteux"; an ill-tempered attack on Sarcey, which, appearing after the lapse of years, does no credit to the author; and two sneers at the late President Carnot, one on the occasion of his election to the Presidency, and the other, at the very end of the book, on account of the interdiction of "Germinie." Yet the book, though largely frivolous and thin in matter, is interesting, for it exhibits plainly the temperament of the writer, and gives incidentally a clear insight into some of the causes of the particular kind of decadent and noxious literature which has afflicted France of late and still afflicts it, though signs of healthy reaction are fortunately not wanting.

In M. Gaston Deschamps's 'La Vie et les Livres' (Paris: Colin & Cie.) such signs are strong and encouraging. After the pages of Goncourt, the pages of Deschamps are invigorating. There is a clean feeling about them which is not their least valuable feature. M. Deschamps is the literary critic of the *Temps*, and he has a very captivating style, as all readers of the articles "La Vie littéraire" know. His idea of criticism is to think of the reader as well as the writer, to examine and set forth, as plainly as possible, the causes at work in the world which have brought forth the particular book he is to review—in short, "to combine the observation of events with the analysis of the work," and to make the history of books contribute to the knowledge of contemporary society. The application of his ideas is a series of charming articles, in most of which not a single book or writer, but a group of writers and books, is discussed intelligently, wittily, but not superficially, and with much catholicity of feeling. Particularly interesting are "La Conversion de M. Paul Bourget," "Sur la mort de Guy de Maupassant," "Littérature et politique," and "Officiers et soldats."

Gustave Merlet's 'Études littéraires sur les classiques français' has long been known to and appreciated by students of French literature. A new edition, by M. Eugène Lintilhac, has been published by Hachette. The text has been recast, Merlet's notes in successive editions being incorporated into it, and all necessary corrections and additions made which the progress of literary criticism called for. Besides smaller additions of his own, M. Lintilhac has contributed studies on Villehardouin, Frois-

sart, Commynes, the letter-writers of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries; Voltaire, critic, philosopher, and polygraph; and Buffon. An excellent table of works of reference greatly enhances the usefulness of the two volumes.

M. Maurice Albert's latest book is on 'Les Médecins grecs à Rome' (Paris: Hachette). In it he shows how the Greek physicians fairly took and kept possession of Rome. The book is entertaining even to laymen, who will learn something more of Archagathus, Asclepiades, and Galen than their mere names, and at the same time something about Roman life.

We have before us the first number of the *New Science Review*, a quarterly "miscellany of modern thought and discovery," published in Philadelphia, and addressing itself to the public at large (Transatlantic Publishing Co.). The articles are decidedly short for a quarterly, and the longest are not the best, *teste* Mrs. Bloomfield Moore on the propeller of Keely's air-ship ("A Newton of the Mind"!), and Julian Hawthorne on "Scientific Creation," *alias* Keely and his motor. Mr. M. D. Conway writes about "Thomas Paine and the Republic of the World." There are also articles on the ice age, on the problem of the pole, on diamonds and gold; and Prof. Angelo Heilprin edits a department of "Current Scientific Discussion."

The *Architectural Review*, Boston, begins its third volume under its present title with the May number. It has an established repute among professional journals of its class, and has doubtless not reached the end of its development. In the number just named Mr. Thomas A. Fox continues his interesting notes of a tour in Greece, with a chapter on Argolis, accompanied by charming views of temple, tombs, gateway, and landscape at Argos, Nemea, Mykenæ, Tiryns, and Nauplia. Especially to be remarked are the Treasury of Atreus, the Lion Gate, the Gallery at Tiryns, the platform of the Heræon at Argos, the head of Hera, and the Plain of Argos from Mykenæ.

Baron E. von Toll gives an interesting account of his adventurous journey last year across northern Siberia, in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for June. His principal object was to examine the remains of a mammoth recently discovered, and to make astronomical observations, for which purpose he was accompanied by a Russian naval lieutenant. When the place where the mammoth had been found was reached, the snow was too deep to permit of a thorough search, and accordingly, with four men and three dog-sledges, they crossed the ice—a two-days' journey—to the New Siberian Islands. On the southernmost they made a cache of provisions, and a second in lat. 75° 37', for Dr. Nansen in case he should be obliged to abandon the *Fram* and retreat to Siberia. The spring opened nearly three weeks earlier on the islands than in 1886, when the Baron had previously visited them—a fact which he interprets favorably to Dr. Nansen's plans. At that time the first bird was seen on May 28; but, in 1893, gulls appeared on May 10, and on the next day geese, and, *from the north*, ducks. A little later the robber-gulls came, and fed upon the lemming, who were migrating in great numbers. "These sole winter inhabitants of the islands were exchanging their quarters; some were going from the mainland to the islands, others were leaving the islands for the mainland." The return journey was very difficult, on account of the melting snow and ice, but was accomplished safely, and the coast was reached May 27. After an ineffectual search for a perfect specimen of a mammoth—only a skull from which the tusks were gone, some bones and hide, being found—the explorers crossed the tundras by a mostly hitherto untravelled route, partly on reindeer and partly in sledges, to the settlements on the Yenisei.

An interesting account of the great Siberian Railway, by our consul-general at St. Petersburg, Mr. J. M. Crawford, is published in Consular Reports for July. Since May 12, 1891, when the Tzesarevitch laid the first stone in Vladivostok on the Pacific, preliminary surveys have been made over the entire route, and the work of construction is now going on in three of the seven sections into which the whole line is divided. Trains are running for 160 miles eastward from the western terminus, Tcheliabinsk, and from the Pacific terminus westward 120 miles. There appear to be no serious engineering difficulties—only one tunnel, less than two miles long, is mentioned—while the highest point reached, at the divide between the Arctic and Pacific Oceans, is only 3,665 feet above the sea-level. The total length of the road will be 7,115 miles, and the estimated cost is about $175,000,000. In addition to this sum, $7,000,000 have been appropriated for certain auxiliary measures in connection with the railway, as the construction of a branch to the Ural mines, improving the Siberian rivers, and developing steam navigation on them and in the Kara Sea, assisting colonization, encouraging iron works, and equipping geological expeditions, especially for studying the Amur region, etc. A map and a longitudinal profile of the road-belt accompany the report.

The hopes that the recent trade convention between China as the suzerain power in Tibet and the Indian Government would soon lead to free intercourse between the two countries have been rudely disappointed. Two English missionaries who recently crossed the Indo-Tibetan frontier in violation of the conditions of the convention were arrested by the Tibetans, and would have been murdered but for the intervention of the Chinese guard, who conveyed them back to India. The result has been that all the advantages expected to be gained from the treaty are endangered. Trading has apparently almost ceased, and the Tibetans are reported to be building a wall along the frontier, where the missionaries crossed, to prevent any further intrusions. This would seem to disprove the assertion of some travellers—notably of Miss A. R. Taylor, to whose adventurous journey in this country we have called attention—that the Tibetans are anxious to break down the barriers between their country and India, but have been prevented hitherto by the Chinese in the interests of their trade monopoly. These sturdy mountaineers, however, apparently fear that, with the coming of the Europeans, their independence will be lost. So strong a feeling has been aroused by this incident that the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal has been compelled to recommend to the Chinese Government to stop a missionary party about to enter Tibet from China. Naturally this has excited much bitterness against the Government, but the responsible organs of British opinion in India realize that "even missionaries cannot be permitted to extend their excellent work at the sacrifice of the British character for international good faith."

The Bulletin of the American Geographical Society for June 30 makes a timely appearance with reference to the distracted condition of Nicaragua. Mr. Courtenay de Kalb contributes a not inconsiderable Bibliography of the Mosquito Coast, filling upwards of six pages. By far the larger number of titles have been verified by Mr. De Kalb by personal examination of the works which bear them, and he had the advantage of having visited the Coast and studied the political conditions of that anomalous little territory.

—The sixteenth annual session of the Association Littéraire et Artistique Internationale will be held at Antwerp, August 18 to 25. It will be the third reunion in Belgium, a previous meeting having been held in Antwerp in 1885, and one in Brussels in 1884. It is not to be expected that this year's conference will be as epoch-making in the history of literary-property protection as was the noteworthy Brussels copyright congress of 1858, but the subjects for consideration are sufficiently important and varied. The programme is a long one, and, what with the interruptions caused by social attentions, and the special temptation to irregularity of attendance incident to the presence in Antwerp of the International Exposition, it is doubtful if the whole of it can be discussed. A number of topics are carried over from last year, such as publication contracts; property in titles, portraits, photographs, and translations; the question of registration and deposit of copies, and, in connection with this last, the interesting project of the establishment at Berne of a universal bureau for the recording of copyrights. New subjects for discussion are collaboration, arbitration in literary-property disputes; property in personal names; property-rights in stereotype plates; the rights of authors in relation to gratuitous representations, and some clauses of the International-Copyright Treaty. Reports are also expected on the status of copyright in North and South America, Great Britain, Denmark, Norway, Austria, and Russia. The project of holding next year's session in the United States having fallen through, efforts are being made to secure the naming of some German city for that honor.

—One of the most serious results of the increasing army expenditures in Prussia has been the curtailment of the public-school fund. Prussia, proud as she is of her school system, has always been rather indifferent to the lot of the schoolmaster. The school census of 1891 showed that the teachers in the elementary schools were not only sadly underpaid, but greatly overworked. There was then an actual deficiency of 12,652 teachers—that is to say, in 25,304 classes the teachers had to do double work, and many of these classes numbered 120 to 150 children each. Since then matters have not improved, and the Minister of Public Instruction not long ago declared before the Diet that the country was threatened with "a collapse of its public-school system." The causes, according to a well-informed writer in the Berlin *Gegenwart*, himself a "Schulmann," are to be found not only in lack of funds, due to the demands of militarism, but also in the influence of the church and the aristocracy over the public schools. In spite of the law of 1872, according to which the supervision of schools rests entirely with the State, the country-school inspectors are almost everywhere clergymen. The entire pedagogical outfit of these inspectors is in the majority of cases acquired in a six weeks' course at the seminary. The district inspectors (*Kreisschul-Inspectoren*) are likewise generally theologians. The teacher, dependent on the good will of his clerical superior, often performs menial services. Only since last February have the country teachers been released by ministerial ordinance from the performance of such duties

as the sweeping of church floors, the tolling of bells, the lighting of fires, etc. The influence wielded by the landed proprietors, who have still so largely the right to appoint teachers within their domains, reduces the appointees to a condition not far removed from vassalage. In 1891, 12,160 teachers' positions were within the gift of the nobility; Count von Donnersmarck appointing 129, Prince Pless 123, the Duke of Ratibor 87, and the Duke of Ujest 65. Efforts to improve the pecuniary status of the teachers sometimes meet with an almost brutal rebuff. Thus, a Pommeranian commission, discussing the subject during the ministry of Von Zedlitz, declared that a salary of 600 marks ($150) was more than sufficient for teachers in that province, and that, indeed, it ought not to be more than 586 marks. A grave aspect of the situation is the impossibility of endowing properly the higher technical and industrial schools (*Fortbildungs-Schulen*). They are likewise hampered by lack of funds, and do not compare in efficiency with the schools for workingmen (*Arbeiter-Bildungsschulen*), which have been established under socialist auspices. There was a certain justice in the remark of Herr Liebknecht last January, that, "whatever knowledge of politics and economics our laborers have acquired, they owe to the Social Democrats."

—Among the members of the Board of Visitors to the Royal Observatory at Greenwich the present year are Lord Kelvin, President of the Royal Society; Lord Rayleigh, the Earl of Rosse, Profs. Sir George Stokes and Sir Robert Ball, Dr. William Huggins, Prof. Darwin of Cambridge, and Capt. Wharton, Hydrographer of the Navy. The annual visitation took place June 2, and the Astronomer Royal, Mr. Christie, reported upon the conditions and workings of this immense establishment in the fullest detail. Owing in large measure to the fine weather prevailing through a great part of the year, the fundamental instruments secured an exceptionally bountiful harvest of observations, and these are kept well advanced towards the final publication—vastly better, in fact, than at other observatories under Government auspices. Satisfactory progress is reported upon the new universal transit circle, or altazimuth, constructing by Messrs. Troughton and Simms. Sir Henry Thompson has generously offered the sum of $25,000 to provide a large photographic telescope and the necessary subsidiary accessories, and this valuable gift will serve as an important complement to the 28-inch visual telescope just completed. No delay in the permanent installation of this fine instrument seems likely; the Admiralty promptly accepted the offer, the aperture of the photographic lenses was fixed at twenty-six inches, and the order was given to Sir Howard Grubb, the eminent Dublin optician, who has contracted to complete it before the end of 1895. The astrographic survey is progressing fairly, nearly a thousand plates having been made during the year. Also the moon and several double stars and planets have been photographically recorded. The sun's activity in spottedness has been fully maintained throughout 1893, and the Greenwich photographs, when supplemented by those from India and Mauritius, afford a permanent record of the solar surface on 359 days of the year, whose characteristic has been rather the great number of groups visible at the same time than the extent of any one of them. Here also the forward state of the computations precedent to the permanent availability of this important work is worthy of note. For the summary of meteorological details, the Astronomer Royal's report must be referred to, but it is interesting to observe that the number of hours of bright sunshine recorded automatically during 1893 was 1,454, the greatest since the commencement of the registration in 1877, and 171 above the average of the preceding sixteen years. Occasional longitude campaigns are undertaken; Montreal, Paris, and Liverpool having been determined from Greenwich.

—It is evident from the report of the Missionary Conference, recently held in London, that the scientific stage in the history of missions has been reached. The papers read and the discussions upon them all emphasized the truth that, for the successful propagation of Christianity in heathen lands, its doctrines and precepts must be presented and enforced with careful relation to the habits, laws, and religious beliefs of the people. This important principle was very clearly shown in the interesting discussion on polygamy. The majority of the early missionaries (not all of them) inexorably required that a man on accepting Christianity should put away all but one of his wives, and in making this demand they were upheld by the general approval of the Christian world. But it was shown, and by none more forcibly than by Mr. R. N. Cust, the well-known Indian official and writer, that to do this was to inflict a grievous and iniquitous wrong upon innocent women lawfully married to their husbands. A religion making such a demand upon its converts could expect but little success among the Hindus at least, with whom the marriage tie is indissoluble. Mr. Cust's conclusion (and that, apparently, of all who took part in the discussion) was that "a man cannot be permitted" to become a member of a Christian church "at the expense of his innocent wives." While there was little or no diversity of opinion as to the propriety of baptizing a woman although she was one of several wives, only two or three laymen advocated the baptizing of men who are polygamists. But in India, according to the last census, this is a case which would but rarely occur, the vast majority of both Hindus and Mohammedans being monogamists.

—In this same conference the Rev. Horace Waller brought a heavy indictment against the English Government in respect to slavery in the island of Pemba, in the protectorate of Zanzibar. According to the report, in 1888, of a naval officer on one of the cruisers on the east coast of Africa, 5,000 slaves a year were at that time smuggled into the island to work upon the Arab spice plantations. This is an enormous waste of life, considering its size (372 square miles) and its estimated population (from 10,000 to 50,000), and makes probable the report that "the longest-lived of the slaves succumb in eleven years, and that on the average they die in about seven." These facts would seem to demand some action on the part of the Government, at least to protect the slaves. But, according to Mr. Waller, "no mine in Siberia filled with criminals transported for life is more safely sealed up against prying investigation than Pemba. There is neither consul, vice-consul, nor missionary there. Those who inquire cannot find in Blue-books nor in any public office that a consul ever lived a month on the island or made a report upon the number (even approximately) of the plantations or the slaves upon them."

—The question of the revival of the Olympic games has lately been considered and discussed by the International Athletic Congress, which has just closed its session at Paris. A committee was appointed, under the presidency of Mr. Bikélas, who, on June 19, read a long memoir from the Panhellenic Society of Athens concerning the rules and conditions under which the ancient games were celebrated, and those under which it would be fitting that the revived Olympics should take place. After hearing this, the committee voted unanimously for the reëstablishment of the games. Free discussion then followed, and it was agreed that the new Olympics shall be celebrated every four years; that the first contests shall take place in the year 1896 in some capital city to be determined upon hereafter; and that the second shall be in Paris during the Exposition of A. D. 1900. It is expected that none but amateur athletes will take part in the games, with the single exception of the fencing-matches. It was precisely this thorny question of amateurism and professionalism, over which floods of ink have been shed, which was likely to give the commission most trouble. The problem existed of old time, but modern civilization has greatly complicated it. There will be much curiosity to see what definition of "professional" and "amateur" the commission will set forth. It seems to be starting out in a wise and sensible way. It has already decided that betting is a disqualification, and that contestants are to have no share of any gate-money. The list of the games includes gymnastics, shooting, athletic sports and games, rowing, yachting, swimming, bicycling, and fencing.

—If the death of the Countess Agénor de Gasparin had happened twenty years ago, it would perhaps have seemed a greater and more immediate loss to literature than it does now. Since the death of her husband in 1871 she has been living for the most part in retirement, and if she had not quite given over writing, her later books have been much less in view. Besides, many of the causes which in their dark hour the Gasparins nobly advocated have gained the day; others are no longer of pressing interest. But Sainte-Beuve thought a study of Mme. de Gasparin a work not unworthy of his time and pains, and even now one may properly stop to note the close of a literary life that has been more than half a century long. Valérie Boissier was born in Geneva in 1813, the sister of the well-known Swiss botanist. She began her literary work by writing some stories of no great value under a pseudonym. It was travel that wakened her powers, and her 'Voyage d'une ignorante dans le midi de la France et en Italie,' which appeared in 1835, showed unmistakable qualities. In 1837 she married Count Agénor de Gasparin and removed to Paris, where her husband sat in the Chamber of Deputies from 1842 to 1848. Here her 'Mariage au point de vue chrétien' appeared in 1842. It received a gold medal from the Academy, and its success gave her an assured position as a writer. Then followed the long series of volumes of travel, of religion, of politics and sociology, and of romantic fiction which have made her a name. There is no need to recount their titles: some are already forgotten, some, perhaps, will live through this generation at least. The 'Horizons Prochains,' the 'Tristesses Humaines,' and the 'Horizons Célestes' have some pages of a real eloquence in them, and breathe a spirit of sympathy and tender pity which is most delicate and persuasive. Sainte-Beuve was able to say much more of her than this. He found in her work "une

vigueur incomparable," a style "viril et emporté," a talent full of "sève et la vitalité"—qualities which are less obvious to us to-day. Mme. de Gasparin died at a country-house near Geneva on the 18th of June.

## MARCELLA, AND OTHER NOVELS.

*Marcella.* By Mrs. Humphry Ward. Macmillan & Co.

*A Bundle of Life.* By John Oliver Hobbes. J. Selwin Tait & Sons.

*The Rich Miss Riddell.* By Dorothea Gerard. D. Appleton & Co.

*His Vanished Star.* By Charles Egbert Craddock. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

*The Raiders.* By S. R. Crockett. Macmillan & Co.

*Cheap Jack Zita.* By S. Baring-Gould. J. Selwin Tait & Co.

*Claudia Hyde.* By Francis Courtenay Baylor. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

*Life's Little Ironies.* By Thomas Hardy. Harper & Brothers.

*The King of Schnorrers.* By I. Zangwill. Macmillan & Co.

*The Flower of Forgiveness.* By Mrs. Steel. Macmillan & Co.

*A Protégé of Jack Hamlin's.* By Bret Harte. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

*In Exile, and Other Stories.* By Mary Hallock Foote. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

*Salem Kittredge, and Other Stories.* By Bliss Perry. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE idea of human equality that animated the terrific drama played by the world in the declining years of the eighteenth century, inspires in its dying successor a drama of equal pretension to the earth for its stage and the nations thereof for actors. That furious, historical passion which imperilled the existence of nations and changed their destinies, was naturally productive of a noble literature. In our own actual drama the force of that desperation which must move on to overwhelming tragedy is not yet felt, and in the literature to which it has given an impulse, the strain that will not die is not yet heard. It would seem that the idea has lost some of its intellectual and spiritual splendor, and that its most urgent appeal leaves the imagination cold, thus assuring us of a catastrophe far short of universal smash, and also depriving us of any certainty of assisting at the blossoming of a new group of immortals. A cry for equality of dinners, rest, and play has not enough soul or sonority for an epic, or enough yearning pathos for imperishable lyrics. It quite lacks the imperative note that deluges spheres in blood. But by volume and persistence and the occasional spur of a bomb it can command earnest and agitated attention, and can supply the realistic novelist with facts whereon to build a fictitious case which may be exciting, widely significant, and entirely consistent with a conscientious abhorrence of romanticism.

Already the fictitious cases are as the stars in heaven for number, and also for degree of luminosity. Among the hosts of little twinklers an occasional steady light shines out, but Mrs. Ward's 'Marcella' is the only approach to a first magnitude. This was of course expected as soon as it was rumored that Mrs. Ward had tackled the social question. It is curious to note the eagerness with which a novel by Mrs. Ward has come to be expected, especially when it is perfectly known that she will speak to the thoughts of men, never to their senses or caprices. People believe that she will, in some impressive way, formulate ideas which to-day interest the multitude and which yesterday were the exclusive property of the philosopher, the poet, or other rare freak of nature held in suspicion of lunacy by the vulgar. Her third novel is a flattering tribute to the justice of such expectation and the wisdom of this popular belief.

Everybody is now familiar with the plot, the fictitious element of 'Marcella,' and there is superfluity in saying more than that it is cleverly fashioned for illustration of the idea, and well sustained. The points less frequently noticed are the comprehensive treatment of the idea and the justice of perception of the value of our modern, actual drama. Almost every conceivable "view" has a representative well fitted by nature and circumstance for his rôle, and the whole case rests at fizzle, compromise; foreshadowing infinite talk, adjustment, and readjustment, some violence, but no world-desolating tragedy. We do not mean to imply that the characters are merely well-considered, galvanized "views." Their enthusiasm for absolute or approximate equality of material good impels them to experimental action, in the course of which one gets a notion of their individuality separated from a temporarily absorbing cause. With the exception of the scholarly and instructive Hallin, each makes an impression of completeness; and in his case the failure appears to be in the author's inadequate grasp of the intellectual height where she wished to place him. Marcella, the personage of the novel, is very thoroughly grasped and very vividly set forth. In her impetuous career she falls foul of most of the thrilling situations which our drama can provide, the occasional accidental tragedy, and the enduring ugliness of poverty with its attendant evils. The end of Marcella, so far as Mrs. Ward takes her, is carefully prepared from the beginning—too carefully to stimulate a very great liking or any sort of confidence. Her vanity, self-complacence, and love of power are even more obvious than her intelligence, her hatred of injustice, and her compassion for physical suffering. When she abandons her admirable lover because he will not yield about the petition for reprieve of the condemned poacher, considerable resentment for the personal snub is mixed with her turbulent sympathy and acute impersonal distress. When she carries coals for sick Jewesses and rushes into tenement-house frays, her spirit of adventure is having its fling, but it is not possible to feel that her vocation is for self-abnegation in obscure slums—that she is going to stick. On the other hand, her return to love and luxury does not argue shallowness or insincerity, but is a very natural reaction for a damsel so eager for experience and so ardent in the business of living. The humor of her reasoned descent from tragedy to commonplace is patent and delightful to a cynic, but Marcella didn't see it—Marcellas never do. Mrs. Ward's obliviousness to humor gives the last touch of excellence to the drawing of such a character, yet is a fatal obstacle to greatness as a delineator of life. In the whole book there is not the ghost of a smile—a grave fault, but one that would be much more oppressive if it could as justly be found with our actual drama as with its counterfeit presentment.

This deficiency in the sense for comedy, the sense that relieves the tension of well-ordered life and makes existence lovely even for conscious sinners, is not the defect of the author of a little book entitled 'A Bundle of Life.' Indeed, the lady who assumes the name John Oliver Hobbes has so many of the qualities that Mrs. Ward lacks, and so few that she possesses, that one wishes the two could be made one, and all doubts about the coming of the great novelist set at rest. Mrs. Ward gives us people largely fashioned by the spirit of the time and, in turn, fashioning it—people whose thoughts have been widened and passions modified by the process of the suns; Mrs. Craigie gives us the primitive human entity, the thing that was born when Adam and Eve realized that cherubims and a whirling sword of flame were keeping the closed gates of Paradise. Mrs. Ward has power of sustained thought, judgment, balance, sympathy, observation, and information. Mrs. Craigie has wit, humor more biting than gentle, passion, and intuition. Mrs. Ward's method is punctiliously careful, her style decorous, the style of conscience and informed intelligence. Mrs. Craigie has no deliberate method, but produces out of disconnection which is all but incoherence a vivid impression of unity. Her style is too nipping, at once too polished and too reckless, to be good, and is more the utterance of capricious impulse and direct instinct than of conscience and intelligence. What she writes from page to page may be out of the line of expectation, and generally is, yet, for the moment, is surprisingly satisfactory. She seizes only the critical moment of fortune and character, and at once makes the reader a sharer of its intensity. In her people nature is heavily handicapped by the external artificiality imposed by rank and wealth; yet, with a light and scornful gesture, she casts off the weight, and shows you how impotent are the restraining trappings when once the human being is in a race for life.

To those who believe that man is but one thing permanently, and that is, unregenerate; who know and acknowledge, though it may be with tears of shame, that his abiding interest from century to century is in himself, in his own opportunity and no other, it must seem that Mrs. Craigie strikes at essential truth and dips up a bit of the heart on the tip of her light, sharp lance. The fragility, indeed frivolity, of her weapon may mislead the unreflecting as to her aim, and the apparently casual waving of her trophy may obscure its value. Besides, the fragment of truth is so unflattering to our cultured self-esteem that we may without too gross hypocrisy declare its exhibitor to be no better than a worldling and a cynic. To our mind the fragment is genuine, and would fit the heart of the humble altruist as neatly as that of the blatant egoist, of the pauper as well as the prince. It is the spark of life and the justification of existence in 'A Bundle of Life,' and in all the author's preceding work; it is the excuse for much seeming bitterness and malice. Without it Mrs. Craigie would be only a manufacturer of phrases and epigrams, providing a smile for the wicked, held in horror of the righteous, and speedily forgotten by all.

At the end of 'A Bundle of Life,' Sidney Wiche says to Teresa Warcop: "I do not know whether I love you or not; I only know that I hate my life without you." A few hours before, Wiche has been making picturesque love to another woman, yet we know that he speaks the truth to Teresa, and though, in her only great scene, she has fairly screamed with jealousy, we feel that she is a good and strong woman and needful for the completion of Wiche's successful career. Such is the art of Mrs. Craigie. Between Teresa Warcop and 'The Rich Miss

Riddell' there is pronounced resemblance of fact. Each is immensely rich, unmistakably plain, and faithful in love from childhood for ever. The similarity extends to the culminating scene in their respective stories. Miss Riddell's lover has made up his mind that her vastly superior wealth must always be an obstacle to their union, and the pressure of imminent death is requisite to wring from him a declaration of devotion. To his great chagrin death passes him by, and Miss Riddell holds him relentlessly to the bond of his supposed last words. After a lengthy discussion, she is about to abandon him when he exclaims, among other things: "Stay here, Georgie. I can't do without you." The difference in impression made by the two stories is as wide as the resemblance in circumstance is close. Teresa is created in a few pages; Miss Riddell requires a whole book of description, yet remains after all a vague, improbable image. Why Burton should want her (her wealth being no object), and, moreover, what he was going to do with her when he got her, are problems of which the author discreetly avoids attempted solution. Miss Gerard could hardly have intended to write an instructive book, yet if her novel be read immediately after 'A Bundle of Life,' few are so dull as to be thereafter incapable of perceiving that the facts selected for a foundation have little to do with the worth or beauty of the fictitious superstructure.

Early in Miss Murfree's literary career it became evident to her warm yet discriminating admirers that she was born to sketch episodes and character, not to write elaborate novels, and it was hoped by those who prize a small and perfect gift that she would return to the field where her first laurels were won. But, probably in response to a demand for magazine serials, she has persisted in the composition of long tales which are really a succession of short tales spoiled by a frail connecting thread which is constantly being lost among voluminous reports of the weather and the morning, noon, and night aspects of the Tennessee Mountains. 'His Vanished Star' includes several striking incidents and lively characters, but is a rather deplorable novel. It has no drift, no unity, no steady guiding light. At first, imagination rests on the gratuitously disagreeable architect, Kenniston. Much as it may be regretted, one feels called on to give first attention to him and his affairs. Presently he and his interests fall back, and a familiar yet ever-welcome figure, with long boots, jingling spurs, and a slouch hat, this time yclept Jack Espey, steps to the front, at once capturing attention by the announcement that the sheriff is after him for murder done in Tanglefoot Cove. After a short and brilliant run, Espey is relegated to a minor part; a new star appears in the Tennessee heavens; the mind reverts to the title of the book, and proceeds slowly to adjust itself to recognition of Jasper Larrabee, the discoverer of the star, as the real and only hero. The effort is not successful, for having got through half the book with little aid from Jasper, and none from the "gracious, supernal, stellular presence" (his star), we cannot feel that they were intended from the beginning, and resent the prominence hereafter allotted them. The failure to foresee from the beginning, and with that foresight to feel, proportion, value, interdependence of character and incident, is irredeemable failure as a novelist.

In Miss Murfree's case, failure is happily mitigated by spirited incidents and by the surprising naturalness and drollery of her mountaineers. Though she has represented or imagined (we decline positively to commit ourselves) so many, those who appear in 'His Vanished Star' are perfectly fresh, vigorous, and spontaneous. The only suggestion of weakness or concession to convention here is in the substitution of remarkably beautiful maidens for the gaunt, hollow-eyed, weary women of the early stories. It may argue a thankless disposition, but, as we could cheerfully part with all Miss Murfree's novels if that were necessary to keep even one of her stories, so we would willingly sacrifice her lovely Julias and Adelicias for one of those pinched and heart-starved women whom she pictured, as they stood, for ever holding out pleading, empty hands to the indifferent passing years.

Mr. Crockett, the Scotch author of the volume of excellent sketches entitled 'The Stickit Minister,' makes his first appearance as a novelist in 'The Raiders.' His qualities and defects are very like Miss Murfree's. He can give a swift, vivid impression of a detached incident, and fill with the breath of life characters studied by the shores and among the hills of his native Galloway, but he cannot, or, at least in the 'Raiders,' does not, link the incidents deftly, or develop the characters with any appearance of inevitableness. For a story of romantic adventure his period and scene are admirably chosen, and there are so many blood-curdling perils and critical moments, such a tangle of smugglers and gypsies and wild Highlanders, such a flourish of dirks and cracking of pistols, that the imperfect coherence is only a fault of art through which the momentary interest suffers no diminution. Besides, only Sir Walter Scott (a large exception) has given the Scotch cattle lifters, gypsies, and kindred red-handed men their proper prominence in fiction; so Mr. Crockett has the luck to offer novelty of a peculiarly stimulating kind. In both matter and style he swings to and fro between old-fashioned romanticism and modern realism, and these variations may be taken to mean that he has deliberately fashioned his novels on Sir Walter's. With due recognition of possible admiration for a master so profound as to incite to conscious imitation, we are inclined to give Mr. Crockett exclusive credit for his well-adjusted variety of manner; all the praise for versatile talent wide enough to include subtle humor and genuine pathos, broad comedy and dignified tragedy; and all the honor for the original creative ability displayed in the figure of Johnne Faa, Lord and Earle of Little Egypt.

By placing the adventures of 'Cheap Jack Zita' in the Fens of Cambridgeshire, Mr. Baring-Gould gets the advantage of a locality as attractive to the imagination and less familiar in fiction than are the Scotch Highlands. For picturesqueness, too, the nomadic Cheap Jack serves about as well as any other sort of a vagrant; and when he, or in this instance she, is announced on the title-page, one plunges in with the comforting assurance that, whatever the story may be, it is not likely to be dull. This story opens uncommonly well, catching the fancy by the Cheap Jack's audacity in plying his trade at the very doors of the minster of St. Etheldreda. Zita's first appearance, as she takes her father's place to harangue and cozen her despised general public from the front of her van, is a great success, and her spirit, shrewdness, and ready wit are sustained vivaciously through all her subsequent trials. The scene in court where she ignores the dignity of the bench and upsets its gravity is irresistibly comic, and that in the Red Wing Mill, where she seriously attempts to "make a deal" for her lover with a supposed rival, is hardly less so. Though she does herself no injustice by declaring that she is Cheap Jack to the end of her fingers, by involving her in tragedy the author shows her private integrity distinctly separated from her public unveracity and humbug, and endows her with a soul capable in emergency of scorning consideration of deals and profits. He has also rendered the Cheap Jack's point of view so sincerely and convincingly that one could hardly be sure it is not his own, unless he should answer in the negative the question with which Zita floored the presiding magistrate: "You never was a Cheap Jack, was you, your worship?"

By writing 'Claudia Hyde,' Miss Baylor has also written herself down reactionary. The home of the lady whose name breathes classic dignity and patrician estate was certainly Paradise, though geographically known as Virginia. When Gerald Mildmay, the English aristocrat (unjustly deprived of his confidently anticipated lordship, and reduced as alternative to tentative agriculture in America), enters the portals of Elysium, we fear the serpent; but no, he is a British angel directed by destiny to the very atmosphere fitted for the expansion of his wings. The intention which pervades, we cannot say animates, this novel, is so estimable that to dwell upon intrinsic improbability, upon unlikeness to human nature commonly seen, known, and experienced, seems like bare-faced iniquity. Yet it is our sorrowful duty to point out that absolutely harmonious combinations of impregnable virtue, lofty and cultivated intellect, and serenely dignified manners, are so rare as to put the guaranteed possessor beyond the accepted limit of possible mortal perfection, and to make him or her a mark for the scoff of the cynic and the mirth of the consciously imperfect. In the zeal of her effort to decry the emancipated woman, "the woman with fads, isms, cranks," the "woman who, like Samson, is pulling down the house, but by weakness, frivolity, and vice," the author has overwrought her figure of domestic virtue, has almost caricatured tranquil and refined family life, and has fairly wallowed in platitude.

Clearly, however, Miss Baylor is not hampered by any fancied necessity for drawing from life, and she is terribly addicted to fine writing. A very superficial observation of young Irish or English gentlemen would have saved her from perpetrating the wild absurdity embalmed in Flanders and Mildmay. Officers in her Majesty's service have neither the illiterate vocabulary nor the brogue of bog-trotters, and idle, athletic English noblemen do not habitually garnish their conversation with French phrases or erudite classic metaphor, such as "the Scylla of the county almshouse and Charybdis of the county jail." It must, in honesty, be noted that Mildmay fell into the classics after being domiciled with the Hydes, and that his case may have been one of mild infection from the old gentleman whose amusement it was to make scholarly criticism of Euripides, and the young lady who fed babes on spontaneous quotation from Horace. But the evidence of the whole is that Miss Baylor believes in the naturalness of her Mildmay, and that she is entirely with Claudia in perceiving about him "the *mille-fleurs bouquet* of the accomplished European gentleman, the repose of the Vere de Vere caste, the cachet of St. James." One cannot but regret the dulness of wit which condemned such a being to remain penniless when he might have made his everlasting fortune through the medium of a dime museum.

In the writing of short stories the British author has long been industrious, has occasionally risen above mediocrity, and once or twice has come near perfection. In the volume entitled 'Life's Little Ironies,' Mr. Hardy's great literary power almost triumphs over national inaptitude. For conciseness, directness, form, much is to be desired, but throughout his grasp of the subject and exposition of the idea are masterly. It is always taken for granted that his subjects and ideas shall be worth the pains of comprehension and development. Any one who may be beguiled by the title into anticipation of an hour's agreeable distraction will be much disappointed. These so-called 'Little Ironies' are, in truth, grinding tragedies, vulgar tragedies, always going on, wearing out hearts and souls, unmitigated by opportunity given for heroic pose or a transient enjoyment of enviable publicity. Irony there undoubtedly is, but it is savage, the irony of misfortune entailed by one's own act, inextricably woven with the fulfilment of the heart's desire. In addition to this irony of destiny, there is Mr. Hardy's personal irony, which does not precisely move to heart-easing mirth, and by whose unsparing use he joins to the office of narrator that of commentator and judge. "As ye sow so shall ye reap," summarizes his judgment, which is amplified by the comment, If you happen to sow like a fool, why should I sentimentalize over your folly or permit any one else the luxury of undiluted compassion? In the elimination of sentimentality from fiction, he goes further than any English novelist, and in this volume he presses that desirable reform to such an extreme that we wonder what sorrow or infirmity we might heartily pity without feeling either contemptible or ridiculous.

Mr. Zangwill vexes not his soul to unfold the mystery of pain and the futility of passion. The stories in the volume entitled 'The King of Schnorrers' are undisguisedly superficial, and meant for entertainment only. The title-story is very clever. The impudence of the Jewish beggar is so ingenious and imperturbable that it clothes him with a dignity supposed to be the birthright of kings. The rest of the volume may be labelled "warious," comprising tales of love, fantasy, and humorous adventure. They are trifling, jocular, flippant, and spasmodically clever. They assume to impart casually the liberal knowledge of a man of the world, but the real display is of the knowingness of an incorrigible gamin. As a delineator of Jewish character and customs, Mr. Zangwill is an author to be cherished, but when he goes prancing among the end-of-the-century London gentiles, he is an author whose existence is not necessary for the perpetuation of the tradition of polite letters.

Mrs. Steel's volume of stories entitled 'The Flower of Forgiveness' displays more lavishly than did her recent novel her intimate knowledge of life in the Empire of India and her feeling for the natives. She seems to see with their eyes and speak with their voice. Several, if not all, of these stories have appeared in English magazines, and are probably earlier compositions than the novel. In the art of tale-telling she is rather uncertain, being fond of a doubtful ending, and not able to insinuate delicately a satisfactory probability. But of stories to tell she has a fine lot, and a large variety of character and situation. She presents in easy succession plodding peasants, turbulent tribesmen, religious fanatics, wandering minstrels, artisans, beggars, criminals, all decreed to be what they are from the beginning of time, and almost all content to remain what they are to the end. Western discontent and unrest make but slight impression on their imperturbable, devout acquiescence in the fiat of the ages. Even their profound deference to the ubiquitous "Presence," the worshipful representative of the Empress, is tinged with contemptuous irony, as who would say, "We crawl before you because we must, but you, thing of a day, shall pass away and we, the unchangeable, remain for ever." All this feeling is given by the author through the lips of her people and the movement of her tales. Whether it is just or not, it is so strong as to seem to be truth itself, and what more than that can the wise demand of a story teller? Occasionally she diverges into direct information, into criticism of the powers, and sarcastic reference to the reformers who find Europe and America too contracted for their zeal. Her information strikes the ignorant as correct, and the powers can probably bear her criticism without flinching. As for her sarcasm, there is not the slightest danger of its depriving the Indian Empire of the services of one young man or woman whose enthusiasm in a dragon hunt can be satisfied by nothing short of a go at the hoariest antiquity.

The miners and irrigators of the Pacific Slope have had a long run in fiction, and show no signs of becoming defunct. Bret Harte's 'Protégé of Jack Hamlin's' and Mrs. Foote's 'In Exile' resound with the click of the pick and swish of reluctant water between alien banks. Mr. Harte's volume again testifies to that diminution of creative vigor which has so often of late years chilled the soul of his admirers. His persistent resuscitation of Jack Hamlin is painful. He died in his completeness. Perhaps we could have better spared a better man, but why should his poor ghost disturb a memory ever green? "An Ingénue of the Sierras" gleams here and there with the old-time brilliancy, and, thankful for that, one can afford to forget the shabbiness of its companions. Mrs. Foote's little love stories are agreeable, as love stories with the genuine ring always have been and will be, yet the only notable tale is not of love, but of wreck and the horror of slavery. It is called "The Alcazar," and is told by an ancient mariner looking down at the hulk of a weed-clothed slave-ship. It was published many years ago, we think, in the *Century Magazine*, and is instinct with a strength and elevation of imagination which Mrs. Foote has never since quite reached. By its presence a touch of distinction is added to the pleasantness of the volume.

The title-story of Mr. Perry's volume, 'Salem Kittredge,' takes precedence in quality as well as position. Though not told in dialect or adorned with startling phrases, it has the unimpeachable American birth-mark and is a distinctly original addition to our fiction. Wandering in foreign lands, Mr. Perry lapses into conventions, and it would probably be well if he should take to himself the moral of his presumably allegorical tale, "An Incorrigible Poet," and stay at home. The wisdom, in his case, of fidelity to the well known, is evident towards the close of the volume in the tale "Number Three." Here is a situation possible only in America, and beautifully fit to capture the national smile.

## A COLUMBIAN CARTULARY.

*Christopher Columbus:* his own Book of Privileges, 1502. A photographic facsimile of the manuscript. Transliteration and translation by George F. Barwick; introduction by Henry Harrisse. The whole edited by B. F. Stevens. London, 1893. Folio. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

In 1502, just as Columbus was starting on his last voyage, depressed with the prospect of a denial of all his supposed rights, he determined to put the record of the royal and official documents in his favor beyond the chance of destruction. He caused four copies to be made, varying somewhat in number of documents, and in the perfectness of some, and these were attested by a notary. One of these collections, on paper, less perfect than the three others, which were on parchment, he sent off to his factor to be preserved in the New World. This one has disappeared. A second was sent to the Convent of Las Cuevas, where the discoverer's body was later first laid. Our last positive knowledge of this second copy is that in one of the law-suits brought by Columbus's heirs for the recovery of his rights, in 1583, it was produced in court, as we learn from the 'Memorial del Pleyto,' where it is described as a bound volume. There is a probable later trace of this Cuevas manuscript.

In 1818 Mr. Edward Everett bought in Florence a manuscript book, to which he was attracted by the reference to Columbus in the title, but its cramped chirography and bewildering contractions prevented at that time a careful examination of it. In 1823 the Government of Genoa had directed Father Spotorno to print and annotate that one of the four copies preserved in that city, which was published as the 'Codice diplomatico Colombo-Americano.' When this book reached Mr. Everett, it reminded him of his purchase, and, in comparing the Florentine manuscript with the printed text, he found it substantially the same. The 'Codice' proved, however, to have a few documents at the end not contained in the Florentine copy. About this time, in December, 1824, he delivered his Plymouth oration, and, when printing this address early in 1825 at Boston, he added, apropos of a reference to Columbus in the text, a note, in which he described the manuscript in his possession and set forth the story of his obtaining it. This recital was not reprinted in any of the subsequent editions of that oration, but it is cited at length by Mr. Harrisse in his present introduction, wherein that writer adds: "Mr. Everett never again referred to the subject, and [his] is the only description ever made of that valuable manuscript, which has since disappeared altogether."

This is not quite true. Mr. Everett had said that Spotorno's book had been shown to him by a friend, and it is probable that this friend was the late Caleb Cushing, who, a few months later, in the *North American Review* (October, 1825), took occasion to use Spotorno's text for rehearsing the story of Columbus's life. At the conclusion of this article he gave a second brief description of the Florentine manuscript in these words:

"This curious and valuable manuscript, which we have slightly examined and compared with Spotorno's book, is of parchment, written with great elegance, and bears every mark of being from two to three hundred years of age. It begins with Pope Alexander's bull of partition, and then follow the documents which we have designated above as the first set in the *Codice diplomatico*. Another bull of Alexander copied on paper is also placed within the covers. Mr. Everett's manuscript, so far as it goes, is a much more perfect one than the Oderigo [Genoa] manuscript, as several passages which Spotorno was unable to decipher in the latter are very plain and legible in the former, which indeed is in most complete preservation. We hope Mr. Everett will favor

the public with a more particular account of his manuscript and note the variations between this and the printed copy."

Dr. William Everett, at the time the present writer inquired of him about it a few years ago, was not aware that his father had ever had or described such a manuscript, and could give no explanation of its disappearance. It is, of course, not impossible that it may hereafter come to light.

The third and fourth copies made for Columbus—the Spotorno codex being one—were transmitted to a friend of the Admiral, Nicolò Oderigo, for preservation in Genoa. That one of the two already mentioned has what is supposed to be the original binding, but apparently the other was enclosed unbound in a leather bag. This bag is now at Genoa, and is pictured in the present book. The introduction says of it that "it is the only object once belonging to Columbus which has come down to us." We might discard the Madrid armor and the pen-and-ink sketch sometimes associated with the great seaman, but had supposed the books preserved at Seville, with Columbus's annotations in them, were satisfactory "objects" of this kind.

These two Oderigo cartularies were in 1670 given by his heirs to the republic of Genoa. Some time after 1700 one of them disappeared, but was recognized in 1816 in a sale in Genoa of Count Cambiaso's library, when it was bought by the King of Sardinia and given to Genoa. This was the one used by Spotorno. It was again printed at Havana in 1867, and the Royal Columbian Commission, acting under a warrant from King Humbert, are to include it in their great *Raccolta*, now in course of publication. Meanwhile the city of Genoa has caused a few photographic copies of it to be made. This present Genoa codex is somewhat less perfect than the other now to be mentioned, and is described as being in a different hand—"more neatly and legibly written, with beautiful Arabesque ornaments by pen and brush, and many of the initial letters are artistically illuminated."

The other Oderigo copy was seen in Genoa as late as 1805, and was a part of the plunder taken by Napoleon the First to Paris, and not returned when other portions of such plunder were sent back by the allies. It was supposed to have been lost till about fourteen years ago. In 1880 the archives of the Foreign Office in Paris were thrown open to investigators, and Mr. Harrisse was one of the first to avail himself of the new privileges. Among other documents laid before him was a volume marked with the initials of the French Republic, in a binding of green morocco, which had apparently been put upon the manuscript at some time intervening between 1848 and 1852. Harrisse could discover no signs of an earlier binding; and when he found it to be a collection of the privileges, patents, and concessions granted to Columbus, he knew he had discovered the lost copy of the two sent to Oderigo, preserving in attested form the documents which in their original shape are now in good part owned by the Duke of Veragua. The finder first made known his success in his Life of Columbus, published in 1884, which was big enough to satisfy even Mr. Harrisse's luckless derision of "ponderosity."

During the Columbian year this treasure was publicly exhibited in the Bibliothèque Nationale in Paris, subsequent to which Mr. Stevens was allowed to take the negatives so effectively used in the present production. The volume before us matches in size the Stevens Facsimiles, and the reproductory leaves are separated by others containing, in an adroit way, both the extended transliteration and an English version exactly corresponding, page for page. There are also added at the end similar reproductions and elucidations of three well-known letters of Columbus, explaining his interest in this act of attestation. The book is curiously bound, in a way to suggest the period, "in half pig-skin, with plank board sides and [brass, anchor-shaped] clasps."

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*Big-Game Shooting.* By Clive Phillipps-Wolley. With contributions by Sir Samuel W. Baker, W. C. Oswell, F. J. Jackson, Warburton Pike, F. C. Selous, Lieut.-Col. R. Heber Percy, Arnold Pike, Major Algernon C. Heber Percy, W. A. Baillie-Grohman, Sir Henry Pottinger, Bart., Earl of Kilmorey, Abel Chapman, Walter J. Buck, and St. George Littledale. London: Longmans, Green & Co.; Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 2 vols. Illustrated. [The Badminton Library.]

In all books on sport not purely in the domain of fiction, there is apt to be a sameness which becomes monotonous, but in the present work this fault is reduced to a minimum. The two rather formidable-looking volumes contain articles on big-game shooting all over the world, and in each instance the chapter is written by a man of known experience. The initial chapter "On Big-Game Shooting Generally," by the editor, is excellent as an introduction to what follows—neither made tedious by an excess of detail nor abortive by too much generalization. There are five other articles by the same author, "Big Game of North America," "The Caucasus," "Mountain Game of the Caucasus," "Camps, Transport, etc.," and "Hints on Taxidermy, etc." Of the American chapter we cannot speak in praise. Everybody who knows anything about American big game is aware that the best and in fact at present only remaining good hunting-grounds are to be found in western Wyoming, Idaho, Montana, and eastern Washington, as well as in a few remote spots in Utah and New Mexico. Mr. Wolley was actually quite unacquainted with any of them when he wrote for this book his "Big Game of North America," and the only acquaintance he had with any portion of the western United States was represented by a three weeks' hunt in a populated district of Colorado! Mr. Wolley appears to have made his home in Victoria, the capital of British Columbia, a country which, it is generally conceded, is by no means a paradise for the big-game hunter; for though there is plenty of big game there, the exceedingly dense forests which Mr. Wolley, in a moment of forgetfulness, confesses "fairly swallow a man up," make it difficult to find and more difficult to kill. Mr. Wolley's special fad appears to be to pose as a "hard" man who roams the forest in the guise of an Indian, with the silent footfall of the aboriginal hunter. In his list of camp requirements he recommends his tender-feet readers to take two spare deerskins with them to patch their moccasins! British Columbia will see few readers of the Badminton volumes who will want a single patch. One day's trial on rocky ground, we have always found, is in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred enough for men not accustomed to this footgear, prominently as it appears in their accounts of their sport. And besides, does Mr. Wolley really think that the sportsman-visitor to British Columbia will have to use up two whole deerskins for patches before he can expect to kill a deer and thus obtain a supply of patching? Mr. Wolley has quite unconsciously come nearer the truth than he knew, for, to judge by what the writer has seen of these hunting-grounds in two extended shooting expeditions, one can view more game in one day in Wyoming and Idaho than in six months in British Columbia.

By far the most readable articles, from a purely literary point of view, in the book are those on South African shooting by W. Cotton Oswell. Their charm consists in the fact that they are the true recital of personal adventure, that they treat of early days on "The Dark Continent," and tell of thrilling exploits in the most modest and straightforward way. This writer was with Livingstone in Africa, and a personal friend of his. He hunted for years in what must have been the original "Happy Hunting Grounds," and killed every kind of game found there, without the help of improved weapons and modern comforts.

The contrast is very marked between his methods and those of the author who follows him with several articles on modern sport in East Africa, F. J. Jackson. His idea of the equipment necessary for a hunting trip to those parts is so elaborate as to preclude the possibility of any but those "with money to burn" ever following his course, and the luxuries he mentions appear to the uninitiated rather foreign to the idea of the hardy hunter. In speaking of "Camp gear," he says, "Comfort in camp should be one of the first considerations," and he must have had it—a tent with floor-cloth, and bath-room attachment; iron bedstead, with cork mattress and a leather pillow stuffed with hair, and three linen cases for the same; a good bath ("and this should be an ordinary oval one with lid"—"an awkward load for a porter, and one he dislikes very much, but it is well worth taking"); mosquito curtain with calico top, etc. He also mentions that, "before having the mosquito curtains removed in the morning, it is a good thing to take a cup of coffee or cocoa before getting out of bed." Rather luxurious sport this! And when one stops to consider that all these things must be "packed" on the backs of men, he realizes the great outlay such a trip must involve. Imagine that bath-tub going through the woods! Mr. Jackson scorns a rubber one. Still, if a man can afford these things, he should undoubtedly have them on a trip which is sure to be a hard and dangerous one.

After disposing of African and American shooting, the second volume takes us almost to the North Pole after walrus and polar bear, then through all the mountainous districts of Europe and Asia, a very considerable space being occupied by articles on shooting in India by Lieut.-Col. Reginald Heber Percy; and finally closes with three eminently practical chapters on camping, rifles and ammunition, and taxidermy. With the exception noted, the book is most complete, with room for pure adventure, zoölogy, and, above all, practical instruction in hunting the various kinds of big game. One would, however, hardly sit down and read it through for the pleasure of reading.

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*Ancient Ships.* By Cecil Torr. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1894.

Doubt is at once aroused as one turns over the illustrations in Mr. Torr's new book and fails to find among them Graser's time-honored restoration of the exceedingly uncomfortable "between-decks" of a Greek trireme. Doubt be-

comes suspicion as one reads (page 45), "There are no materials for rigidly determining the relative positions of the lines of rowers in these three-banked ships or in the larger warships." The words of the preface, "Evidence from all sources falls short of what is needed for a complete description of the ships," makes of suspicion a certainty, and Mr. Torr stands disclosed as an original worker and not a mere compiler of treatises, dissertations, and "programmes." He has in preparation a 'History of Ancient Shipping,' by which title he means a history of commerce in the Mediterranean from 1000 B. C. to 1000 A. D. The present small volume is a *prælusio* to the whole, and deals merely with the nature of the ships themselves.

In presenting his subject, Mr. Torr has followed the model of Hermann's 'Lehrbuch.' The main facts are given in coarse print, covering generally not more than half a page, or even less; the arguments and the authorities are subjoined in copious footnotes, and these notes are to the student the most valuable part of the whole. The book is not divided into chapters, but the principal subjects, indicated by the running titles, are Ships with Oars, Arrangement in Banks, Dimensions, Tonnage, Materials, Structure of the Hull, Anchors, Cables, Steering-gear, Rigging, Flags, Sounding-lead, Log, etc. Then follows an appendix in which are briefly described thirty different types of ships or boats aside from the regular men-of-war. There are full indexes of subjects and authorities, and the book ends with forty-seven illustrations, fully described, and all taken from ancient works, no restorations being admitted.

In a work like this, which may be called encyclopædic in its own little field, errors will declare themselves only after frequent consultation, verification, and use. But few of these are, we think, to be feared, for there is practically nothing here in the way of theory, and, consequently, we have for the first time a dispassionate statement of what the author has found in the original sources, and no more. He is, of course, acquainted with the modern literature of his subject from De Baif in 1536 down; but this acquaintance has taught him distrust, and in his preface he gives several amusing instances of the absurdities which abound in our manuals because the compilers have trusted their predecessors instead of going to the sources for themselves. He himself depends first upon inscriptions, chiefly the inventories of the Athenian dock-yards; second, on the literary evidence, though this, unfortunately, consists for the most part of mere passing allusions; third, upon the material sources, such as the ruins of the docks in Athens and the works of art. In using the latter he has carefully avoided, so far as he could, the danger of taking them at second-hand, and most of the illustrations which he gives are from photographs or from casts. The statements of scholiasts and ancient lexicographers he has the courage to reject altogether. The whole book, therefore, rests upon the soundest foundation, and the author deserves hearty thanks for his clear and accurate presentation of what is really known on a subject that has hitherto been obscured by clouds of words.

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*Overheard in Arcady.* By Robert Bridges. Charles Scribner's Sons.

It would be hard to find a more attractive-looking volume than 'Overheard in Arcady,' by the well-known "Droch" of *Life*. Paper-maker, printer, illustrator, and binder have combined to achieve what might be truthfully advertised as "an elegant souvenir for a lady." The author's part in the performance is not so serious as to annoy the lady by a discovery that she is a victim of the trick of the gilded pill, nor so brilliant as to make him an object of invidious distinction to his fellow-workmen. The device of criticising authors through the medium of dialogue conducted by their own creations, passes for cleverness when worked through weekly instalments of a publication avowedly frivolous, but, between covers, the ingenuity of the device palls and its unfairness assumes proportions. This unfairness is comprehensive, affecting both critic and criticised. Among the voices in Arcady, it is easy to distinguish the authoritative one, that of Mr. Bridges, and since the opinions it utters are generally in cordial agreement with our own, we believe them to be unimpeachable. By expressing his opinions in a manner imitative of people created by Mr. Howells, Mr. Kipling, or Mr. Stevenson, the author not only loses the force which a man's own style gives to his ideas, but also, largely, the credit of the ideas. The unfairness to the authors is clear. Caricature and even burlesque of serious work are held to be legitimate, chiefly because they are provocative of laughter, but Mr. Bridges has not played the buffoon; he has, with considerable travail, just caught and caged far-off reverberations of other men's thunder.

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*In Maiden Meditation.* By E. V. A. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

Blue sashes, white muslin frocks, and graduating-day at a young ladies' seminary would seem the natural and harmonious accompaniments to compositions written in the strain of these five essays. Not, however, because their writer has not taken pains to explain that she has "wandered among many ages and climes of literature," and not because she has failed to give the world at large her profound attention. Some of her deepest reflections occur to her while her "ball dress is thrown over the chair." In the main they might have filled the soul of Miss Pinkerton with pride if her favorite, Amelia Sedley, had written them. Becky Sharp, it is quite certain, never would have written them. The reader is adroitly put upon his mettle to distinguish between other people's thoughts and the author's own by being told beforehand that quotation marks are always omitted, on the flattering supposition that he has "wandered as widely" as the authoress herself. He is also reminded that no one can be expected to be wholly original, not even "Homer, singing the myths and traditions of olden Greece, nor yet inspired Shakspere, embodying into classic and enduring form the legends of all lands and ages." "E. V. A.'s" own method of increasing her acquaintance with literature deserves attention: "Often, when sewing or dressing, I have before me a book with marked passages, or a newspaper clipping, that I am conning again and again, or I am repeating some verse or sentiment that has struck my fancy. I believe that the most delightful and satisfactory education is gained in this way, little by little, until it is wrought in the memory, is a part of one's being, and seems but the echo of one's own thought."

The reader who elects to follow these meditations at first hand can be promised entertainment on several grounds. Like egotism in a new acquaintance, they will be found agreeable while one is taking their measure. A slight thread of personal history runs through them, of course stringing a romance. Moreover, ingenuousness, and freshness, and youthful exuberance, even when it overflows in authorship, have always their own attraction. And, finally, a volume like this grows less and less likely to be duplicated. Its sentiments are those of a departing generation, if not a departing type of womankind. Manifold influences are at work to evaporate them. No one can regret their passing, but they command something of the tenderness of feeling that a parting always momentarily brings with itself.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Superfluous Woman. Cassell. 50 cents.
Bennett, Prof. W. H. The Books of Chronicles. [The Expositor's Bible.] Armstrong. $1.50.
Berens, E. M. A Hand Book of Mythology. Maynard, Merrill & Co. $1.
Berkeley, Charles de. Vieille Histoire. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Binet, Alfred. On Double Consciousness. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Clédat, Prof. Léon. Grammaire Raisonnée de la Langue Française. Paris: H. Le Soudier; New York: Westermann.
Cobb, Thomas. The Disappearance of Mr. Derwent: A Mystery. F. T. Neely. 50 cents.
Conway, Moncure D. Centenary History of the South Place Society. London: Williams & Norgate; New York: Putnams. $2.
Davidson, W. L. Theism as Grounded in Human Nature. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Deschamps, Gaston. La Vie et les Livres. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Doubleday, E. S. Just Plain Folks. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Frazer, Persifor. A Manual of the Study of Documents. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
Fundenberg, Elizabeth H. First Lessons in Reading. American Book Co. 25 cents.
Gibbes, Emily O. Essays. C. T. Dillingham & Co.
Goethe, J. W. The Sorrows of Werther. Mascot Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Houssaye, Arsène. La Pécheresse. Paris: Calmann Lévy: New York: Charles Eitel.
Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. Army. Vol. XV. Universidad—Vzoroff. Washington: Government Printing Office.
Keneally, Miss Arabella. Dr. Janet of Harley Street. Appletons.
Lang, Andrew. Cock Lane and Common Sense. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.25.
*Littell's Living Age.* April—June, 1894. Boston: Littell & Co.
Maitland, J. A. F. Masters of German Music. Scribners. $1.75.
Manley, R. M. The Queen of Ecuador. H. W. Hagemann Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Marryat, Florence. Parson Jones. Cassell. 50 cents.
McKenzie, F. A. Sober by Act of Parliament. London: Swan Sonnenschein.
Nichols, Prof. E. L. A Laboratory Manual of Physics and Applied Electricity. Vol. I. Macmillan. $3.
Oman, Prof. J. C. The Stories of the Ramayana and the Mahabharata. [Great Indian Epics.] London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Pestalozzi, J. H. How Gertrude Teaches her Children. London: Sonnenschein; Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen.
Ramsbotham, F. S. Scenes from the Persæ of Æschylus. Longmans, Green & Co. 50 cents.
Ransom, J. U. Longman's German Composition. Longmans, Green & Co. 90 cents.
Spyers, T. G. The Labor Question: An Epitome of the Evidence and the Report of the Royal Commission on Labor. London: Sonnenschein: New York: Scribners. $1.
Stevenson, R. L., and Osbourne, L. The Ebb-Tide. Cambridge: Stone & Kimball.
Stone, Roy. New Roads and Road Laws in the United States. D. Van Nostrand Co. $1.50.
Taube, Baron G. von. Countess Janina. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
The Letters of Amerigo Vespucci, and Other Documents illustrative of his Career. London: The Hakluyt Society.
The Shorter Poems of Robert Bridges. London: George Bell & Sons.
The Women's Conquest of New York. Harpers. 25 cents.
Thornton, John. Human Physiology. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Trumbull, Rev. H. C. Studies in Oriental Social Life. Philadelphia: J. D. Wattles & Co. $2.50.
Tuckwell, Gertrude M. The State and its Children. London: Methuen & Co.
Turgeneff, I. Rudin: A Novel, translated by Constance Garnett. Macmillan. $1.25.
Walton, Alice. The Cult of Asklepios. [Cornell Studies in Classical Philology.] Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.25.
Wardrop, Marjory. Georgian Folk Tales. London: David Nutt.
Waring, G. E. Modern Methods of Sewage Disposal. D. Van Nostrand Co. $2.
Walker, Prof. Williston. A History of the Congregational Churches in the United States. Christian Literature Co. $3.
Wenley, R. M. Aspects of Pessimism. Edinburgh: William Blackwood & Sons.
Williamson, Benjamin. Introduction to the Mathematical Theory of the Stress and Strain of Elastic Solids. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Williams College: A Record of the Centennial Commemoration. Cambridge: John Wilson & Son.
Willis, O. R. A Practical Flora. American Book Co. $1.50.
Wolf, T. Geografia y Geologia del Ecuador. Leipzig: F. A. Brockhaus; New York: Westermann. $8.
Woods, Virna. A Modern Magdalene. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Worcester, Dr. A. Small Hospitals. John Wiley & Sons. $1.25.
Wright, C. F. An Outline of the Principles of Modern Theosophy. Boston: New England Theosophical Corporation.

# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 2, 1894.

## The Week.

SENATOR CAFFERY'S speech of July 24 was the most illuminating discourse that has been pronounced on the differences between the House and Senate. Moreover, it coincided exactly with public opinion, and confirmed public suspicion in a remarkable way. Mr. Caffery had got tired of carrying the Sugar Trust on his back in addition to the sugar-planters of his own State. So he proceeded to unload the former, and in so doing he deposited the burden where all attentive observers have been convinced that it belonged—on the shoulders of Gorman and Brice. As Mr. Gorman had taken occasion to report private interviews he (Caffery) would improve the opportunity likewise. He was at a little conference at which were present, among others, Messrs. Brice and Gorman. It was decided at that conference that 40 per cent. on raw and 50 per cent. on refined sugar was proper. Then he continued:

"I took that schedule to the finance committee and gave it to Senator Jones. Mr. Jones, after a calculation, pointed out that in the differential allowed the refiners was concealed a differential greater than that in the McKinley law. I thereupon withdrew it. After further consultation I presented another schedule, placing 1 cent on raw and 1⅛ on refined. So it remained for some time when I was admonished by Mr. Gorman and Mr. Brice that this second schedule meant free sugar. Mr. Jones told us that the sugar-refining interests would favor free sugar if that schedule was insisted upon. He wanted me to accept 40 per cent. on raw and refined and ⅛ differential on refined. That schedule was not acceptable to me or the sugar-growers, and I want the country to know that *it was dictated by the refining interests.* At last we accepted it, with the understanding that the bounty provision for 1894 should stand. I call on Senators Vest and Jones to say whether what I have said is not true."

Senators Vest and Jones by their silence admitted the truth of Mr. Caffery's statement. Then the Senator from Louisiana referred in sarcastic terms to Mr. Gorman's statement of the previous day that, however distasteful the sugar duty was to him, he knew that the two votes of the Louisiana Senators were essential to the passage of the bill.

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This was a perfectly crushing exposure. It showed up Gorman as the secret attorney of the Sugar Trust all the way through. Yet this man had made a three-hours' speech in denunciation of what he called executive interference with the Senate, affirming that he and his faction had been sacrificing their own principles and views of the public good to the necessity of framing a tariff bill that could command forty-three votes. How were these votes to be had? By yielding to the Louisiana Senators a duty of 40 per cent. ad valorem on all sugars and ⅛ cent additional on refined. Now comes the Louisiana Senator and says it is no such thing. Instead of Gorman yielding the ⅛ cent to him, he yielded it to Gorman. The sugar refineries seeking protection were not in his State, but in Maryland, Ohio, and New Jersey. That settles the whole question. Everybody suspected beforehand that Gorman, Brice, and Smith were the props and bulwarks of the Sugar Trust. Now they know it.

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For the first time in twelve months, the July Treasury statement shows a balance to the good. The change is mostly due to the great increase in internal-revenue receipts, which have nearly doubled for the month. Great quantities of spirits have been withdrawn from bond in anticipation of a higher tax, just as, in 1890, the importations and customs receipts ran up to an enormous figure in the two or three months before the enactment of the McKinley bill with its higher duties. There can be no doubt that, if a tariff bill could be passed within ten days, importations, which are now only hand-to-mouth, would speedily take on great proportions, and the Government would have all the money it needs. There is an immense amount of goods in bond, upon which importers are drawing only to fill orders. With the tariff uncertainty brought to an end, a great trade movement would almost infallibly set in. The demand of the business community is that Congress shall make or break the new tariff quickly.

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The *Financial Chronicle* publishes a table of our gold exports and imports for fourteen years, beginning with the year 1881. Each year is the fiscal year ending June 30. Consequently the table is complete from July 1, 1880, to June 30, 1894. The result is somewhat surprising in the smallness of our net exportation of gold, considering that we are one of the largest gold-producing countries in the world. The totals are these:

| Export 14 years. | Imports. | Net exports. |
|---|---|---|
| $566,767,791 | $494,041,410 | $72,726,381 |

During this time the country has produced, according to the reports of the director of the mint, $460,000,000 gold. The use of gold in the industrial arts during this time has been not more, but probably less, than $182,000,000. Now, if we add together the net exports and the amount used in the industrial arts, and subtract the same from the gold production of the country, we find that there has been a net addition to our gold money during the fourteen years of $204,000,000. The mint estimate of the gold in the country for monetary uses July 1, 1893, was $597,697,685. The net exports from July 1, 1893, to July 1, 1894, according to the *Chronicle*, were $4,500,000, while the gold production of the country for the same time was within a small fraction of $36,000,000, being $2,955,000 increase over the previous year, from which should be deducted $13,000,000 used in the arts. Therefore at the beginning of last month there was a net increase of $18,500,000, making a total of $616,197,685 of gold for monetary uses. This ought to quiet the fears of alarmists.

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One Southern State holds an election this week, and another next. The five judges of the Supreme Court in Tennessee are elected in a body once every eight years, and the terms of the present bench are just expiring. To-day the people will decide between a straight Democratic ticket of five names, and a fusion ticket made up of Republicans and Populists in the proportion of four to one. The contest is of special interest for the bearing of the results upon the November election, when a Governor will be chosen. If the fusion should win this week, the Republicans and Populists would combine again for the November election; but as Harrison and Weaver together in 1892 fell 13,000 short of Cleveland's vote, a Democratic victory seems altogether probable. On Monday next Alabama elects State officers. Here also there is a combination between the Republicans and the Populists, for the Kolb faction of Democrats are now the same as Populists. The Kolbites were very confident early in the canvass, being encouraged among other things by campaign contributions from the Home Market Club of Boston, made on the advice of Senator Hoar; but they seem to have lost ground as the canvass has proceeded, and it looks to an outsider as though the coalition would meet the defeat which it deserves.

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The Iowa Republicans have followed the example of their brethren in Kansas, and entirely ignored the liquor question in their platform. There is not even the perfunctory declaration in favor of temperance which is the last refuge of the timid politician. The incident is a striking proof of the decadence of prohibition. Only three or four years ago the party was declaring "against a compromise with the saloon," and pledging "continued opposition to the behests of the saloon power through the maintenance and enforcement of the prohibitory law." Last winter a Republican

Legislature virtually repealed that law by establishing a kind of local-option system, under which saloons may be started in any community which votes to have them; and now a Republican State convention, by its expressive silence, announces that the party has abandoned all pretence of further belief in prohibition.

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The judiciary committee of the House has reported favorably the bill already passed by the Senate for the suppression of the lottery traffic, through national and international commerce and the postal service, subject to the jurisdiction and laws of the United States. The measure is aimed at the old Louisiana lottery swindle, which has effected a lodgment at a Florida port and taken advantage of loopholes in the statutes to revive its business throughout the country. There is urgent need that the pending bill shall be passed, for reports from many places in the North as well as the South agree that the operations of the company are already large and daily growing. The measure is so carefully drawn that it seems as though it must prove effective. The endorsement of the judiciary committee shows that there is no technical objection to it, and every argument on moral grounds is in its favor. The only hope of its opponents is that they may defeat its passage by preventing its consideration, and public opinion should declare itself so strongly for action by the House that this policy cannot succeed.

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Josiah Quincy's National Lithographic Company at Washington has gone to smash. The hard times were too much for it—the hard times being in this case the failure to get the Patent Office printing for another year. How it got its first year's contract by a very close approach to fraud and collusion is now an old story. But Mr. Quincy's attempt to make the company out a bona-fide printing concern, with the Patent Office printing merely as an incident, looks queer enough beside the statements of the superintendent in his application for a receivership. He admits that the company never had any existence except upon paper, that only three shares of its nominal $100,000 stock were ever issued, and that even they were not paid for. Attachments and judgments are raining upon the company, the books are said to have been made off with, and there is a general scuttling on the part of all concerned. Mr. Quincy is reported to be in Boston, deliberating on the advisability of taking the nomination for mayor on the issue of reform.

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That was an extraordinary letter from Vice-President Brooks of the Pennsylvania Railroad which Mr. Choate submitted to the Constitutional Convention on Wednesday week. The general public has long had a growing impression that the free-pass abuse was getting worse and worse, but the revelations made by Mr. Brooks will surprise even the most suspicious. A simple prohibition by the Constitution of the granting of free passes will not suffice to abolish the abuse. Pennsylvania has had such a provision for twenty years, the language of the Constitution of 1873 being:

> "No railroad, railway, or other transportation company shall grant free passes, or passes at a discount, to any person except officers or employees of the company."

Yet Mr. Brooks testifies that members of all departments of the State Government of Pennsylvania, including nearly all the judges of the Supreme and inferior courts, receive, expect, and even ask for passes.

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Railroads that call for protection against rioters must not themselves turn rioters. The scandalous breach of the peace at Bridgeport on Thursday, in the conflict between the New Haven Road and a traction company, is only a sample of too frequent occurrences of that kind. Violence and the destruction of property and imperilling of life, to gain a momentary advantage or to win a technical legal point, are too common resorts of rival railroad corporations, and are worthy of just as severe condemnation and repression as the burning of cars and pillaging by strikers. A company appealing to the courts must come clean-handed, and must not itself be guilty of the things which it condemns in others. If there is any way of adequately punishing the men who were responsible for the outrage in Bridgeport, the city and State authorities ought not to let it slip. Law-defying corporations ought to be brought up with as sharp a turn as other anarchists.

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The railroads are beginning to present their "little bills" to the city of Chicago. One company alone figures up a direct loss of $449,000. This is one of the invariable "next morning" results of an anarchistic debauch. A lot of fun is to be had out of it while the riot is going on, and the politicians are sitting about watching property destroyed while they are discussing the sacred rights of labor and expounding nice points in constitutional interpretation. But the "Please remit at your earliest convenience" always comes along in due time, and the courts are right there to enforce payment. The least Mayor Hopkins and Gov. Altgeld can do is to turn in their salaries to help foot the bills which their fooling with fire has brought on the taxpayers.

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We find in the *American Architect* a clear statement of the reason why strikes nowadays always imply intimidation and violence. It was not always so. The old idea and original theory of a strike was a peaceful appeal to the facts as regards the labor market. The employer would assert that he could not afford to pay more, and that he could find men to do the work for the wages; this the employees would deny, and would quit work to see on which side the truth lay. If the master was able to get men for his money, the strike was a failure; if not, it was a success. When the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers first came into prominence by tying up the Eastern Railroad, they won, and won peaceably, because the company was actually unable to get skilled engineers to take the places of the strikers. But since that time the supply has so greatly increased, and strike after strike has thrown so many out of work and into other occupations temporarily, that a peaceful strike would now be nonsensical. The same is the case with nearly all other skilled trades, and with all unskilled labor. The condition of the labor market is now such that the idea of a peaceful trial of strength between men and employers is completely abandoned. Strikers hope for success at present only as they hope to be allowed to frighten or club away the men who are ready and anxious to take their places.

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The miners' strike in the Gogebic range of northern Michigan was declared off on Sunday, after the men had been idle for six weeks and lost $100,000 in wages. This strike furnishes an impressive illustration of the harm done to workingmen by the lower order of labor organizations. It was perfectly obvious to every unprejudiced observer that the movement stood no possible chance of success. The majority of the men themselves saw this and were averse to a strike. But they were tied up in an organization a leader of which was bent on "showing his power" and insisted upon ordering them out. He has drawn good pay during the past six weeks, while they have been half starving. Yet he would be a bold prophet who should venture to predict that these very men would not be fools enough to submit to such tyranny again within six months.

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The Berlin *Nation* points out an international effect of the cutting short of the reign of Debs. It regards the fresh demonstration of the absurdity of a general strike as bound to make a deep impression on European agitators. For years they have been mysteriously threatening to bring capital to its senses by a universal strike, until the possibility of playing such a trump-card has become one of the fixed articles of belief in the labor creed. But Debs has proved it to be an article of a falling church. The Social-Democratic *Vor-*

*wärts* admits this, while recognizing the fact that the American labor unions are stronger than those of any other country except England. But even if they were ten times as strong as they are, it says, "the proclamation of a general strike would be a blow in the water." If Debs has settled this question for Europe as well as for us, he has not been a Dictator and gone to jail in vain.

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Very serious complications are likely to arise in the Roman Catholic church because of Mgr. Satolli's approval of Bishop Watterson's exclusion of liquor-sellers from holding office in church societies. Without suggesting odious comparisons, we cannot ignore the fact that the retail liquor business, in the Eastern and Middle States at least, is largely in the hands of Roman Catholics; and it is very probable that most of them sell liquor on Sunday. In this city it has even happened that a dealer who did not wish to sell on Sunday was driven out of business by the persecution of the police; the authorities regarding him as a wicked and slothful servant who did not put out his talent at usury and earn enough to pay his assessments. If now the admonition of Mgr. Satolli to the bishops of other dioceses is mandatory, the unfortunate saloon-keeper will find himself "between the devil and the deep sea." Deprivation of the sacraments and resulting perdition threaten him if he sells liquor on Sunday, and temporal ruin hangs over him if he does not. Moreover, the community would regard with callous indifference the consummation of the alternative.

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To free ourselves from any charge of sectarian bias in this matter, we would call attention to certain statements made at a meeting of Protestant clergy at Saratoga. A layman, Mr. Dailey of the *Public Ledger* of Philadelphia, presented to the gathering some unpleasant facts ascertained by him during a six-months' investigation of the liquor traffic. He found that of 60,000 signers of applications for licenses a very large number were officers of churches, and not a few were officers of government. Presbyterians and Baptists were mentioned by name, and, in the Protestant Episcopal Church, "Sunday-school teachers, trustees, and thirty-seven vestrymen signed for from one to five times each." Mr. Dailey adds councilmen *galore;* but we do not attach much importance to this. As the judge said of drunkenness, according to the report in one of the oldest English law-books, in quashing a writ to remove an alderman for that failing—"that is something to which the best of them are liable." It is very clear that the Protestant clergy have some preliminaries to attend to before regarding the motes in the eyes of their Romish brethren, and it may be worth their while to see that they are not left behind in vigorous action against the abuses of the liquor traffic.

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The conviction of Capt. Doherty and his ward-men and their dismissal from the police force are a satisfactory outcome of the testimony against them before the Senate committee, and a conclusive answer to those who have attempted to belittle the disclosures Mr. Goff brought out by saying that they contained little or no legal evidence. It is significant of the prevailing public opinion that, so far as the Tammany commissioners are concerned, the result is accepted only as evidence of their willingness to sacrifice these particular officers. To attribute to them now a disinterested desire to purify the force after their former refusals to take any notice of repeated scandals affecting officers in the department, would be such credulity as even Mayor Gilroy never expects from the public. Doherty's testimony that he reported to the president of the board the fact that a persistent law-breaker was being accepted as bondsman for her accomplices, is the first revealed link between commissioners and suspected officers. That there was a connection has never been doubted since the Senate inquiry was begun. It shows how well founded was Mr. Goff's objection to the present trials during the recess of the committee, and may have an effect on the attempts of some of the commissioners to put all the responsibility upon Superintendent Byrnes. The captain said he went to the president because he thought that commissioner could check the scandal. Why should he have supposed that Commissioner Martin would act over the head of the chief executive officer in this particular instance? And why did Martin do nothing then, so far as is known, while now, in the light of exposure, he votes to try the sergeants who permitted this irregularity?

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The final form of the new Hawaiian Constitution, as proclaimed on July 4 by those who had dethroned a queen for doing the same thing, reveals several interesting features which show that the framers had followed current discussion with intelligence. Not a few articles are incorporated providing for what many reformers in this country have contended would be highly desirable for us. Thus the Supreme Court is made by article 40 the "sole judge" in disputed elections to either house. The President's term of office is fixed at six years, and he is not eligible to reëlection. A majority of the members elected, and not simply a majority of a quorum, is to be necessary to pass any law, which of itself would end filibustering without the need of authorizing the chairman, as he is authorized in article 48, to "count the members present for the purpose of ascertaining whether there is a quorum." Finally, Mr. Gamaliel Bradford will perceive, when he reads article 37, that his bread cast upon the waters, lo! these many years, is returning to him from Honolulu: "The members of the cabinet shall be *ex officio* members of both houses of the Legislature, with all the rights, powers, and privileges of elected members, except the right to vote."

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For the rest, the Constitution is frankly oligarchical. The Senate is the centre of power, and the property qualification for membership in that body and for the right to vote for members is so high that it is sure to be dominated by the few wealthy people in the islands. The Senate elects the President, and when it is not in session, provision is made for an anomalous council of state with autocratic powers. The suffrage is much more restricted than under the monarchy. A special provision is made, doubtless unexampled in constitutional literature, that if the Legislature refuses to vote salaries to Government officials, the minister of finance shall go on paying them just the same. In short, there is everywhere in the document the appearance of guarding against being "snowed under by the natives, who outnumber us," as Mr. Armstrong naïvely put the case. For such an end the Constitution is a very good one, and we do not well see how a handful of men could better rule a great mass of conquered people under the forms of liberty; but surely this is not the sacred Hawaiian freedom for which so much ink has been shed.

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Two articles of the French Government's bill for the repression of anarchists were excellently conceived. One of them calls for the solitary confinement of anarchists imprisoned under the new law. This will put an end to visiting delegations and flowers and interviews and theatrical posing. A still heavier blow is struck by the fifth article, forbidding the press to report anarchist trials. This will destroy what little glamour is left about the unlucky anarchist. Solitary confinement and trial unreported are enough to disgust any man seeking to acquire fame and do the world good by anarchist crimes. The indignant Deputy of the Revolutionary Socialist group who declared that the anarchist scare is being made use of to strangle the republic, ought not to complain. Carnot was assassinated not for private revenge, but for moral effect on the public. But the effect turns out to be, not to bring society to its knees, but to make it put a sharper edge on its guillotine, ready for anarchist necks. A party that sets about producing great moral effects, must take them as they come.

*WHERE THE PARTY STANDS.*

THE fight over the tariff bill has already lasted long enough to show where the Democratic party stands. It always takes a few days for public sentiment to formulate itself and secure expression through public meetings, the columns of the weekly newspapers, and the other channels of its utterance. Time enough for this purpose has now elapsed, and nobody can longer remain in doubt as to the sentiment of the party at large.

Indiana has always been a close State, and her politicians of both parties are keenly alive to the bearings of any new question which comes up. Gov. Matthews, the Democratic executive who behaved so energetically during the recent strike troubles, is in Washington, and brings this message from his party:

"Ninety per cent. of the Democrats of Indiana would rather have her members come back to them with the President's message and without any tariff bill, than bring home the Senate bill for which they would have to apologize from the first day of the campaign to its close."

Mr. Shanklin, editor of the Evansville *Courier*, and one of the most prominent Democratic politicians in the same State, writes that the President's attitude "is inspiring and will save our party from defeat." He reports that the indignation on account of the Senate's conduct has greatly increased since Gorman's attack upon Cleveland, and proceeds:

"The hope is everywhere expressed that the House will stand by the President to the last, refusing all overtures from the Senate, even at the peril of defeating any tariff measure. 'Better no legislation at all than the Senate bill,' is the expression heard everywhere from thoughtful Democrats. With the President, the House of Representatives, and the popular sentiment of the party on one side, and the Senate 'held up' by a half-dozen recalcitrants on the other, we should have an issue that would set Indiana ablaze with enthusiasm without any legislation at all; but if the Senate bill were passed as it now stands, we should have an apologetic campaign from the start, made all the more abject and hopeless by contrast with the splendid courage and steadfast fidelity of the President to party pledges."

The chairman and two ex-chairmen of the Howard County Democratic committee, the principal of the Kokomo high-school, the editor of the Kokomo *Dispatch*, and other leading Democrats unite in declaring their approval of the Wilson bill as passed by the House; "commend the President for his letter to Chairman Wilson"; "denounce the Senate bill as a departure from the Chicago platform and an attempt to deceive the plain, common people, who favor the Wilson bill heartily and wholly"; "denounce the speech of Senator Gorman as unworthy of any Democrat," and ask this plain question: "Why is it that the Senate bill as it stands is the best bill the Senate can pass, unless it is because you and your fellow-conspirators have utterly refused to vote for any measure which does embody the sentiment of the Democrats of the whole country?"

Democratic sentiment in Maryland found expression on Monday night in an immense public meeting at Frederick, which adopted with the greatest enthusiasm resolutions reciting the well-known facts as to the course of the "Senatorial Trust" toward tariff reform; characterizing as "foremost among these traitors to Democratic principles and these tools of corporations, monopolists, and Trusts, Arthur P. Gorman, a Senator from our own State"; cordially endorsing the Wilson bill "and the efforts of the great Democratic leader and patriot, Grover Cleveland, to carry out in good faith the platform and principles of the Democratic party"; repudiating and condemning "the Gorman-McKinley bill as designed, like its prototype, the William McKinley bill, to rob and plunder the masses of the people for the enrichment of corporations, monopolists, and Trusts"; and concluding:

"That we demand that Arthur P. Gorman resign his seat in the Senate of the United States, and give over misrepresenting an honest people in the interest and for the benefit of himself, corporations, monopolists, and Trusts; and we pledge ourselves to leave nothing honest undone to oust him from the seat he disgraces, should he fail to resign the same."

A prominent Democrat who was a delegate-at-large from his State to the last national Democratic Convention, writes to Mr. Wilson that he hopes the House will not yield, declaring that, if it should, "defeat is just as certain to overtake the party as the election comes." He says that he has been out among the people of West Virginia, and finds them in no mood to condone any trifling on the question. He adds:

"If the coal barons and the ironmongers and Sugar Trust are to dictate the policy of the party, what boots it to the people whether the Republican or the Democratic party is in power? If protection is right, let the Republicans have all the glory to be obtained by perpetuating it, but, for God's sake, let not the Democratic party surrender its principle or go over to the heresy."

Columns might be filled with such expressions of the feeling that pervades the Democratic party on this question. There is nothing to be set over against this. Not a single case has been reported in any part of the United States where a public meeting has been held or a declaration of public sentiment has been made in favor of the stand taken by Gorman and his few allies. The press of the country is substantially unanimous against them.

The differences between the Senate and the House, or, rather, between the Democrats of the House and the small Gorman "combine," involve a surrender by one party or the other. Which shall it be—the representatives of the people, or the representatives of the Trusts? No doubt is left as to how the Democratic party of the nation would answer that question. The issue should be made. We can stand the McKinley law a while longer, but we cannot afford to allow a precedent under which a few highwaymen in one branch of Congress may "hold up" a bill demanded by a majority of the people of the United States.

*DEMOCRATIC PROTECTIONISTS.*

THE attitude of such Senators as Mr. Gorman, Mr. Smith, and Mr. Caffery is in one sense surprising. They belong to a party which has long stood for a revenue tariff, and which succeeded at the last election on a platform which explicitly declared protective duties unconstitutional. But when the time comes for realizing what was promised to the people, and for actually abolishing protective duties, these men refuse to go with their party, and positively maintain that the measure now insisted on by the House is not such as good Democrats should support.

But if any one will be at the pains to read the speeches of these gentlemen, he will cease to feel surprised at their course. They reveal themselves as thoroughgoing, "dyed-in-the-wool" protectionists. It is perfectly evident that they have no conception of what a revenue tariff means, and no acquaintance with the arguments used against protection; and it is even doubtful if they could now comprehend these arguments if they tried to do so. Their whole system and mode of thinking would have to be changed before they could appreciate those elementary and fundamental principles of government which protective duties violate. Indeed, after reading the speeches of these Senators, one is rather surprised that they should be willing to consent to any reduction of protective duties at all, or to have anything to do with a party making such professions as the organization with which they have allied themselves.

Senator Caffery, for instance, declares with evident earnestness and sincerity that the duty upon sugar is not protection. The sugar industry is not "indigenous," and a tariff upon imported sugar is nothing but simple justice. Moreover, this encouragement to engage in sugar-planting has existed for 100 years, and therefore it is an act of cruelty to withdraw it. Such sentiments are exactly those which we are accustomed to hear from Republican statesmen. Senator Aldrich or Senator Chandler might adopt the speech of the Senator from Louisiana as his own, and send it to his constituents as defining the traditional policy of the Republican party. In fact, Senator Caffery's statement of the case of the protectionists is far stronger than that commonly adopted by them. They ask in a deprecating way for protection as a help to infant industries; but Senator Caffery boldly declares that the longer a duty has existed, the greater the reason for continuing it. To disturb a tax that has been imposed for 100 years is

an act of cruelty and oppression; after it had existed for 200 years, to abolish it would be no less than sacrilege or parricide.

Senator Gorman's sincerity in some of his professions has been occasionally questioned; but no one can read his last speech without being convinced that he is a sincere protectionist. He explicitly declares that he is opposed to removing the duty upon coal, because it would enable the people of New England to get coal cheaper than they now do. "From Boston east" the coal of Nova Scotia, mined by a foreign syndicate, will be exclusively used. Such a state of things is shocking to Senator Gorman. He will not consent to bring it about. Moreover, the New Englanders do not want it. They would rather burn more expensive fuel, provided it came from their own country. Senator Gorman knows the sentiment of New England, because he asked Senator Aldrich—a very astute man—whether he wanted free coal, and he said he did not. Moreover, no New England Senator has voted for it; and Senator Gorman declares positively, "Not a New Englander asks for it." He has never heard of the platforms of the New England Democrats, nor the arguments of her tariff-reform leagues, nor the demonstrations of great numbers of her most intelligent business men. He has ears only for Republican politicians and protected manufacturers. What they tell him is what the people demand.

Nor is Senator Gorman deficient in protectionist pathos. The American manufacturer does not want cheaper fuel "to the exclusion of American interests." To remove the duty upon coal would not only exclude American interests, it would also admit Canadian interests. It would benefit the Canadian treasury. Worse than that, it would bring profit to that horrid thing, a corporation. "God knows," the pious Senator from Maryland exclaims, "we have Trusts enough to deal with now." For his part he will never agree "that a foreign Trust shall enter our territory and take the substance from our people"—meaning that he is not willing that the Dominion Coal Company should sell coal in this country cheaper than the Maryland coal companies sell it.

To be sure, Senator Gorman would tolerate this iniquity, horrible as it is, provided the Canadian Government would tolerate a like iniquity, and admit coal free from the United States. In this particular his protectionism is slightly impure; but this is due to the corrupting doctrine of reciprocity introduced among the Republicans by Mr. Blaine, which is the first downward step towards free trade. With no other exception Senator Gorman is a protectionist of the straitest sect, and he will never be anything else. Senators Smith and Murphy are equally sound in the faith, but in a more practical way. They do not concern themselves with theories of political economy which they would find it painful to master. They simply say that the American people must be taxed in order that their own business may be more profitable, and that if this is not conceded there shall be no change in the tariff. This is the plain, old-fashioned "stand and deliver" protection, than which there is nothing more genuine. But what are these men doing in the Democratic galley?

## *THE WANING OF A GREAT "IDEE."*

THE Reed-Lodge idea of Republican free silver, through discriminating legislation against gold-bug countries, has been visibly wilting for some time, and the action of three Republican State conventions last week leaves it looking parched and withered enough. Indeed, the glorious author of the scheme has himself been credibly reported to be already heartily sick and ashamed of it. In his own congressional district convention on Tuesday week, at which the delegates resolved that they were "proud of the work of the Hon. T. B. Reed," they made no reference to this particular part of his work, but adopted a perfectly satisfactory financial plank, favoring "sound money, and such legislation as will give full faith and credit to all the promises of the Government." This marks a great change in the spirit of Reed's dream since his partisans in Pennsylvania and Ohio were furiously going in for forcing free silver down the throats of the nations "by discriminating legislation or otherwise."

With its very father thus disowning it, it is not surprising that this free-silver bantling was looked upon very much askance in the State conventions of Iowa, Illinois, and Wisconsin. The Iowa platform is, of course, anxious to say a good word for all kinds of financial isms, but has the root of the matter in it when it declares that there must be no use of silver inconsistent with "the permanent maintenance of equal values of all dollars in circulation." The Illinois platform is not greatly different, favoring gold and silver "upon a parity of values with complete interconvertibility," and giving no countenance at all to the Reed invention. But it was left for the Wisconsin Republicans to be true to their record for sound money, and to put forth the following outspoken and encouraging declaration: "We are opposed to any scheme that will give the country a depreciated and debased currency. We favor the use of silver as a currency to the extent only that it can be circulated on a parity with gold." This is little short of a direct condemnation of the Reed-Lodge "scheme," and probably marks its permanent retirement.

All this is particularly encouraging, as the great conception was especially devised for the West. It was thought that the East might be a little slow in taking to it, but it was expected that it would go like a prairie-fire in the West, and win Mr. Reed no end of Western delegates in the next national convention. But now we have the spectacle of old sound-money States like Pennsylvania and Ohio and Vermont running off after false gods of finance, and then being left isolated and rebuked by the unsound West. Several causes have conspired to bring this about. For one thing, the party press of any weight has never been fooled by the Reed idea, which has from the first been denounced by the influential Republican papers East and West as a plan both bad in itself and most foolish and dangerous from a party point of view. It was comparatively easy to manipulate a few State conventions and get the *Tribune* to stick its solemn old head in the sand; but with such hard things said about it by the most considerable organs of party opinion, the game was hardly worth playing any longer. Then it must have been more apparent to the Republicans of the West than it was to those of the East that the whole thing was essentially a bid for Populist support. They have had experience enough in competing in insanity with Populism. It has not helped them as a party or as a section. They have lost Congressmen and they have lost investments by it. The Reed plan might be talked about in Washington as statesmanship of a high order, but out West it was seen to be Populism pure and simple. The Populists themselves were not slow to affirm this. Here, for instance, is the *Watchman* of El Dorado Springs, Mo., saying in its issue of July 20:

> "The great change of front on the silver question by the Republicans, who have ever been as a party on all occasions in the past bitter, violent opponents of the white metal, is simply a strategic move, dictated by party policy. It is simply a trick to defeat the People's party, for they consider that party as the coming party of the future, and it is a pretty good evidence that the new party is making itself felt, and the Republican leaders know full well their chances for getting into power again will be mighty slim unless they can break the force and strength of the great ground swell now rising in favor of the People's party. The Republicans are simply trying to head off the People's party by yelling for silver at this hour of the fight; and if they thought they could win they would swear that they first put out the Omaha platform."

With such taunts flung in their faces it is no wonder that the Western Republicans concluded to leave the Populists a monopoly of their own wild notions. Thus ends the pleasant little dream which Moreton Frewen, fresh from communing at Washington with Reed and Lodge, described in the July *Fortnightly Review*. He said that the Democratic platform of 1896 would declare for free trade and free silver, and the Republican for protection and free silver. This was to be the "Titanic grouping of the contestants," and it would be strange if silver did not come to its own. But time has shown that the sound-money sentiment

of the Republican party cannot be broken at will by political intriguers to further their own ambition. The great "idee" which was to make Reed a Republican President on a free-silver platform is already discredited and declining, and will doubtless soon find its way to the historical attic where so much other political rubbish is stored.

## FRANKLIN'S "EXPLANATORY REMARKS."—II.

BROOKLYN, July 21, 1894.

UNQUESTIONABLY much of the Assembly's desire to tax the proprietary estates equally with other lands, was due, not so much to the immediate revenue it would produce, which was but a few hundred pounds, as to the wish to force the Penns to sell on reasonable terms. Owning these vast estates, the Proprietors naturally preferred to hold them till the pressure of population and scarcity of land should force up the price. So long as taxation should be insignificant, this was an easy matter, but both parties perceived that increased taxation would render this difficult, or impossible, depending on the rate at which the lands were assessed. The evils already resulting from this holding of land were dealt with in resolves nine, ten, and eleven, which are doubly interesting as showing the cause which turned the flood of German and Scotch-Irish emigrants from their natural settling-place, the democratic and religiously tolerant colony of Pennsylvania, into the Shenandoah Valley, to create there the western or dissenting party in Virginia, which brought her, though hitherto the American stronghold of aristocracy and episcopacy, into the revolutionary and democratic movements of a later period.

| RESOLUTIONS. | FRANKLIN'S REMARKS. |
|---|---|
| After the Indian Purchases made by the Proprietaries, their causing to be located and surveyed the best Tracts of Land for themselves and their Dependants, to lie waste in great Quantities for a future Market, is the Cause that our Frontiers are so thinly and scatteringly settled, whereby the poor Inhabitants there have been rendered less able to defend themselves, and become a more easy Prey to the small skulking Parties of the Enemy. | The purchasing or taking up large Tracts of Land on the Frontiers to lay by for a future Market, must prevent a compact Settlement of the People, render them less defensible, and of Course encrease the Taxes necessary for their Protection. |
| That the Proprietaries having a Monopoly of the Lands of this Province, has enabled them to hold up the vacant unlocated Lands at exorbitant Prices, and the more, as they pay no Quit-rent, but a small Acknowledgment only to the Crown, pay no Taxes for those Lands, and are under no Obligation of settling them in any limited Time. | In Virginia and Carolina the People pay no Purchase Money for their Lands, and in the former only Two Shillings, and in the latter Four Shillings and Two-pence Sterling Quit-rent per Hundred Acres. In Pennsylvania the Proprietaries Waste Lands are sold for Fifteen Pounds Ten Shillings per Hundred Acres; their Manor Lands from Fifty to Sixty times that Value, with an annual Quit-rent reserved of Four Shillings and Two Pence Sterling per Hundred Acres. This Exorbitant Price, with the great Difficulty of obtaining Justice at the Land Office, and the continued public Disputes, occasioned by Proprietary Exactions and Instructions, have driven a great Number of Wealthy Settlers into the Southern Colonies |
| That their exorbitant Demands in the Price of Lands, have driven many Thousands of Families out of this Province into Maryland, Virginia, North and South Carolina, where Lands are to be had reasonably; the Frontiers of all those Provinces being chiefly settled with | People from Pennsylvania, and who likewise carried away with them great Sums of Money, and thereby this Province has been doubly weakened, in the Loss of People to defend it, and of Substance and Improvements taxable towards its Defence. |

The eighth resolution solves a problem which must have occurred to all who have studied the 'Votes and Proceedings of the Assembly,' for that period. An apparent constant grievance, and one about which the Quaker and Lutheran fraternities were continually petitioning, was the excessive number of dram-shops and saloons. So far as my studies have gone, this was the one province in the colonial days in which this seemed to be a source of complaint. The cause for this exception is, however, made clear here. The proprietary quit-rents had been originally given to the colony for the support of the civil government. In time, however, "by the most artful Management and undue Influence," the Proprietors succeeded in reassuming these, by getting the Assembly to appropriate the license fees in their stead. In consequence, the Governor, whose salary of course depended on this fund, could never after be induced to limit the dram-shops, and a condition resulted which might well lead us to suppose that the Tammany methods of to-day are only a prototype of those of earlier times.

| RESOLUTIONS. | FRANKLIN'S REMARKS. |
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| That from an Attachment to Proprietary Interest, and to encrease the Revenue of their Deputies arising from their Licences, the Benevolence of the People in granting the same has been grossly abused, and public Houses and Dram-shops have been encreased to an enormous Degree, to the great Corruption of Morals in the Populace, and Scandal of the Government; and that, from the same Causes, reasonable Bills presented to Proprietary Governors, for restraining or preventing this Evil, have been from Time to Time refused. | It is notorious, the Number of Taverns, Alehouses and Dram-shops, have encreased beyond all Measure or Necessity. That they are placed so near to each other, that they ruin one another; and Two Thirds of them are not merely useless, but are become a Pest to Society. There are very few of them that are able to Provide the necessary Conveniences for entertaining Travellers, or accommodating the People either in Country or City; and this is entirely owing to that weak Policy in a former Assembly, of making it the Interest of a Governor to encourage and promote Immorality and Vice |
| among the People | Many Bills have been presented to the late Governors, to lessen the Number, and to regulate those Nurseries of Idleness and Debauchery, but without success. From whence it seems evident, that so long as the Proprietaries are interested in our Ruin, ruined we must be: For no Deputy will dare to regulate this Mischief, because it will lessen the Revenue, nor accept a Compensation for this Revenue, as it will affect his successor; nor even accept a greater Annuity, because it may, in Time, encrease to an higher Sum. |

The fifteenth and seventeenth resolutions relate to an equally familiar condition of the politics of to-day, in the use of the civil service for political purposes, with a view to defeating the wishes of the very voters these public officials were supposed to serve:

| RESOLUTIONS. | FRANKLIN'S REMARKS. |
|---|---|
| That the Proprietaries contending for the Power of the appointing Judges during their Pleasure who are to determine in all Causes between the Proprietaries and their Tenants, the Inhabitants of the Province, is unjust, renders the liberties and Properties of the Subject precarious, and dependant on the Proprietary Will and Pleasure, and is by no Colour of Reason supportable. | The People of our Mother Country, under the immediate Government of a Sovereign who had little private Interest in the Kingdom to influence him, have thought that they had no Security in their Lives, Liberties, and Properties, while the Judges of the several Courts held their Commissions *during the Pleasure of the Crown*. If they were right, how much more precarious and insecure are those invaluable Blessings in this Province where so great and unjust an Attachment to the Interest of the Proprietaries is discovered, *who* are not only consulted in the Nomination of the Judges, but can, and often have, from Reasons of Policy *only*, removed them at their Pleasure? The Time may come, when the People of *Pennsylvania* may experience the arbitrary Policy of a *Richard* the Second and a *James* the Second, and the unjust and venal Determination of the servile Belknap, and the blood-thirsty Jeffries. |
| That it is the Opinion of this House that the late Militia Bill offered to the Governor was equal and just, with regard to the Freemen of the Province, and sufficient for all good Purposes. And that the sole Appointment of the Officers, insisted on by the Governor, however willing the House might be to comply with the same under a Royal Government, would be an Addition to the Proprietary Power, that by no means can be safely trusted by the People in their Hands. | However safe it may be to entrust immediate Governor's under the Crown with the Nomination of Militia Officers . . . it certainly never can be safe to commit that Power into the Hands of a Deputy of the Proprietaries, bound by penal Obligations to obey Instructions wholly calculated to promote their private Interest. If we may judge from what we have seen, they would, no doubt, commission none but those who would implicitly obey their Orders, and pursue their Schemes for enslaving the People. This would create a vast Number of new Relations and Dependencies in the Government, all under the Controul of the Proprietaries and their Governors, who holding their Offices during their Pleasure, would no doubt conform to that *Pleasure*. The Officers would influence the private Men, and the whole would influence our elections in favour of the Proprietary System, and by these Means render their will the sole Rule, in both the Executive and the Legislative Parts of Government. |

Yet another point of interest was the friction over the paper money issued by the colony. This had been emitted to pay for the protection of the Western frontier. The Proprietors' lands being, of course, chiefly in this region, the Assembly held that, as the Penns had benefited as greatly, if not much more greatly, in a property sense, by this defence, than had the inhabitants, they had no right to discriminate against the paper money, which, if depreciated, was still a legal tender throughout the colony, and in which the colonists therefore desired to pay their quit-rents and land-grant payments. The Proprietors, however, having much influence with the Privy Council (which had always been opposed to paper money), secured a decree allowing them to refuse rents tendered in paper money, and, not content with this, they ordered that all land-sale contracts made in the future should be made payable in sterling, thus forestalling the "gold clause" of to-day. But, with the depreciation already in existence, they thus, of course, in reality raised the price of their lands to just the extent of the difference then existing between the paper and sterling. This grievance was dealt with in the twenty-fourth resolution.

| RESOLUTION. | FRANKLIN'S REMARKS. |
|---|---|
| That the sole executive Powers of Government being in the Hands of the Proprietaries, together with the very extensive and growing Power arising naturally from their | No sooner did the Proprietaries obtain the Opinion of our Superiors, that the Bills of Credit should not be a Tender in the Payment of their Rents, than they laid a |

vast and daily encreasing Property, must in future Times, according to the natural Course of human Affairs, render them absolute, and become as dangerous to the Prerogatives of the Crown as to the Liberties of the People.

new Scheme for putting their Purchase Money, and other Contracts, under the same Circumstances, that thereby they might not, in common with the People of this Province, suffer by a Depreciation, in case it should happen, though in common with the People they reaped all the Advantages of those Bills, and though the Protection of their Estates, in common with the People's, render the emitting them necessary. They accordingly gave Orders to their Commissioners of Property to make their future Contracts for the Sale of Land in Sterling; and by their Instructions to their Governor, positively forbid him to pass any Supply Bill, unless those Contracts are also exempted from being discharged by the said Bills. This seems, in the Opinion of the House, to have been one of the causes of the Failure of the Supply Bill. To which may be added, that by the Bill, had it passed, the Proprietary Agents would be obliged to give an honest Account of their Estates, under a penalty of Four-fold the Tax for all Property by them wittingly concealed. But when we consider the many Instances of the most unjust Claims of Exemption from Taxes by the Proprietaries, this alone will appear an Objection likely to be strong enough with their Deputy to reject the Bill, the House having complied fully with the stipulations their Agents had entered into before the Council.

The final resolution, therefore, was one that a petition to the King be sent, begging him to reassume the entire government of Pennsylvania—a step later attempted with well-known results. PAUL LEICESTER FORD.

## GOVERNMENT AND ANARCHISTS IN FRANCE.

PARIS, July 18, 1894.

VERY few among the many people who visit Switzerland have not stopped, at Bâle, at the old hotel "The Three Kings," and from its long balcony gazed upon the Rhine running with extraordinary force under the old bridge. At the extremity of this bridge, on the opposite side which forms a sort of suburb, I remember as if it was yesterday a *brasserie* with a garden looking out on the river, and in this garden a meeting of men who were unknown to me and who did not have the ordinary look of the Swiss. It was in the time of the Second Empire. I fell quite accidentally upon this meeting of men who had come from all parts of the world; some were German, some French, some were easily recognized as Russians. The transactions of this Congress (for the meeting had assumed this pompous name) were published in the local papers. To all appearances, these gentlemen, smoking their pipes and drinking their beer, did not seem more worthy of attention than gymnasts or musicians holding their annual meetings; the quiet and innocent look of the Bâle *brasserie* contrasted, however, singularly with the character of the men who had met in it to exchange their views and to form their plans. Among them were such men as Bakunin, as Prince Krapotkin, and others whose names were then quite unknown, but who have since made themselves only too conspicuous.

These Swiss meetings, which took place with some regularity, were in fact the congresses of the school which now goes under the name of Anarchism, or "propaganda by deed" (in French, *la propagande par le fait*). There was, after the Revolution of 1848, a great outburst of socialism in France and in Germany. Many were the theories which aimed at a better organization of society; they were founded on great ignorance and great illusions, but they were doctrines, they had definite and positive objects—education, a better system of taxation, the improvement of the relations between capital and labor, a modification in the modern system of banking, etc. It was, I believe, Proudhon who invented the word Anarchy; in his paper, published after 1848, he scoffed at all the socialist schools, he ridiculed their doctrines, and took for his creed simple Anarchy, by which he meant (taking the word in its Greek sense) the abolition of all authority, religious, political, or other.

Proudhon was a powerful journalist, but his brief popularity came to an end with the Second Republic. The word Anarchy, however, was not to be forgotten. The doctrine, if the word is permissible under the circumstances, implied that a general process of destruction was preferable to any plan of reconstruction; that gradual reforms were but an illusion and sometimes an impossibility. It was perhaps natural that such a doctrine should find favor in countries which were submitted to an absolute government, where there was no free press, where representative institutions were unknown. It is not to be wondered at if anarchism found proselytes in the great Empire of Russia. Nihilism is but another name for anarchism. In his admirable story 'Fathers and Sons,' Turgeneff has given us a very vivid description of the Russian Nihilists, imbued with Occidental and half-digested ideas of political liberty and socialist doctrines. We know, too well, to what terrible means the Russian Nihilists have resorted in their war against the Russian police and the Russian Government. Alexander II., the Emperor who had proclaimed the emancipation of the serfs, became their victim; the present Emperor, though he has made it his object to introduce order in the administration of his great country, though his personal character is pure, though he is a living representative of all the aspirations of his subjects, lives surrounded by hidden enemies; his palaces are guarded like fortresses, and when he travels, troops guard the lines he goes over, from fear of dynamiters. The Russians hold a high place in the new fraternity of Anarchists; they succeeded in murdering, in the heart of Paris, in the Hôtel de Bade, on the Boulevard des Italiens, a general who was at the head of the police in St. Petersburg. Prince Krapotkin was condemned in a French court in connection with the same anarchist conspiracy, and spent several years at Clairvaux. There are always in Paris, especially in the Latin Quarter, some Nihilists, men and women, who live much among themselves, and who mix little with the French population.

The doctrines of Anarchy have found many adepts in Germany. Even as far back as 1848 the German Socialists had become very prone to revolutionary means; the attempts made against Emperor William and against Prince Bismarck proved that the great triumphs of Germany and the establishment of German unity had not pacified a school whose aims were more social than political. In France it seemed as if the establishment of the Republic, universal suffrage, an absolute liberty of the press, and the right of meeting would have given satisfaction to the most ardent partisans of social and political reform. But since the time of the first Revolution there has always been a school which has been in favor of enforcing reforms by terrorism; and what is anarchism but a new and more systematic form of terror? Dynamite and the poignard have replaced the guillotine. There is, however, a difference between the Terror of 1793 and the Terror of our times: the Montagnards had political objects, and they struck only their open enemies, or those who might be suspected of being their enemies; our modern Anarchists wish to spread terror in the whole mass of what they call the bourgeoisie; and in order to do so they do not hesitate to strike innocent women and children as well as men. Vaillant, who threw a dynamite bomb in the Chamber of Deputies, chose for his possible victims the legislators of the country, without making any difference between those who are more or less conservative and those who are more or less socialistic. He fortunately killed nobody. He may have hoped, by striking terror into Parliament, to obtain measures in harmony with his ideas. But then what shall we say of Henry, an educated man, a man of intelligence, who goes quietly to a great café, who throws a bomb into the crowd, and kills indiscriminately three people? The speech which he was allowed to make in court gives us the true essence of anarchism. Henry was a discontented, disappointed man, who declared war on a society in which he did not find the place that suited him. The war, he declares, is a war to a knife; he will not give mercy and he asks for none. His testament is the last word of the doctrine. Here we find the natural man, not such as he was painted by Rousseau, but such as he is when, renouncing all idealism, he follows only the laws of his savage instincts. "Anarchy," as it was preached by Henry, is the Corsican vendetta in a new form. It is inspired by vengeance, and the avenger thinks himself at liberty to strike the innocent; but, in Corsica, the victim must have in his veins the blood of a murderer, whereas it is enough now that the victim should belong, not to a family, but to a class, an ill-defined class, the hated bourgeoisie.

Such savage doctrines threaten the very life of a nation; they reveal under the surface of civilization a residuum of potential crime. The consternation produced in France by the attempts and the murders of Vaillant and others was so great that the Chamber, notwithstanding its socialistic leanings and tendencies, voted a law against the Anarchists; penalties were enacted against those who formed a part of associations of *malfaiteurs* (evil-doers), using or recommending violence against persons or destruction of property. All persons inciting other persons to commit crimes of murder, pillage, incendiarism, were to be considered as *malfaiteurs* and as committing an act of anarchist propaganda. The Anarchists were determined to have their revenge for the execution of Vaillant and Henry. An Italian, Cesario, chose President Carnot for his victim, and, using the favorite arm of his countrymen, the knife, instead of the dynamite bomb, he succeeded in his horrible attempt. The emotion caused by the death of President Carnot was universal. The French Chamber at once chose a new President, determined, as it was, to show to the anarchist conspirators that they had accomplished nothing in removing one man from the Presidential chair; *uno avulso, non deficit alter*. The new President, M. Casimir-Perier, is a man of courage and of energy; and the very day after his election he walked on foot through Paris. The day of M. Carnot's funeral, contrary to etiquette, he followed the hearse on foot, and headed the long procession which went from the Élysée to Notre-Dame and from Notre-Dame to the Panthéon.

The first act of the new cabinet of M. Perier

was the presentation of a new bill against the Anarchists. This bill is now under discussion in the Chamber, and though the indignation against such acts as those of Vaillant, Henry, and Cesario is as great as ever, the discussion will probably be very warm. The infractions punishable under the new law are not to be tried any longer before juries, but before police magistrates. The jurors have, in all cases concerning Anarchists, been threatened in every way, and sometimes have shown themselves too accessible to fear. The law introduces another important change: the additional penalty of transportation may be pronounced against persons condemned to a punishment of more than a year's imprisonment, or against persons having previously undergone a sentence of three months' imprisonment for the acts specified in the law, or a sentence of hard labor, solitary confinement, or more than three months' imprisonment for a common-law crime. A third change is found in a stipulation that in all cases where the incriminated act has an anarchistic character, the courts and tribunals may forbid, wholly or in part, the publication of the proceedings.

These new provisions have not been accepted by the press without some resistance. The ministerial papers themselves, considering that the law has been framed under very exceptional circumstances, after the murder of M. Carnot and the numerous crimes of the Anarchists during the last few months, propose that the law should be only temporary, like a similar law which was passed against the Anarchists in Germany some years ago, reserving to the Government the right to propose that it should continue in force, after a certain number of years. Much uneasiness is apparent in the first discussions of the Chamber. The vagueness of the law, the difficulty of strictly defining anarchical crimes, and what can be called provocation of or apology for such crimes, or an incitement to commit murder, pillage, incendiarism, have created a good deal of disturbance not only in the press, but in the Chamber. It is very doubtful if any law, any legislative precautions, will ever hinder an act like that of Cesario, who had no accomplices and was led merely by his criminal and fanatical propensities. The causes of anarchism are very deep, very widespread: the life of Crispi has been attempted in Italy; dynamite bombs have been thrown in the Liceo at Barcelona.

In the present mood of the French Chamber the law proposed by the Government will pass, probably with some amendments. I hope it will not be said of it, as was said of the law of "general security" enacted under Napoleon III., after Orsini's attempt, that the law of "general security" might easily become a law of "general insecurity." The liberal Republicans maintain that there were provisions enough in the arsenal of existing laws to allow a strong and united administration to defend itself against all the disorderly and anarchical elements of the country.

## THE LAST SESSION OF PARLIAMENT IN JAPAN.

TOKIO, June 12, 1894.

As soon as Parliament met in Tokio on the afternoon of the 12th of May, it was evident that the various schemes of the Kaishinto (Progressionists) to unite the six parties uncompromisingly opposed to the Government had borne fruit. The newspapers of the Press League had from the beginning spoken of the six parties outside of the Radicals and Independents as the "Allied Opposition Parties," and by skilful management on the part of the Kaishinto these parties acted with singular unanimity. As they mustered 130 votes against 126 of the Jiyuto, the balance of power evidently lay in the hands of about 46 Independents who refused to identify themselves with any party. How evenly this power was distributed was proved on the opening day of the Diet on the occasion of the election of the President and Vice-President. The "Allied Opposition" secured the former by a majority of only six (153 to 147), while the Jiyuto gained the latter by a still narrower majority of three (151 to 148).

This trial of strength, however, was only preliminary to a more important struggle, to which both sides determined to devote their utmost energies. The former House had been dissolved while in the process of voting an address to the Emperor in which the Government was bitterly attacked for not strictly enforcing the treaties against foreigners. The "Opposition" parties were not to be daunted by a dissolution. They proceeded to draw up a new Representation, containing even a bitterer attack on the cabinet than the former. They inveighed against the Ministers for neglecting their official duties, for wrongly advising the Emperor to dissolve the last House before it had taken any definite action, for not enforcing the treaties against foreigners, and finally for stating in a document transmitted to some of the Peers that the lower house was merely an advisory body to the cabinet. The Representation was introduced by an obscure member of one of the smaller parties, and was well debated by the representatives of all the three larger parties. The Jiyuto, however, who opposed the Representation, had the best of the argument, and succeeded in winning a sufficient number of Independents to carry the day. When finally the question was submitted to ballot, the vote stood 144 for as against 149 opposed to the Representation.

It was generally supposed that this was the high-water mark of the efforts of the "Opposition" parties during this session. The Jiyuto had been successful, and the Government had escaped by a hair's breadth from an attack that could have ended only in another dissolution. For some days the members seemed to forget the bickerings of party politics. The regular business of the session, much of which was of an extremely interesting character, was taken up; a number of important bills were passed, and even the captious critics of the foreign press in Yokohama were led to believe that the session would end without further struggle between the "Opposition" parties and the Government. Bills relating to the construction of new railways, to prison expenditure, to new harbors, to surplus revenue, to the abolition of certain export duties, and to various other matters were passed with exemplary despatch and discrimination.

But the peculiar feature of the political situation in Japan is that no party that wishes the least measure of popular success can openly support the Government. Individual Japanese may be found who will go so far as to say that the present Government had better remain in power until the existing parties have received a more thorough political training; but more than this they will not say in its support. Every political party—even the Jiyuto, to which some of the cabinet ministers are said to be friendly—must, to keep its hold upon the people, pick holes in the Government. Some local English papers have attributed this hostility to the fact that no party is at present represented in the cabinet, but it really has a much deeper origin. There is not a party but feels bound to denounce the corruption, the extravagance, or the indifference of the Government; otherwise it is branded with the opprobious title of "official party," a term for the rival parties to conjure with at the next election.

Accordingly the Jiyuto, who had opposed and defeated the Representation, had now to bring forward a measure of their own to show that they were not the puppets of the Government. They accordingly introduced various condemnatory resolutions, all of which were promptly defeated by the combined vote of the "Allied Opposition" parties and the Independents. The Kaishinto, furious because of their previous want of success, were ready to oppose everything emanating from the Jiyuto. While the sections were thus at war among themselves, onlookers were inclined to believe that the Government would escape without further collision to the end of the session. Both sections, however, felt the necessity of firing a shot at the cabinet before adjournment, and a mode of exit was finally discovered by the Kaishinto. The radicals introduced an Address to the Throne in which the Government was mildly attacked. It stated that "the ministers of state had of late years adopted measures at variance with the wishes of the nation, that such a policy was unsatisfactory to the people and contrary to the wishes of the Emperor, that therefore the ministers should shape their conduct to bring about harmony between the Government and the Diet." Cleverly taking advantage of a peculiar constitutional provision, the Kaishinto succeeded in carrying a motion to hand this address to a special committee for amendment. The President, in sympathy with the "Allied Opposition" parties, appointed a committee in which the Jiyuto was but slightly represented. The "Opposition" now had the opportunity for revenge for which they had so long been waiting. The work of the committee was merely to introduce such an amendment as would secure a small number of Independents to vote with the "Allied Opposition." Nothing must be said *directly* concerning the strict enforcement of treaties, but anything short of this was likely to command a majority of the votes of the members. The amendment finally agreed to by the committee was to the effect that the ministers of state had been particularly delinquent in the matter of foreign affairs, that they had followed a temporizing and subservient policy, which was intended only to preserve the good will of foreigners, and not to maintain the national dignity. It was for this reason, the amendment declared, that the members could not coöperate with the cabinet, and they therefore prayed his Majesty to render a decision.

The debate on the amended address was very short. The only question of importance was whether the reference to a "temporizing policy in foreign affairs" was intended to include the non-enforcement of treaties. When this question was put by one of the members, the chairman of the committee replied that those who wished to include this point were at liberty to do so, but that it was not intended to force any one's judgment. This construction of the amended address did not allay the suspicions of the radicals; they saw they were out-manœuvred by the "Opposition," and their efforts to throw out the address which had emanated from their own ranks proved in vain. By a vote of 153 to 139 the amended Address to the Throne was carried, 19 days after the Diet be-

gan its sitting, and only a few days before the session was to have ended.

The Government now began to bestir itself. In answer to the Address the ministers of state drew up a memorial which was immediately sent to the Emperor. In this document they declared that their efforts, though feeble, had always been directed, as far as lay within their power, to the welfare of their country and their Emperor; in the matter of foreign relations they declared they saw no cause for the imputations cast upon them by the members of the lower house. Finally, they prayed his Majesty to dissolve the House for its presumptuous attempt to bring discredit upon the Government The result of this memorial, in which the reasons for a dissolution were published for the first time in the parliamentary history of Japan, can easily be imagined. The Emperor refused to accept the Address of the lower house, and no sooner had this unwelcome news been reported to the members by the President, than an imperial rescript was issued ordering the dissolution of the lower house and proroguing the upper. The announcement of the rescript produced consternation. For a moment the confusion and uproar were so great that the President lost all power of control. Some members declared that stronger measures must be adopted to bring the Government to reason; others taunted the members with having brought the trouble upon themselves. At last the House rose in a tumult, and the various parties separated to concert upon further action.

As I write, however, this and all other party struggles have ceased to agitate the public, owing to the critical situation in Corea. The evident determination of the Japanese Government not to allow China to take the upper hand in the peninsular kingdom has for the first time in many years silenced even the "Opposition" organs. Jingoism is rife in Japan, but on this occasion it stands the country in good stead. The next elections take place in August, and by that time it will be clear whether the Government acted wisely or unwisely in taking this bold step. Either the Cabinet will be strengthened by success or discredited by failure; but until then little can be done by the political parties either to assist or annoy the Government. G. D.

# Correspondence.

## THE GREAT NORTHERN STRIKE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I wish to call attention to facts in connection with the recent labor disturbances which seem to have been lost sight of—at least they have been given very little prominence in the discussions which have taken place. They would seem to rob the American Railway Union of the claims for sympathy which they have been trying to arouse on the score of Mr. Pullman's policy of declining to arbitrate the differences with his employees, and would also seem to refute the impression which they desire to create, that they are fighting for the principle of arbitration.

During the strike on the Great Northern in April of this year, engineered by this same union and conducted by these same leaders, a strike was precipitated without even giving the railroad company opportunity to confer with its men, or attempting any adjustment other than conceding their demands at once. During the progress of this strike Mr. Hill, president of the Great Northern Railway line, offered to submit the matter to arbitration—an offer which was declined, both in writing and verbally, on April 27 and 28, by Mr. Debs and his associates. That a settlement was finally effected through the intervention of a committee of the business men of the cities of St. Paul and Minneapolis does not, I think, show any change of front on the part of the Union. The committee was appointed by the business interests, and composed of men whose business had suffered seriously through the interruption to traffic, and whose personal interests dictated the necessity of immediate settlement. They simply acted as mediators, neither party agreeing to be bound by any action they might take. Their success in settling the trouble was in persuading Mr. Hill, as president of the Great Northern Railway line, to practically concede the full demands of his employees.

Yours truly, Robt. Rantoul.

St. Paul, Minn., July 24, 1894.

P. S.—I enclose clippings from the St. Paul *Pioneer Press* at the time of this controversy, giving the facts in the case.

[We print the above as confirming our reprobation of the settlement effected, in the paragraph to which a correspondent took exception last week.—Ed. Nation.]

## THE CALIFORNIA PRESS AND THE STRIKE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your editorial of July 12 on "The Situation in California," speaking of the attitude of the State newspapers on the strike, you say: "There does not seem to be a voice raised there in favor of order and civil government."

I wish to call attention to one notable exception to the unhappy exhibition which our journalists have made on this occasion. The Los Angeles *Times* is much the most important paper in the southern half of the State, and its position in a public emergency ought not to be overlooked in a view of the general action of the press. From the beginning of these disturbances it has taken the side of "order and civil government" with entire soundness and with marked vigor and force, thereby gaining the warm commendation of intelligent Californians. Just as the press despatches failed to make known to you the attitude of this leading paper, so it would probably appear on a further investigation of public opinion here that sympathy with lawlessness is not so general throughout the State as first reports might indicate. I am confident that in California, as elsewhere in the country, there is a sufficient fund of law-and-order sentiment at hand to answer the call of any urgent need.

Yours truly, E. S. Thacher.

Nordhoff, Cal., July 21, 1894.

[Since our article was written, we have received copies of the San Francisco *Newsletter*, containing courageous and forcible articles on the local disturbance, and a proper castigation of the anarchistic daily journals of the same city.—Ed. Nation.]

## WOOL AND IRON AS DUTIABLE OBJECTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In President Cleveland's letter of July 2, to Hon. William L. Wilson, he says: "Under our party platform and in accordance with our declared party purposes, sugar is a legitimate and logical article of revenue taxation." Will you kindly inform me *why* sugar rather than wool or iron ore is a "legitimate and logical article of revenue taxation"? I ask for information only, not for the purpose of controversy; and I ask you because I believe you to be the most competent person that I know to answer the question honestly.

Trusting that I may soon hear from you, I am very truly yours, S. M. Passmore.

Minneapolis, Minn., July 21, 1894.

[We presume that the President meant that raw sugar, being an article of which we import ten times as much as we produce, is peculiarly an article to yield revenue to the Government—*i. e.*, that the proportion of revenue to protection is as 10 to 1. On the other hand, we produce more wool and iron ore than we import, and hence the proportion of revenue to protection is reversed. Moreover, these are the raw materials of great industries, while sugar is not.—Ed. Nation.]

## A NATIONAL PARK IN COLORADO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your good word for the National Park in the State of Washington, in the *Nation* of May 31, leads me to believe you will appreciate the efforts of citizens of Colorado to establish a great national park in this State. The tract referred to, set aside by President Harrison as a "timber reservation," embraced about 1,200,000 acres, or about thirty by forty miles, lying mostly above 9,000 feet elevation, and situated between the Grand and Bear Rivers, north of Glenwood and south of Steamboat Springs, Colorado. It is a wonderfully picturesque and grand country, the natural home of deer and elk, broken up by the headwaters of many streams, which, with the lakes they start from, abound in beautiful trout. The great variety of valleys, gorges, wooded parks, and mountain sides makes this whole region a most appropriate and suitable camping-ground for the whole country. Two years ago the writer, while travelling horseback through the northern part of this reservation, saw an average of seventy-five deer, elk, or antelope a day for twelve consecutive days. We wish this game and this lovely scenery to be preserved in its native wildness for the pleasure and benefit of future generations.

Many millions of dollars will be a small estimate of the value of such a park to the United States when the nation's population numbers one hundred and fifty to two hundred million people; while, should the Government allow settlers to pick out the few choice localities for their homes, the valleys will be fenced off, the forests consumed, and the game in due time be killed or driven off. The net result to the Government could not then amount to one-tenth of 1 per cent. of the real value named above. The enclosed clipping from the Denver *Republican* of July 21 will show you how it is proposed to make the first "cut-down" in the dimensions of this grand *natural* as well as *national* park. This includes the heart as well as much of the beautifully wooded portions on the east, north, and west sides.

We need to have a universal sentiment created in favor of the preservation of these

natural advantages for the use of the whole people. Let this national sentiment be so strong that the local politician will be prevented from accomplishing his purpose in gobbling up "the world" for his particular backers. The feeling of possession of such natural scenery, such abundance of game and fish, and such unsurpassed advantages of summer camping-places for those suffering from chronic ailments, especially pulmonary ills—this feeling is something which ought by natural right to belong to every one, and I am, for one, glad to see the *Nation*, so well fitted for the task, take a lively interest in the matter.

Yours respectfully, CHARLES DENISON.

DENVER, COL., July 24, 1894.

## A YELLOW ASTER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The review of 'A Yellow Aster' which appeared lately in the columns of the *Nation* contained such an able presentment of the growing tendencies to morbid self-analysis and its brood of evils that I was led to read the book out of gratitude to the review. Having read it, I now, however, am grateful to the book itself for its warm defence of innate motherly love, and for its repeated assertion that wifely affection is necessary as a preliminary to marriage as well as for continuance in that condition. Grave literary defects, even in choice of words, run throughout the novel. The parents of the heroine are theoretical monstrosities, and Gwen and her brother are as abnormal in their childhood; but they serve the lesson of heredity. Few authors have dared as much as "Iota" to prove her truism, the need of love in marriage; but because she treats her subject physiologically and psychologically, the book is deemed bad and relegated to the unhealthy purlieus of 'The Heavenly Twins.' Yet "Iota" is not dealing with man's vice, she is representing man's desire for ardent affection—a truism again, only her hero is a gentleman.

However, it is the dealing with mother-love which constitutes the power and pathos of the volume. The irreligious Gwen revolts, as do thousands of pious women, when she finds she is to be a mother; yet not for one instant does she think of being aught than a good mother to her child, as she will teach herself to so love it that it shall never experience the unloved results of her own girlhood. Gradually her growing love for her baby arouses her love for her hitherto uncared-for mother, who, while Gwen was a child, had stunted her maternal feelings that she might study science with her husband, until she, too, found the Nemesis of longing for affection awaking in her, and then her daughter did not know how to love her. There is no truer or more pathetic episode in the *Tendenz* novels of to-day than the illness and death of this mother, as she caresses her daughter's hands as if she were playing with baby fingers, while Gwen, alternately repelled and attracted, finds too late how her mother had loved her and how she could have returned the affection. The incident of the baby-basket is unconventional, but even a reluctant mother would quiver under its tenderness. Gwen's increasing fondness for her baby finally develops her regard for her husband, as being her husband as well as the father of her child.

The whole book is a protest against any stifling of maternal feeling. More than that, it declares that rebellion at the thought of being a mother does not negative duty. I thank the author for showing that a woman can never try to be "sexless," as wife or mother, without suffering to herself and to others. The conventional woman may prefer unthinking acceptance of facts, but the modern analytic girl is saved future tribulation when she comprehends that personality inheres in marriage, and that motherhood belongs to it, for love is the joy of all living. A MOTHER.

[It is precisely because "Iota" indulges in what is euphemistically called "physiological treatment" of several subjects that 'Yellow Aster' should be relegated to the "unhealthy purlieus of the 'Heavenly Twins'"; the reasons why it should be "deemed bad" were set forth in our review. One of our points was to protest against physiology in novels, partly because we believe that young girls are quite competent to find out the necessity for "love in marriage" without the aid of physiological instruction from more or less indecorous lady novelists, and even that the knowledge come by in such a way will surely do them more harm than good. Physiology in fiction is simply an offence against taste and morals, occasionally palliated by notable literary power, but never justified.

Another point in our review, and one that appears to have been very imperfectly made, was to expose the pretence of service to virtue and science made by English novelists who wish to discuss indecencies or improprieties, but do not dare to do so undisguisedly. — ED. NATION.]

## CHURCH'S CROMWELL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the course of a brief reference to Mr. Church's 'Oliver Cromwell: A History,' in the *Nation* of July 5, there is this remark: "Mr. Church occasionally quotes Mr. Gardiner in his notes, but he does not mention him in his preface, and he does not seem to be aware that Mr. Gardiner had done the work."

Is there not some misapprehension about this? I find that Mr. Church has quoted Mr. Gardiner by name thirty-six times in his footnotes, and, while he has not mentioned him by name in the preface, he does mention him in the body of the text, p. 226—a much more honorable position, and one which calls him also into the index. I find that some of Mr. Church's footnotes make distinguished mention of Prof. Gardiner, especially on page 220, where he quotes from a letter from Mr. Frederic Harrison saying that "Prof. Gardiner is our greatest living authority for the Civil War." On page 179 a very important assertion against Cromwell is disproved, and Mr. Gardiner is the authority therefor.

But has Mr. Gardiner "done the work"? Mr. Gardiner's monumental history already fills thirteen volumes, but it has only come to the death of Charles I. The greatest part of Cromwell's career has not yet been touched by him. Besides, I find this remark in Mr. Church's preface, which seems to answer the point:

"After fully exploring this vast monument of letters, it has seemed to me that a sufficient story of Oliver Cromwell and of the events which made his extraordinary career possible has not been written outside of the general histories; while, in the general histories, it is the story of England and not the story of Cromwell—the Protector appearing as one of many figures in a stirring period, rather than as the foremost man of his age."

Respectfully, LEMUEL HOTCHKISS.

PITTSBURGH, PA., July 19, 1894.

[Mr. Church, in his preface, gave it as his reason for undertaking the work that he felt the need of an estimate of Cromwell which should avoid the extremes of Hume and Carlyle. Just such an estimate is furnished by Mr. Gardiner in his 'History'; and it seems strange that Mr. Church in his preface should ignore it and regard the part of umpire as vacant. Mr. Gardiner's work has not reached the end of Cromwell's life, but the estimate of Cromwell's character is formed. Mr. Church was not accused of doing any injustice to Mr. Gardiner.—ED. NATION.]

## EXCAVATIONS OF THE AMERICAN SCHOOL AT ERETRIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The short but successful campaign of excavation conducted by the American School at Eretria, during the last three weeks in May, deserves mention in the columns of the *Nation*, not only on account of the actual results obtained, but also to enforce the moral recently laid down by Dr. Robinson in your columns, that a promising site should not be abandoned until everything has been brought to light that may prove valuable to the historian, philologist, or archæologist. In the springs of 1891 and 1892 the School had conducted excavations on this site, especially in the theatre, with gratifying results. The field was so promising, and so important for Greek history, that the director, Prof. Richardson, wisely decided again to undertake excavations there. Since the available funds were limited, he determined to strike for certain definite results, viz., (1) to learn whether the peculiar location of the theatre was to be accounted for by the presence of a sanctuary of Dionysus in its immediate vicinity; (2) whether pre-Persian remains were to be found on the Acropolis; (3) to determine the site of the famous temple of Artemis Amarysia; (4) to lay bare the main street leading to the Acropolis; and (5) to open the large tumulus east of the city. This programme was carried out with the following results.

The core of the tumulus was formed by a massive stone tower, of which three sides had fallen. No traces of a grave were found. Tentative diggings on the south slope of Kotronis, the site generally selected by topographists for the temple of Artemis, showed incontestably that no temple had ever stood there. Thus one unknown quantity is eliminated from the problem that the discoverer of this temple will have to solve. A trench (fifty feet long and down to the solid rock) that was dug on top of the Acropolis revealed no pre-Persian remains.

So much for negative results. The less speculative and more serious digging, employing from forty-five to seventy-five men, was done between the theatre and the present village. The first and, as it proved, the most important discovery was made by the men working under the direction of Prof. Phillips of Marietta. They were searching for the temple of Dionysus, and by the night of the

first day had found the foundation of the cella wall. Three courses of the foundations stand in good preservation. Quantities of charred wood and of cinders found inside the temple, and a hard thick layer of calcinated poros on the north and northeast sides, give evidence of how the temple was destroyed, and explain the absence of architectural and sculptural remains in the débris. Only one small marble head of Aphrodite was found. The large massive rectangular structure uncovered in the excavations of 1891, lying east of the temple and south of the theatre, was now seen to be the altar of the god. Nowhere in Greece can one see the group of three structures that belonged to the well-organized worship of Dionysus—temple, altar, and theatre—so well preserved as here.

Unfortunately, the other excavations had to be left unfinished. A long stretch of the ancient street, lined with private houses, was uncovered, but much remains to be done. Doubtless one might find here important data for the construction of the Greek house, for the foundation walls seem to be preserved everywhere. It is especially to be regretted that the work on the theatre could not be finished. This theatre, now famous in the history of the stage controversy, was partly excavated most opportunely in 1891, and at once furnished much aid and comfort to the advocates of both sides of the question. The stage-buildings twelve feet above the level of the orchestra, on the strength of which Mr. Gardner contends that the Greek theatre had a high stage; the tunnel leading to the centre of the orchestra, which Dr. Dörpfeld believes to be distinctly in favor of the opposite view; the vaulted passage under the scena, which neither Dörpfeld nor Gardner has explained satisfactorily—these are some of the peculiarities of this theatre about which controversy rages. It is clear that if an answer to these problems is to be found, it must come from the building itself, for excavation has already shown that at least the ground-plan of the structure can be recovered.

Something was done this year. The foundations of the west part of the scena buildings were uncovered, and a long line of column bases on which once stood choregic inscriptions and tripod columns. The outer wall of the west parodos was excavated throughout its whole length, and the fact was established that this parodos, unlike the other, ascended from the level of the orchestra at a very steep grade. It seems at least probable that this parodos was practically closed to the spectators, and that herein we have an explanation of the vaulted passage.

Much remains to be done on the theatre, and must be done by the Americans if they wish to be looked upon by archæologists as thoroughly competent and conscientious excavators. Dr. Robinson said a good word to this effect about the excavations at the Heraion; it applies also to Eretria. Dr. Dörpfeld takes his large company of scholars of all nations each year to Eretria to see this theatre, and also to Megalopolis. I can testify that the clean work of the English School contrasted strongly with that of the American, and was noticed and commented on by all. A few years ago we had a first claim on the thousands of tombs, rich in archæological material, some of which Dr. Waldstein opened with marked success. Now the enterprising Greek Archæological Society has undertaken this work on its own account, and a unique opportunity for archæological discovery has passed from our hands. But there is plenty of work left to be done in Eretria. The whole site is teeming with ruins a few feet under the surface. It is earnestly to be hoped that the American School will be able not only to finish the work at Argos, but to continue that at Eretria, so as to leave the latter site as creditable a monument to its archæological activity as the former bids fair to be.

EDWARD CAPPS.

ATHENS, July 15, 1894.

## DISCOVERIES IN CRETE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The explorations of Dr. Halbherr in Crete, under the auspices of the Archæological Institute of America, have met with interesting and important results since my report upon them before the New York Society of the Institute in April. Dr. Halbherr has been directing his attention especially to prehistoric and Mycenæan remains, where so much has been hoped for in Crete, and where these hopes are now finding their fruition. The extent and significance of his discoveries may be seen from the substance of a letter which I have just received from him. He says:

"My recent explorations have extended from the heights of Camares, upon the southern slopes of Ida, as far as the mountains of Lassithi toward the provinces of Pediada and Rhizokastron. After the partial examination of the necropoles of Curtes and Camares, I made an important investigation in the necropolis of Erganos, where I searched three beehive tombs of the Mycenæan epoch, one of which was quite intact and completely preserved. It contained the remains of six bodies with all their funeral furniture, consisting of a varied collection of Mycenæan vases, almost unharmed, and in the original position in which they were deposited a thousand years before Christ. These were all gathered after their position had been noted, careful plans were made of the tombs, and the best preserved skulls were deposited in the Museum at Candia, where they will serve for the study of the race which spread the Mycenæan culture in Crete. The importance of this discovery is enhanced by the fact that no necropolis here has ever been studied before with scientific accuracy. Now we have the materials from Camares, Curtes, and Erganos for the first essay upon these primitive remains in Crete, and for considerably advancing the question of the Mycenæan culture in the isles of the Mediterranean.

"Besides this, I have discovered two towns hitherto unknown. The one is that to which the necropolis upon the mountains of Erganos belonged, the other a large city situated upon a height between Lyttos and Tnatos. The former was rather poor; the latter has furnished me with some inscriptions, one of which was archaic, and also a good harvest of fragments of fine Mycenæan vases and of archaic Greek pottery with representations in relief. I obtained here also some small prehistoric or Eteocretan stones, bearing new syllabic signs which connect them with the discoveries made recently by Mr. Arthur J. Evans of the Ashmolean Museum, Oxford (see the London *Athenæum* of June 23). I too have turned my attention to the study of this prehellenic writing of Crete, and am adding some contribution each day. During the past week I have entered in my list two new signs on two stones discovered at Vorus, near Phæstus.

"We have also explored a grotto near Lebena, where some vases were found similar to those called Theran (often placed about 2000 B. C.), some objects in stone, and a prehistoric habitation. In another grotto situated on the slopes of Ida, a large number of fragments of very ancient pottery have also been gathered."

The interest of these finds for comparison with those of the Athens school at the Argive Heræum will be apparent to any one familiar with the problems involved.

A. C. MERRIAM.

LONDON, July 18, 1894.

# Notes.

IN conjunction with the Société des Bibliophiles of Guyenne, the family of Montesquieu began, two years ago, putting into print some unpublished works of their illustrious ancestor, leading off with 'Mélanges inédits.' A second volume, being the diary of a tour in Austria and Italy, is on the eve of appearing, and extracts from it are already allowed to see the light in the French press. Those given in the *Débats* of July 11 show Montesquieu in the unfamiliar rôle of an art critic.

There was some discussion last spring in London as to whether the English publisher of Mr. Butler's translation of Count Nigra's collection of letters of Cavour and the Countess de Circourt ought to describe the contents of his edition as "now first printed," when M. Roux, the Roman publisher, had some time before brought them out in their original French form. We catch glimpses in the volume of the Countess's husband, Count Adolphe de Circourt, a man of exceptional parts, who passed through life, however, almost unknown. In his introduction to the letters, Count Nigra mentions a biography of Count de Circourt which was privately printed in 1881 by the latter's friend, the late Colonel Huber-Saladin of the Swiss army. A few copies of this rare book are still in the possession of the author's son, M. William Huber of Paris, who is disposed to present them to public libraries or important private collections.

We had anticipated the conclusion of Dr. Billings's great 'Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. A.' with the fifteenth volume, but we had reckoned without the letter W, which, with some addenda, perhaps, will claim a sixteenth. The fifteenth, somewhat thin in bulk, yet quite up to the average in the number of periodical articles recorded, ranges from Universitad to the end of V. One notices, in passing, the extraordinary richness of the library in documents pertaining to universities, but the titles which surpass all others and easily make a volume are Uræmia, Urea, Urine; Urethra, Uterus, Vagina, Venereal; Vaccination, Varioloid; Varix, Veins; Ventilation, and Vivisection. Vaccination is classified historically by countries, and all the bitter controversy over it, as over Vivisection, may be read in these close-packed entries. There is nothing new to say of this splendid and enormous labor, whose "explicit" will soon be written.

'Fair Women,' by William Sharp, is the "monograph" of the July *Portfolio* (Macmillan). It is a piece of elaborate fooling and more or less poetic rhapsody hung on the peg of an exhibition at the Grafton Gallery, and serves as an excuse for the reproduction of a number of female portraits, ancient and modern. These are welcome, especially those after Luini's Leonardesque and subtle "Portrait of a Lady" and Sir Joshua's charming "Snake in the Grass."

There is little in Ruskin's 'Letters to a College Friend' (Macmillan) to justify their publication. They show some of the traits of the future Graduate of Oxford, his positiveness, self-contradiction, industry, and Turner worship, but they are for the most part in a jocular vein which is not very funny now. His essay on the question "Was there Death before Adam fell, in other Parts of Creation?" has a very far-away air, and his instructions, after Harding, as to the proper foliage touch in chalks seem equally remote from this generation. Neither is the magic style of the author

of 'Modern Painters' visible in these early letters, and it is difficult to see that anything would have been lost to the world if they had remained unpublished. Their only interest is biographical, and there is not much of that.

M. Paul Flat gives us a second volume, 'Seconds Essais sur Balzac' (Paris: Plon, Nourrit & Cie.), for which one may well feel grateful, so substantial and satisfying is his study of the great novelist. A large part of the book is devoted to an examination of Balzac's philosophy, always an interesting topic. The admirable table of contents greatly facilitates reference. In his two volumes M. Flat has made a worthy contribution to the "literature" of his subject.

'Les Lundis d'un Chercheur' (Paris: Calmann Lévy) is the latest contribution to bibliography of that eminent authority the Vicomte de Spoelberch de Louvenjol. The book was begun before the three great histories which have made M. de Louvenjol's reputation, and is composed of articles of different lengths upon unexpected discoveries on interesting points in bibliography. Gautier, Vigny, Sand, Musset, Baudelaire, Féval, are some of the authors treated of in this volume.

Firmin-Didot & Cie. have issued the first volume of M. J. J. Jusserand's "Histoire littéraire du Peuple Anglais." This volume covers the period from the Origins to the Renaissance, the second will take the reader to the time of Pope, and the third and last from Pope to the present day.

The Librairie des Bibliophiles has brought out an edition of Florian's 'Fables,' with the "Avant-propos sur la Fable" prefaced to the volume. Florian is not La Fontaine's equal, but he is a very charming fabulist, and this edition is welcome.

M. Jules Lemaître is not only a brilliant critic, he is, as every one knows, a dramatist and a *nouvelliste*. His latest volume, 'Myrrha, Vierge et Martyre' (Paris: Lecène, Oudin et Cie.; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer), is a collection of very short tales of various epochs and different countries, in all of which the attractiveness of this author is felt. "Le petit Racine" and "La Cloche" may perhaps be specially picked out.

'Vieille Histoire,' by Charles de Berkeley (Paris: Armand Colin et Cie.), is quite sufficiently entertaining to make it worth reading. It is a good average novel, resembling the ordinary English production, especially in the lack of the sensual element. There are plenty of pages which can be skipped and leave the real story untouched; the characters are somewhat sentimental, and the tone is rather of the young-girl order.

The 'Grammaire Raisonnée de la Langue Française' of M. Léon Clédat (Paris: Le Soudier; New York: Westermann) is a very interesting book. It is, to begin with, a valuable exposition of the grammatical forms of the language from a scientific standpoint and in clear, precise language. Next it is an arraignment of the needless complications and difficulties introduced at various times by grammarians usually ignorant of the history of the language they were engaged in regulating. A very large part of the book is occupied with phonetics, and is evidently inspired by the desire—or, more exactly, determination—to bring about a reform in orthography. M. Clédat makes out a very strong case for the reformers, whose recent failure to enlist the Academy's sympathy has evidently not daunted them, for both he and M. Gaston Paris, who has written a solid and thoughtful preface to the work, are resolved to continue the attack until victory crowns their efforts. As for the second part of the grammar, which treats of flexions and syntax, it is simply admirable, and certainly no one studying French seriously can afford to be ignorant of what M. Clédat has to say. The 'Grammaire' is one of the most valuable scientific contributions to this class of literature which have appeared for many years.

It is seldom that the dust of historical libraries blossoms into such a pretty romance as that which forms a prefatory note to the first paper in the July number of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*, "Journal of a Volunteer Expedition to Sandusky, from May 24 to June 13, 1782." This was the military adventure against the Ohio Indians which ended in the awful torture of the commander, Col. Crawford, one of whose aids was Major "John Rose," a Russian nobleman who had volunteered in the service of the colonists during the Revolutionary war. A great-grandson of this interesting and respectable character, Baron George Pilar von Pilchau, one of the Russian delegates to the Chicago Fair last summer, was directed to the rooms of the Pennsylvania Historical Society, in Philadelphia, where he astonished the librarian "by taking from his pocket a package containing the original drafts of some of the letters" being shown him among the "Irvine Papers." On his return to Russia, Baron von Pilchau forwarded this Journal, which possesses a decided historical value, and a photograph of his ancestor, Gustavus H. de Rosenthal, which is reproduced in the *Magazine*.

The first number of a new literary periodical entitled *Euphorion*, "Zeitschrift für Literaturgeschichte," and edited by August Sauer, has just been issued by C. C. Bucher in Bamberg, Bavaria, at four marks a number. It is intended to supply the place of Seuffert's *Vierteljahrschrift für Literaturgeschichte*, and Schnorr von Carolfeld's *Archiv für Literaturgeschichte*, the former published by Böhlau at Weimar and the latter by Teubner at Leipzig. *Euphorion* is intended to embrace the whole field of literary research from the close of the middle ages to the present time, and will comprise essays of a general character, special studies, important contributions in the form of letters, diaries, archival documents, texts, criticisms, and bibliographical communications. Although chiefly German, the periodical will be somewhat international in character, and will include brief reports on American, English, Russian, Hungarian, and other foreign literatures. In the present number the articles are signed; hereafter they will all be anonymous.

The official organ of the Bureau of the International-Copyright Union, *Le Droit d'Auteur*, is issued at Berne on the 15th of each month, under the able editorship of M. Henri Morel, the director of the bureau. It furnishes reliable summaries of the copyright movements of the world, learned essays on interesting questions relating to the legal protection of literary and artistic property, analyses of copyright decisions, together with much else that is of permanent worth relating to a subject of growing importance. Of special value for present use as well as for future reference are the texts of copyright statutes, and related ordinances, which are printed in full, in French, and include not only all legislation since the formation of the Copyright Union, but, in the case of some countries, all the copyright laws in force. To this important material the editor has now furnished a special index covering all the legislative documents printed from 1888 to 1893, inclusive. It is quite certain that within a few years copyright must assume in the United States something of the importance ascribed to it abroad, and the prudent librarian should prepare for that time by securing a complete file of this periodical before the back numbers are exhausted.

An apparently well-informed writer in *Blackwood* for July sounds a note of alarm in respect to the Senussi confraternity of Mohammedans. Its founder was a native of Algiers, a descendant of the Prophet, who, after preaching reform throughout northern Africa, retired about the year 1845 to Jerbum. This is a small walled town in an oasis in the Libyan desert, about 400 miles west of Cairo and on one of the principal caravan routes between the Mediterranean coast, the central and western Sudan, and Egypt. Here he built a *zawia*, or convent, and devoted the rest of his life to the organization and propagation of his order. In 1859 he died, first nominating as his successor his son Mohammed es Senussi, at the same time hinting that he was to be the Mahdi. Up to this time the son has lived in strict seclusion in Jerbum, "a mystic being enshrouded in an atmosphere of saintliness." His missionaries, however, have gone through the regions west of the Nile valley, establishing countless zawias, in which the priesthood are the political as well as the spiritual leaders. Their methods are as yet entirely peaceful and conducive to the prosperity of their followers. They promote agriculture, open wells, plant crops, and cultivate date-palms. Only in Egypt and the Nile valley has the order failed to establish itself. The great interest in this wave of religious feeling which has swept over so large a part of Africa is in the possibility of a change in its character.

"The Partition of Africa," by Mr. A. Silva White, in the *Nineteenth Century* for July, is a not very clear or convincing discussion of the Uganda settlement and the recent Anglo-Congo agreement. In criticising the Government for its lack of vigor in respect to Uganda, and especially for its refusal to build a railway from the coast, at least part way to the Lake Victoria, he shows what seems to us an absurdly exaggerated estimate of the value of this country to the English. He even goes so far as to assert that, if it had been abandoned, the English hold upon Egypt "would have been undermined," apparently forgetting that, though this region is the Nile source, more than 1,500 miles of at times absolutely unnavigable waters lie between it and the Egyptian frontier. Very doubtful, also, is his statement that the retention of Uganda by the English involves "the pacification of the Sudan," or, in other words, another costly expedition against the Mahdists. In his treatment of the protests against the Anglo-Congo agreement Mr. White has little difficulty in proving the weakness of the French position, as well as its inconsistency in the light of the occupation of Tunis and their more recent operations in the Hinterland of the German and English possessions in West Africa. The article is accompanied by an admirably clear map showing the present political divisions of the continent.

The article in the *Nineteenth Century* in January last by Dr. Mills on Zoroaster excited much interest in Bombay. A request has been made by a Mr. Coorlawalla, a prize essayist of the local Sir J. Jejeebhoy Zend College, to allow the article to be translated into Gujrati. Consent has been given, and the article will be published in a large edition by

the Trustees of the Sir J. Jejeebhoy Translation Fund.

We cannot speak from personal acquaintance as to the fidelity of the imperial-panel photograph of Chief Engineer George Melville, U. S. N., just published by F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia. The character which has won such a position, however, and which distinguished one of the heroes and historians of the ill-fated *Jeannette* polar expedition, is clearly visible in this powerful and attractive head.

—From the statistics of illiteracy in the United States in 1890, it appears that, of the total population ten years of age and over in 1890, 12.4 per cent., or one-eighth, were illiterate. Ten years earlier a similar proportion was 17 per cent., or about one-sixth, showing an immense reduction in the proportion of illiterates. This reduction has taken place in the ranks of the native-born whites and of the colored, while among the foreign-born the proportion has increased. Thus, the proportion of illiterates among the native whites was in 1890 6.2 per cent., and in 1880 8.7 per cent. Among the colored the corresponding proportions were 56.1 per cent., and 70 per cent. Among the foreign-born, on the other hand, the proportion of illiterates in 1890 was 13.1 per cent., and in 1880 12 per cent., an increase to be accounted for by the excessive immigration of the decade and by the character of much of that immigration, which consisted of the lower classes of southern and eastern Europe—Italians, Huns, Poles, and Bohemians. The illiteracy of the country is therefore mainly represented by the foreign-born and the colored elements, and by the latter in much greater degree than the former. Considering the entire population, the States in which illiteracy is most prevalent are those of the South. Mason and Dixon's line, the Ohio River, and the thirty-seventh parallel of latitude separate the literate from the illiterate States. North of that line the proportion of illiteracy ranges from 3.1 in Nebraska up to 12.8 in Nevada. South of that line it ranges from 14.6 in the District of Columbia to 45.8 in Louisiana, if we except Oklahoma, which was largely settled from Kansas and carried Kansas education with it. Indeed, throughout the cotton States the proportion ranges high, being 40 per cent. in Mississippi, 41 in Alabama, nearly 40 in Georgia, and 45 in South Carolina. In the Northern States, throughout New England and the upper Mississippi valley, the average is between 5 and 6 per cent.

—Analysis shows that the colored people of the South measurably offset the foreign-born of the North. The distribution of illiteracy among the native whites is in its broader features quite similar to that of the total population. The North contains a very small proportion of illiterates, ranging from 0.8 per cent. in Nevada up to 6.8 in Missouri, while in the South, again leaving Oklahoma out of consideration, the proportion ranges from 5.9 in Maryland up to 23.1 per cent. in North Carolina. The proportion of illiterates among the native whites of the Western States and Territories is smaller than anywhere else, with the exception of New Mexico, where it is larger than in any other State or Territory, being not less than 42.8 per cent., owing, of course, to the presence of the large Mexican population. Among the foreign-born the proportion ranges in those States where this element is significant from 7 per cent. in Washington up to 26 in New Hampshire. It is very high in New England—much higher than in other of the Northern States, owing to the large number of French Canadians. It is low in the West and Northwest, where the foreign element mainly consists of Germans and Scandinavians. The colored inhabitants of the Northern States have a much smaller proportion of illiterates than those of the Southern States. In the North the average is not far from 30 per cent., while in the South it is probably nearly or quite double that proportion. Among the cotton States it ranges from 50 per cent. in Florida to 72 in Louisiana. In Mississippi, Georgia, Alabama, and the Carolinas it ranges between 60 and 70 per cent.

—One of our correspondents has been so lucky as to fall in with a little leather-covered book, like those of bank depositors, which contains Daniel Webster's autograph record of his legal receipts. This chronicle fills twenty-eight pages, and extends a little more than from 1833 to 1836 inclusive. The first entry, dated September in the former year, is of $50, and the second of $20, for retainers on the New Hampshire circuit. The first fee of $1,000 was paid in May, 1834, by a Mr. Badger. Services regarding Cilley's will commanded $800. The total amount for the first year was footed up as $13,140, with the remark, "September 22nd, 1834, thus done and concluded." A similar summing up appears at the close of each other year. The second total is $15,-183.74; the third is $21,793. The first entry of $2,000 was in 1835, March 7; the first of $3,000 December 7 in the same year. This last payment was in respect to Florida land. The largest single honorarium was $7,500. In February of the fourth year $5,000 is set down as bestowed in a case of Trinity Church (N. Y.). In turning over this record leading metropolitan and even provincial lawyers are astonished that Webster, already twenty years in Boston, so undervalued his services. He learned better at last. When Robert C. Winthrop looked at the earliest date, he said, "That's just the time that I was ending my studies in Webster's office," and the chirography led him to add that Webster never wrote a firm hand. Nobody has surveyed the relic with more interest than Dr. O. W. Holmes. Among other things he said: "Had the influx been tenfold, Webster's purse would have remained empty still. Had its capacity received like the sea, whatever entered there would have run off like water from the back of a duck."

—Petrarch once was at pains to explain to Boccaccio that he had forborne to read Dante for fear of unconscious imitation. Whatever Petrarch may or may not have done unconsciously, of conscious imitation there is in his work no end. Frankly, the *Canzoniere* are just a new orchestration, with a few original variations or cadenze introduced, of the 'Vita Nuova'; the dependence of the *Trionfi* upon the 'Commedia' is obvious; and the identity of development of the whole theme from a comparatively human love-song in the 'Vita Nuova' and 'Canzoniere,' through moods of ever more and more mystical unction up to the final pietistical pæans of the "Paradiso" and the *Trionfo della Divinità*—this identity needs no proof but assertion. It has remained, however, for two Italian scholars, Prof. G. A. Cesareo and Signor A. Moschetti, working simultaneously but quite independently, to expose the details of this intimate relationship between the duumvirs of Italian poetry. Prof. Cesareo's monograph, which appeared in a recent number of the *Giornale Dantesco*, shows up more especially the formal and stylistic indebtedness of Petrarch to Dante. Signor Moschetti, in his separately published pamphlet, lays stress rather on the Dantesque inspiration of the *Rime*. Certainly the counts against Petrarch are numerous and strong. We are made to see him at his desk with the 'Vita Nuova' before him, sugaring, watering, and refining upon its condensed and rugged motives very much as Liszt worked up Hungarian folk-songs into grandiloquent rhapsodies. If, as is true, the crises of his passion occur in exactly the same relative order as those of Dante's, at least there is originality in the very different virulence and duration of these, as it were, sympathetic attacks. This difference appears very nicely in the comparative number of verses in which the several crises are described. Thus, the intense subjectivity and frankly human passion of Petrarch expand the more personal portion of his work, the *Canzoniere*, into 331 sonnets and other poems; whereas the corresponding portion of Dante's work, the "Vita Nuova," amounts all told to barely 31 sonnets and poems. The 'Commedia,' on the other hand, the especial masterpiece of the divine theologian and all too Platonic lover, is about five times as long as the *Trionfi*—among the laborious heights of which, if truth must be told, the now corpulent Petrarch appears somewhat sluggish and scant of breath.

—The student of mediæval culture has reason to be grateful to Dr. Sutter for his monograph, 'Aus Leben und Schriften des Magisters Boncompagno' (Freiburg i. B., 1894). He had already shown his mastery of the intellectual and spiritual movements of the thirteenth century by an excellent work on Giovanni Schio of Vicenza, and this companion volume will not detract from the reputation earned by its predecessor. All accessible sources of information, printed and manuscript, have been ransacked to throw light upon the somewhat erratic career of the forgotten worthy whose renown in his time stood high as professor of grammar and rhetoric at the University of Bologna, and who deserves the place assigned to him by Dr. Sutter as one of the precursors of the Renaissance. Investigators of the legends of the Wandering Jew will find here the earliest description of that individual in an old man whom Boncompagno met in Jerusaem, claiming to have been with Pontius Pilate when Christ was crucified. This doubtless explains the legend, for the credulity of pilgrims to the Holy Sepulchre was so industriously exploited that there probably was almost always there some ancient impostor to personate the immortal vagrant. Though Boncompagno had no faith in the story, he was sufficiently a son of his period to embody in his treatise on rhetoric the ascription of the origin of letter-writing to the Ark, when a message on a laurel leaf conveyed to a son of Noah the suggestion that he should cover the nakedness of his father. The "Rota Veneris"—a series of examples of the art of love-letter writing—of which Dr. Sutter gives us an abstract, throws a curious light on the easy morals of the time. As a whole, the little volume is well worth the attention of scholars, who will find that the author's lightness of touch renders it pleasant reading in spite of its solid learning.

—'The Home Life of the Ancient Greeks,' translated from the German of Prof. H. Blümner by Miss Alice Zimmern (Cassell Publishing Co.), is a timely publication well adapted for intelligent readers of all kinds, as well as for

use by classical students. The original constituted vols. lx.–lxiii. in the series entitled "Deutsche Universal-Bibliothek für Gebildete," and is the work of a thorough scholar and antiquarian, editor of the third edition of Hermann's 'Griechische Privataltertümer.' Its scope is distinct from that of Guhl and Koner's 'Life of the Greeks and Romans,' which is strictly an illustrated treatise on antiquities. The special merit of this book is that it sums up, in a clear and consecutive narrative, whatever is known on such topics as costume, birth and infancy, education, daily life within and without the house, public festivals, agriculture, trade and handicraft, slavery, etc. These and kindred subjects are treated in the several chapters in a manner which, while free from superfluous technicalities, is trustworthy and accurate, so far as the constant progress of antiquarian discovery will permit. For example, a reproduction of the beautiful theatre of Polycleitus at Epidaurus would have been preferable, as a type of the genuine Greek theatre of the best period, to Strack's restoration of the theatre at Segesta, p. 397; and the description of the stage as raised ten or twelve feet above the orchestra certainly needs some qualification, in the light of recent exploration and theories. The illustrations, without being artistic, are well chosen and sufficient for the purpose. The translation is in some respects an improvement on the original. It is more accessible, being furnished with headlines and a good index, which the original does not possess. Moreover, Miss Zimmern's English is clearer, neater, and more straightforward than the German, presenting substantially the author's meaning without his repetitions and divagations, for the learned author often permits his sentences to sprawl and twist with that casual clumsiness which the German public mildly tolerates and the French so sternly represses. One small speck we notice in glancing over the chapter on slavery, p. 525, where the rendering "At Athens the *hangman*" (*Henker*) is liable to convey the false impression that hanging was customary in Athens.

—The late Bruno Piglhein, who died at the age of forty-six on the 15th of July, is a great loss to the new school of artists in Munich. He was the first president of the new society of Bildende Künstler, formed by the 160 "secessionists" who lately rebelled against the discrimination against foreign exhibitors. In this country Piglhein's name was first made known by the copious reproductions of his humorous pastel of a little girl and dog, seated, with their backs to the spectator, over a stream; which was turned into a clever cartoon called "Jack and Me" during the Blaine campaign in 1884. A spurious cyclorama of the Crucifixion, which he vainly tried to suppress by legal process, further served to draw attention to him here. Piglhein began by failing in his chosen specialty of painting religious panels. He then turned to the trivial treatment of slight and meretricious subjects and succeeded. When success was once assured, he returned to his old love. He came to Munich after having failed as a sculptor in Hamburg and Dresden, and spent ten long years in painting saints and madonnas, most of which returned to his studio unsold. One large picture of the Crucifixion, which was exhibited in Munich and Dresden in 1878 and 1880, was so roughly handled by the critics that Piglhein gave up the attempt and fled from his creditors to Paris. When he returned after a few years, he brought with him some daring pastels of actresses and painted women which found instant admirers. Then followed an endless series of similar pastels and of chalk portraits of children, all of which were distinguished by their bold execution and richness of color, so that within a few months Piglhein had risen to be the acknowledged master of the pastel in Munich. His tricks of style were copied by hosts of imitators, and eagerly studied by the students who flocked to his studio. At this same time, "for himself," as he expressed it, the artist was painting sombre pictures with religious subjects, which were never put on sale. In 1886 an offer from an English firm for a large cyclorama painting, leaving the choice of subject free, gave him the chance to return to his old field. Once more he painted the Crucifixion, and had the satisfaction of receiving praise where he formerly had encountered nothing but derision. The Royal Academy of Munich made him an honorary professor, and when the art war broke out in that city, his large painting of a blind girl groping her way through a flaming field of poppies was at once pronounced the *chef-d'œuvre* of the rival exhibition. This picture, it is safe to predict, will rank as his masterpiece, though it may never attain a reproduction like that which fell to the lot of the original of "Jack and Me."

## LUDLOW'S MEMOIRS.

*The Memoirs of Edmund Ludlow*, Lieutenant-General of the Horse in the Army of the Commonwealth of England, 1625-1672. Edited, with appendices of letters and illustrative documents, by C. H. Firth, M.A. 2 vols., pp. lxix, 548, 571. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1894.

THIS new edition of Ludlow's Memoirs by Mr. Firth contains passages heretofore suppressed. They are of little importance, being, not historical revelations, but reflections on the character of Shaftesbury, struck out by the first editor because Shaftesbury had at that time redeemed himself in republican eyes by turning against the court. Still, they make the memoir complete and authentic. But the most valuable features of this edition are the introduction and notes.

To readers whose ideas of the Cromwellian period and its characters are taken from Carlyle, Ludlow is known as "solid Ludlow," "wooden Ludlow," a man who could not have the divine spark in himself since he failed to recognize the divinity of Cromwell. Ludlow unquestionably was a heavy man, an obstinate man, and a man of one idea. His idea was abolition of monarchy. Whence his republicanism was derived—whether, like that of Marten, from the classics, or, like that of Harrison, from the anti-monarchical passages in the Old Testament—hardly appears. Probably it was from the former. He was, like many of the revolutionary leaders, a wealthy gentleman, and had been educated at Oxford, where, as we learn from an anecdote in the Introduction, his dogged pertinacity of opinion had already been displayed. Hatred of monarchy was his guiding star. With his eye fixed on this, he was blind to all beside—to the tyranny, corruption, and violence of the Rump, to the need of amnesty and reconciliation after the Civil War, to the practical fruits of the Revolution, offered together with toleration and national greatness by the Protectorate, to the monarchical tendencies plainly manifested by the people, and to the necessities of successive situations. Consequently he earned by his fractiousness and perversity a conspicuous place in the purgatory of those political suicides who largely helped the Cavaliers to bring about the Restoration. His political fanaticism formed a counterpart to the religious fanaticism of Harrison. It is due to him at the same time to say that his devotion to his idea, his integrity, his disinterestedness, and his fortitude seem to have been not less unquestionable than his wrong-headedness. In the field he approved himself a stout soldier and a trustworthy officer, though he was not fit for high command. He seems also to have upheld the humanities and courtesies of war. In his Irish campaign, it is true, he stifled a band of natives with smoke in a cave, anticipating thereby the Algerian exploits of Pélissier and St. Arnaud. But in Ireland it is the literal truth that the general who only put to the sword the inhabitants of Drogheda and Wrexford when they had refused to surrender, was the most humane commander on either side.

Ludlow is, of course, vehemently anti-Cromwellian from the moment when Cromwell became the "Single Person"; and his prejudice casts back a lurid light on the whole of the Protector's career, which he imagines to have been one long intrigue, pointing to the ultimate usurpation of supreme power. It happens that this hypothesis at all events is decisively confuted by one fact, the significance of which Carlyle would hardly have failed to note had he not been dazzled by the general glory of the Cromwellian Shechinah. It was after the death of the King, when the summit of Cromwell's ambition must have been full in his view, that he married his eldest son, Richard, to the daughter of Mr. Mayor, a private gentleman, negotiating strictly, though not covetously, about the settlement, and seeming to care for nothing so much as that the family with which he connected himself should be religious. It is hardly possible that Richard can have been at that time in his father's mind the destined heir to a crown or even to an hereditary Protectorate. Probably the best key to the enigmas of Cromwell's career is the assumption that he had not so much of forecast as he had of sagacity in deciding the question of the day, but was borne on by the current of events which carried him at last to supreme power. It was not to be expected that he should wear his heart on his sleeve. When the prospect of supreme power began to open, he sounded those about him and felt his way. This was not insidiousness, but common prudence. There is nothing to convict him of treachery towards any one, or of apostasy from any cause. He was a soldier of the religious rather than of the political movement, and had never, so far as we know, pledged himself against monarchy, though he had drawn his sword to put an end to the High Church tyranny of Charles and Laud. Nothing seems more certain than that, at the close of the first civil war, he did his best to make terms with the King. It was apparently only Charles's fatuous reliance on his own indispensability that prevented Cromwell's design of restoring him from taking effect, and drove Cromwell himself into the arms of the extreme party in the army, which, when Charles had a second time kindled the flames of civil war by his intrigues, resolved to take his life. Cromwell, though his mind cleared as he rose, was never free from fanaticism or from the moral self-delusion and tendency to cant which attend it. But he owed his supremacy to necessity, which led him by the hand from step to step; not to forecasting ambition or crafty intrigue.

Ludlow shared, if he did not start, the belief that the calling and dismissal of the Barebones Parliament were a stroke of Crom-

well's satanic cunning. The scheme was, it seems, by setting at work an assembly of extremists who would assail the law and the church, to frighten the lawyers, the clergy, and the conservatives generally into Cromwell's arms. Cunning so deep Satan himself might have envied. The Barebones Parliament comprised the most respectable representatives of Cromwell's own party, the Independents. These men, we are asked to believe, Cromwell brought together with the deliberate intention of discrediting them by failure and then estranging them by dismissal, in order that he might conciliate the precarious support of men who hated them and him; as though the hollowness of the bugbear would not have appeared and its efficacy have ceased as soon as the assembly had dispersed.

Ludlow's prejudice is, in fact, such as to deprive him of all value as a witness against Cromwell:

"Cromwell," he says, "having been disappointed, as I formerly mentioned, in his endeavours of procuring a civil authority to countenance his arbitrary power, made it his business so to balance all interests that they should not dare to oppose him, for fear of bringing themselves into a worse condition than that wherein they were. To this end he gratified such of the Presbyterian party as were the most complying, and courted divers of the nobility, particularly the Earl of Warwick, whose grandson was admitted to be a suitor to his youngest daughter. But because that this alliance was not at all grateful to some persons about him, he contrived to appear averse to the match; and then by the management of Sir Edward Sydenham it was brought about that the young couple were married without the knowledge of their parents: for which contrivance Sir Edward was for a time forbidden the court."

This, as Mr. Firth observes in the Notes, can scarcely be correct, inasmuch as it appears from Thurloe that the match was publicly negotiated and publicly celebrated. The parish register of St. Martin's-in-the-Fields shows that the banns of marriage were three times published, and "Mercurius Politicus" says:

"This day the most illustrious lady, the Lady Frances Cromwell, youngest daughter of his Highness the Lord Protector, was married to the most noble gentleman, Mr. Robert Rich, son of the Lord Rich, grandchild of the Earl of Warwick and of the Countess Dowager of Devonshire, in the presence of their Highnesses, of his grandfather and father, and the said Countess, with many other persons of high honor and quality."

The insinuation that Cromwell rejoiced at the death of Ireton, and the story of the programme for his funeral having been borrowed from that of the funeral of Philip II., are probably instances of the same credulity of hatred.

Justice at the same time requires us to say that Ludlow's resistance to the Protectorate was straightforward, manly, and dignified. He frankly avowed to the Protector his intention of taking advantage of any fair opening that might present itself for a return to his own political ideal. But in the meantime he did not intrigue or plot. Conspiracy with royalists and schemes for assassination would have been abhorrent to his honest nature. Some of Cromwell's critics have treated the plots as creations of Cromwell's secret service, got up to excuse arbitrary measures and to warrant confiscation. Ludlow affects no doubt of their genuineness. Was it Cromwell's secret service that got up the murder of the Commonwealth's ambassadors, Ascham and Dorislaus, or that of the regicide Lisle?

With the most questionable of Cromwell's acts Ludlow was not the man to reproach him, for we may be sure that his own hand was set to the death-warrant of the King with far less misgiving or compunction than that of Cromwell. Carlyle never was more mistaken than in saying that the execution of Charles gave flunkeyism a blow of which it has gone about sick ever since. Flunkeyism throve and has continued to thrive on the royal martyrdom. There are churches in England dedicated to Charles the Martyr, there are no monuments to James II. Vane protested against the execution of Charles, whose son requited him with judicial murder.

That Cromwell's government was a government of the sword, as Ludlow passionately complains, was true only in this sense, that it was supported by military force, as every government must be which emerges from civil war, though the soldiers in this case were not mere musketeers and pikemen, but the flower of English citizens in arms for a great cause. But Ludlow's "civil power" was the Rump. On what, except on military force, had the authority of the Rump rested? What was Pride's Purge but a triumph of military force over civil power? No one could show less desire to make the sword the permanent instrument of government, when order had been once restored, than Cromwell.

The strongest point which Ludlow makes against the Protectorate is in regard to its foreign policy. Cromwell's alliance with France against Spain, he says, upset the balance of power in Europe and paved the way for French domination. The criticism seems justified by the event. But Ludlow wrote after the event, under the Restoration; and it was to the ignominious and corrupt policy of the Restoration, which made England subservient to France, that the event was due. Had the policy of the Protector continued in force, England, instead of being subservient to France, would have been the ally of the Dutch Republic against French aggrandizement. Of the two Catholic powers, France was the more liberal, while Spain was the Apollyon of Protestants, and her decline, though it had set in, was still masked by the hugeness of her frame. It is true that Spain was also the richest and easiest prey, and that the Cromwellian policy, like the enterprise of the Elizabethan rovers, had in it a filibustering strain.

In the last agony of the Commonwealth, after the death of Cromwell, Ludlow remained faithful to his idea, and exerted himself most strenuously (and, if we were to grant the truth of his hallucination, not without sagacity) to bring about its realization. Heroically he struggled for the reinstalment of the Rump, which alone, in his eyes, possessed legality, and which for him retained indefeasible authority and unquenchable existence; its decimation by military force, the death of the King by whom the Long Parliament had been called, expulsion, and the subsequent existence of a totally different government with Parliaments of its own, all notwithstanding. The case was pretty desperate, as Cromwell seems to have felt when he omitted to execute, or destroyed, the deed nominating his successor, and only faltered Richard's name *in articulo mortis*. Yet had the opponents of the Restoration been wise and united, they might have averted the catastrophe. Richard, though feeble, and perhaps, in Puritan eyes, loose, was not idiotic or disreputable; personally he appears to have been popular, and he was free from the stain of regicide. He seems to have been amenable to guidance. An able Council of State, with a patriotic Parliament elected under a republican test and an army true to the cause, might have got along without disaster. There would have been nothing in an hereditary Protectorate more incongruous than an hereditary Stadholderate, while the monarchical cravings of the nation might have been satisfied. Mazarin and Don Louis de Haro, most competent judges, regarded the Protectorate as established, and Monk, also a most competent judge, was apparently of the same mind. From the Anglican hierarchy the people, as we learn from Pepys, were completely estranged. The royalist rising under Booth was put down with great ease; and Monk found it necessary at last to creep to his mark very cautiously and under a cloud of lies. But the opponents of the Restoration were as far as possible from being wise or united, and the result was that Ludlow, peering out of the window of the lodging into which he had withdrawn, saw the troopers of the Commonwealth return from escorting Charles Stuart. The soldiers seem to have contracted the professional character of a standing army, and to have lost in part that of soldiers of a cause. Yet the Court, till the army had been disbanded, restrained its vengeance and kept on its mask.

Ludlow the regicide, as an exile in Switzerland, where he was nobly protected by the native government, continued to be regarded as the head of the Republican party in England, and was accordingly the mark of Royalist assassination, to which his fellow-exile Lisle fell a victim. But for the leadership of conspiracy he was ill-qualified. After the Revolution of 1688 he appeared in England, but only to find that, though Stuart despotism had been overthrown, the hatred of regicide Republicanism was little abated, and that there was no part for him to play on his old political stage. The "Single Person" was as firmly established as ever in the popular superstition. Could he have foreseen the future, he might have been comforted by knowing that William III. was the last king who would govern, while behind him came a procession of phantoms who would only reign; so that practically the Commonwealth had won. If his foresight could have extended to Mr. Keir Hardie, he might have flattered himself that even the formal realization of his ideal would be merely a question of time.

## LILLY'S CLAIMS OF CHRISTIANITY.

*The Claims of Christianity.* By William Samuel Lilly. D. Appleton & Co. 1894. 8vo.

THIS is an attractive volume in its externals, and is not without interest to the reader, for its subject is of supreme importance, the writer is thoroughly in earnest, and his style is vigorous, though sometimes incorrect and occasionally marred with undignified colloquialisms. Yet one cannot but feel a certain amount of compassion for an author so zealous whose acquaintance with his subject is so superficial, and who is unable to convey a clear conception of his object. Apparently this is to show that Christianity is the true universal religion, and that it can manifest itself as such only through the Catholic Church with the Papacy at its head. To accomplish this, he devotes a third of the volume to Buddhism and Islam, and then considers the vicissitudes of the Church through the middle ages, the Renaissance, the Reformation, and in modern times; but the mode of treatment is so discursive and the book consists so largely of quotations from writers of all kinds, mostly modern, with the author's comments on them, that it leaves no clear im-

pression on the reader of having any definite purpose, and rather suggests that it is a promiscuous emptying of a commonplace-book of elegant extracts pieced together after a fashion.

Mr. Lilly is too honest to gloss over the dark spots in the career of the Papacy—its degradation in the first half of the tenth and eleventh centuries, its secularization and immorality in the fifteenth, and the intolerable abuses of the curia which no Pope, however well intentioned, could reform. This honesty affords an insight into the curious paralysis of the reasoning faculties which seems to afflict those who surrender themselves to dogma, and who can reconcile with divine order the human depravity of pontiffs whom they regard as the visible representatives of God. This inability to frame a logical connection of ideas runs through the whole work. We are told (p. 55) that "toleration is essentially a modern notion," and in defining (p. 157) the "three kinds of freedom," freedom of conscience is omitted. Mr. Lilly admits and deplores in several passages the persecuting spirit with which the Church has always, when able, crushed schism and heresy, and yet he tells us (p. 105) that it was the destined work of Gregory VII. "to rescue liberty of conscience," and he perpetually (pp. 87, 236, 240, 243) insists that the Church is the champion of the rights of conscience. The reader who reflects on the Inquisition of Spain and Italy, or even on the measures through which Clement XI. and Innocent XIII. enforced the bull *Unigenitus* on the Gallican Church, may well ask himself whether some new definition is to be assigned to the words toleration and freedom of conscience.

Similar intellectual color-blindness is observable in Mr. Lilly's objurgation of the German princes of the Reformation and of Henry VIII. for resuming the powers exercised by Constantine and Charlemagne. Constantine, it appears (p. 86), was "sagacious" when he made the Church an affair of State, but when Henry VIII. did the same thing, it was "the finishing stroke of Tudor absolutism" (p. 205). Both monarchs acted from purely selfish motives, and an ordinarily rational writer would not have allowed his imagination to be controlled by the accident of the ownership of the ox that was gored. In this case, however, allowance should perhaps be made for deficiency of knowledge, for Mr. Lilly evidently is not aware that the principle which he denounces so roundly, *cujus regio ejus religio*, was the accepted doctrine of the Church in the time of St. Optatus. This deficiency of knowledge is further apparent in his remark (p. 118), "Dante describes Constantine as founding his new capital on the Bosphorus that 'he might give the Shepherd room.' Whether or not this was his intention in the transfer of the seat of empire, such unquestionably was its result." He evidently does not know that Dante only voiced a current notion derived from the forged Donation of Constantine, and is oblivious of the fact that the Western Empire lasted for a century and a half after the founding of the new Rome.

Mr. Lilly tells us that he writes as a publicist, and perhaps this may explain why he has so little to say as to the supreme function of religion as the teacher and guardian of morals, and why he seems to have little conception of it as a force making for righteousness. He admits that the Ages of Faith, which he so earnestly admires as exhibiting the practical realization of the "Claims of Christianity," were also ages in which "the firmest faith and the grossest corruption of life . . . were found united in the same person" (p. 134). There is nothing shocking to him in this dissociation of faith and morals so long as the faith is the true faith; but when he comes to treat of Protestantism, he employs a different standard, and resorts to sweeping *a priori* assertions of which he does not and cannot give a scintilla of evidence. Thus (p. 192) he tells us that "The Antinomian doctrine of justification which he [Luther] fabricated was productive of far worse results in the lives of men than had been the traffic in indulgences so strongly denounced by him"; and again (p. 212), he speaks of Protestantism as resulting "in the decay of the moralities essential to the maintenance of civilized life." Before committing himself publicly to charges so serious, a self-respecting writer would have examined a little into facts, and would have readily learned from statistics that in Vienna 50 per cent. of bir hs are illegitimate, in Graz 62 per cent., in Berlin 15 per cent., and in London 4 per cent., while Rome, with 44 per cent., still holds the preëminence which Mr. Lilly admits (p. 160) it enjoyed in the fifteenth century, of being the most dissolute city of Italy. Far be it from us to follow his example and to assume, from these figures, that our Catholic brethren are immoral because they are Catholics, for it is well known that the Irish Catholics are the chastest race in Europe; but facts so readily ascertainable should restrain even so emotional and inconsequential a writer as Mr. Lilly from evolving such figments from his inner consciousness, and from sneering (p, 70) at "the mild virtues of the British 'lower middles,' the peculiar tenderness of the Nonconformist conscience."

We might proceed indefinitely with illustrations of Mr. Lilly's incompetence to handle the great subject with which he has grappled, but these will probably suffice, and we will only add a comment on a matter which possesses interest beyond his method of its treatment. In one of his discursive excursions he maltreats violently the late Mr. Symonds for aspersing the Society of Jesus, and makes a special point (p. 176) of his "amazing blunder" in repeating the accusation that in the Society sin must be committed at the command of a superior. With a somewhat elaborate display of learning, he explains away the passage in the Constitutions (p. vi., cap. 5) on which the charge is usually based, but a little more familiarity with Jesuit rule and practice would have preserved him from this fruitless labor. An earlier clause in the Constitutions (p. vi., cap. 1) prescribes that the inferior shall abnegate in blind obedience his own judgment and opinion as to all commands of a superior, unless he can define that there is sin in them. Defining a sin in anything, under the Jesuit system of probabilism, is by no means an easy matter, and is especially so in the commands of a superior, for the most rigid of Jesuit moralists, the General Thyrsus Gonzalez, declares that the subject must abandon his own opinion and accept that of his superior as righteous, while the construction placed on the rule of obedience is explained by La Croix, who says that even if the command is wrongful, the subject in obeying it only incurs material sin (that is, nominal sin, which is not an offence to God) and avoids the greater evil of insubordination. This was not the teaching of the other religious orders. Father Sayre, who was a Benedictine, and Father Marchant, who was a Franciscan Recollet, say that, if an inferior feels doubt as to the innocence of a command, he must not obey it while the doubt exists; conscience holds the first place, and obedience is due only for what is licit.

## JUSSERAND'S PIERS PLOWMAN.

*Piers Plowman:* A Contribution to the History of English Mysticism. By J. J. Jusserand. Translated from the French by M. E. R. Revised and enlarged by the author. London: Unwin; N. Y.: Putnams. 1894.

M. JUSSERAND is well known as an enthusiastic student of English literature and English life in the Middle English and Elizabethan periods, and as the author of several valuable works on these subjects. In the original, the present volume is linked to a preceding study —translated by Miss Toulmin Smith as 'English Wayfaring Life'—by the general title "Les Anglais au Moyen-âge," but this title is left out in the English version. Like Miss Toulmin Smith's translation just referred to, the book before us is an authorized rendering, revised by M. Jusserand himself, and may fairly be called a second edition. The notes are much fuller than those in the original, and there are a number of really illustrative pictures. The translation is thus a better "state" of the work than the French edition.

After an excellent sketch of the historical background of the poem and a sufficient analysis and account of the three versions in which we have it, M. Jusserand proceeds to an examination of "the author's name, life, and character." According to M. Jusserand, the author's name was William Langland, not Langley. He was born a serf. His father being too poor to educate him, he was enabled to learn "clergy" by the benefactions of friends, and contrived, illegally and perhaps fraudulently, to take orders. Taking orders was *ipso facto* emancipation, and this explains the language of Holy Church when she tells William that "she received him first and a free man him made."

"The friends of the poet died. They disappeared, perhaps, during one of those terrible epidemics that swept away whole villages. Being young, strong, and full of hope, he must have kept his illusions some time longer. But little by little the lights faded and the clouds grew darker. Isolation, poverty, and desire, all evil counsellors, now influence him. He has no one to help him; he has only his 'clergie,' which is extensive, if superficial, and we find him in London, trying to live by means of it, of 'that labour that ich lerned best.'"

That is, he lives on what he can pick up from the charitable, repaying them by singing masses for their souls and in similar ways. He condemns such ways, to be sure, just as he does not approve of bondsmen's sons' becoming clerks, but M. Jusserand maintains that his thus violating in his own practice two of his main precepts is quite in accordance with his character. *Deteriora sequor.* He was afflicted with a disease of the will such as those studied by Ribot. *Diboulie, aboulie*—these explain in Langland "the ebb and flow of contrary desires, his being successively drawn to the world and to God, and his sudden conversions."

It is impossible in the space at our command to do justice to the brilliancy of M. Jusserand's argument. We must rest content with a cautionary remark or two. As to the name—whether Langland or Langley—that is of slight moment. It is alleged that "tradition" is in favor of Langland. Prof. Skeat yields reluctantly to this tradition, feeling almost convinced by Pearson's arguments for Langley. M. Jusserand, not to put too fine a point upon it, does not state Pearson's case, which is very strong, with any degree of fairness, and he plays fast and loose with the "tradition." One would hardly guess, from his treatment of the subject, that the most important evidence

for this "tradition" is the fifteenth-century note in the Dublin MS.—a note which also contains the statement that William's father was a franklin or gentleman (*generosus*) named Stacy de Rokyle, who held of Lord Spenser in Oxfordshire. If this note is to be accepted as tradition in favor of the name Langland, why should it not be accepted in other matters as to which M. Jusserand rejects its trustworthiness? The note in the Ashburnham MS. to the effect that "Robert or William Langland made Piers Ploughman," shows by its vacillation that the writer did not know what he was talking about, for the poet tells us over and over again that his name was Will. It is to be hoped that Bale (who also absurdly calls the poet Robert) and Crowley will not be accepted as giving *traditional* evidence. Yet Bale it is who is the earliest authority for Cleobury Mortimer as Langland's birthplace, and M. Jusserand calls this tradition. The fact remains that Pearson's reasoning, based on the bulk of the information furnished us by the Dublin note, alone accounts for all the facts. To assert that this reasoning is opposed to "tradition" is surely to play fast and loose with words and logic.

M. Jusserand thinks the language of Holy Church to William is reconcilable only with the supposition that he was born a serf and was emancipated by taking orders. But this is a gross misreading, as Prof. Skeat long ago pointed out. The passage clearly refers to the reception of the child by Holy Church at baptism—a rite which sets him free from hereditary bondage to sin; the *borwes* (sureties) are the sponsors. No other interpretation is possible unless one has a theory to maintain. Further, William's words in reply to Reson in passus vi. (C text), if read with unprejudiced attention to the context, make it impossible to believe that he was born a bondman. The friends there referred to appear to be kinsmen or family friends, rather than rich patrons who enable a bright young serf to evade the law and go to the University. The same passage gives satisfactory evidence that William was not ashamed of living by means of *pater*, *placebo*, and *dirige*, remaining in that vo cation to which he had been called. "Prayers of a perfect man and discreet penance are the labor best pleasing to God." His denunciation of parsons who run to London to become chantry-priests, "singing for simony, for silver is sweet," is in no wise inconsistent with his own practice. He had no benefice; he left no "sheep encumbered in the mire." In short, we are convinced that M. Jusserand's account of William's station and of the "false position" in which the poet found himself is utterly mistaken, and that his theories about our dreamer's character are therefore in several particulars unsound.

In the chapters on Langland's view of the World and the Church and on his "Art and Aim," M. Jusserand is at his best. There is an abundance of matter set forth with masterly powers of exposition and with much brilliancy of portraiture. The scholar will here find a good deal that is to his purpose, and the reader for pleasure will be fascinated and instructed. The chapter on Langland's "Place in Mystic Literature" is equally brilliant and interesting, but not so sound. The parallel between Langland and Blake is almost absurd.

Though intended for the general reader, M. Jusserand's book contains many notes and observations of interest to the specialist. Such are the suggestions as to the wars "between two Christian Kings" (p. 49), the jubilee of Edward III. (p. 52), the date of the C text (p. 57), the "poor priests" (p. 127). But his accuracy is not always unimpeachable. He bases an assertion that Chaucer "found the rules of rhyme difficult" on a remark in the "Complaint of Venus," though that remark applies in reality only to a specially complicated rhyme-system which he is reproducing in that particular poem. He also declares that Chaucer "sneered at alliteration," quoting in evidence the Parson's "rim, ram, ruf," but suppressing the next line in which the same speaker avows a similar scorn of rhyme. His treatment of the metre of 'Piers Plowman' is far from satisfactory. But these defects and more than these we can well pardon in view of the pleasure and profit we have derived from the work as a whole. It is to be hoped that M. Jusserand will continue his series of monographs.

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*B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773-1783.* Vol. XX., Nos. 1762-1813. December, 1893. London: B. F. Stevens.

DECEMBER, 1777, was a short month, but not a merry one, for the three anxious political forces centred in Paris. The last of the fifty-one papers of vol. xx. of these facsimiles, dated on the 31st, from Stormont to Weymouth, leaves matters really as unsettled as do the memoranda, with which the volume opens, jotted down by Vergennes on the 6th of the month, and signed "approuvé" by the King, who expresses his willingness to establish a close understanding with the Americans, but refuses to recognize their independence or to conclude anything with them unless conjointly with the Spanish King; he furthermore enjoins the Deputies "to confide only in the President of Congress, while pointing out to him the necessity and desirability of inviolable secrecy." By this time Stormont is so close to the limit of any service which he may possibly render his Government, that his despatches begin to cease to have a vital interest, though he maintains to the last the indomitable persistency of his race and the personal courage of his class.

We turn, then, towards the Count de Vergennes and his strenuous attempts to induce the Spanish Court to see matters in exactly the same light in which he himself views them. From the first, he carries with him, or seems to, the convictions of the Count d'Aranda; but, in attempting to force into speedier action the Count de Florida Blanca, through the medium of the Count de Montmorin, who succeeded the Marquis d'Ossun at the Court of Spain, he is baffled by the superb dignity of the Spanish statesman, who does not recognize haste as suited to the exigencies of diplomacy or of war itself. In No. 1767, Aranda reveals an ingenious plot to dispose of Mr. Arthur Lee, whom Vergennes calls "that Deputy, who is very troublesome, and English to the marrow of his bones," and whom Aranda has told that he "could not comply with his desires, by order of my Court, which did not think him [Lee] necessary at Madrid, as everything was to be transacted at Paris, and for other reasons known to him since his first journey." The plan was the simple one of causing Mr. Lee to go as far as the frontier under the pretext of there being able to cross over into Spain when the Court of Madrid should give its consent! The contention of Vergennes is fully outlined in No. 1769, wherein he says: "The Power which first recognizes the independence of the Americans will be the one to gather all the fruits of this war"; and later: "Whatever course is taken, we shall have difficulty in avoiding war with England. It is not what we have done in favor of America which hurts her most grievously; it is the reëstablishment of the navy of the two crowns." He constantly shows his distrust of the consanguinity of the English and American race, and seeks to impress Spain (No. 1775) with the fact that her possessions on the mainland are more tempting to England than are the French islands. Without assurances from the Americans as to the expectations to which the two Crowns have a right to look, he hints that Florida might be lost in any event, although he admits that the Americans "are still too young to have ambitious views about opening up an interloping trade for themselves." Then follow (Nos. 1780, 1786) the rumors, derived through Deane, that the English Ministry is seeking to treat with the Deputies, through the medium of an "unknown," who is, of course, no other than Paul Wentworth.

On the 23d (No. 1790) Florida Blanca informs Montmorin that the Spanish King has decided to give abundant aid in money on condition of absolute secrecy, to offer protection (provided the colonists conduct themselves with fidelity and caution), and to watch attentively affairs in London. No. 1792 covers a heated interview between Florida Blanca and Montmorin, in the course of which the former asserts that the Deputies are trying to compromise Spain and France with England, but, growing calmer, admits that the Spanish King has a repugnance to treating with the Americans, and says it is "not easy to change the mind of a King sixty-two years of age, whose head is filled with Don Quixotism." The real cause of Spain's delay is now recognized to be the necessity of waiting for the return of the Mexican fleet, without whose safety in port it would be dangerous to excite England; the colonists, however, are promised 15,000,000 livres at the end of six months. The communication of Vergennes to Montmorin on December 27 (No. 1805) leaves the Spanish negotiation pending, though Vergennes earnestly urges that hesitation may "allow to escape the only opportunity which may perhaps happen for many centuries for putting England in its true place"; and that this war of necessity is "the most fortunate opportunity which Providence ever offered to the House of Bourbon."

Meanwhile Paris is alive with rumors that a treaty is really concluded between France and America, and that the English ministry is seeking peace on any terms short of conceding the complete independence of America. Stormont, always a ready listener to the gossip of spies, is at last driven to say to Vergennes (No. 1796): "If one-half of the news of Paris is true, it seems to me very doubtful whether I shall have an opportunity of wishing your Excellency a happy New Year; vous me permettrez donc de vous souhaiter la bonne année d'avance." All this because he hears that "on Sunday night a Resolution was taken in Council to assist the Rebels openly, and that a Treaty with them as an independent State was agreed upon, and on the point of being concluded and signed." To this Vergennes replies "that He had been at both Councils, and could assure me upon his Honour, that no Mention had been made of North America, nor of anything relative to it."

While Stormont is plied with information, principally through Paul Wentworth, of whom a rather cold vindication is offered through compulsion (No. 1812) by a Monsieur Favier, Beaumarchais, whose mind "wanders on shore-

less ocean" (No. 1773) by reason of Lee's malicious lunacies, is pouring into the ear of the French minister much information relative to English efforts to approach the Deputies. No. 1778 is a sensational account of the tracking by a French spy of a mysterious Englishman to Deane's house, and thence, by "numberless détours," to the Hôtel du Bain Royal in the Rue de Richelieu. Beaumarchais holds this person to be Mr. Smith, Lord Germain's secretary, but he learns later (No. 1781) that it is "Mr. Wintweth," and that he "feeds at two mangers," meaning that he, Wentworth, was on good terms with both Ministry and Opposition. Then Beaumarchais ejaculates despairingly, "I say, like M. D'Aranda, *God is a Bourbon, it is only the Bourbons who will not be Bourbons.*"

Of surpassing value and interest is No. 1787, written by a still unknown person to Dr. Bancroft. Many attempts have been made to identify the handwriting. Mr. Stevens, who reproduces the very indistinct seal, as a possible clue, remarks that "the last few words, signature, address, and one or two words on the second page of Facsimile 1756 are in the same hand." This letter, which it is a pity not to quote in full, is an open request for "some general intimation concerning the Terms which are likely to satisfy the Congress and People of America"; these terms must, however, stop "a little short of absolute Independency." The letter is written "by desire of a Person of high rank," and the writer closes by saying that "the Subject on which I write is of so delicate a nature, that you will excuse the Omission of my name; as you will readily know it by the Hand writing." It would be now a pleasure to share the knowledge once held by Dr. Edward Bancroft in this matter.

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*Diary of a Journey across Tibet.* By Capt. Hamilton Bower. Macmillan. 1894.

In his preface Capt. Bower modestly calls his book "a plain, unvarnished diary," without any "claim to literary merit or style," directed chiefly "to those interested in geographical research, and to those who may be contemplating travel in the same or similar regions." We only wish there were more diaries like this one. It has a freshness and simple directness which make it very pleasant reading in spite of occasional slips in grammar; and while all we are told is worth the telling, there is nothing that need fatigue the unlearned reader. We are carried along from one scene or adventure to another without losing interest, and we catch many vivid glimpses of men and things. The author also shows a keen sense of humor with a decided gift for expressing it. Indeed, he speaks of what he underwent and accomplished in such a plain, every-day manner that we are in danger of forgetting that his journey was quite out of the common run, and puts him in the front rank of living explorers.

In company with Surgeon-Capt. W. G. Thorold, starting from Kashmir, he crossed the whole length of the Chang or great Tibetan plateau. Near Lhasa, the sacred city which no living European has reached, he was compelled, after long discussion with the jealous authorities, to retrace his steps for a short distance and then continue by a route further to the north, until finally he came out on the Yang-tse-Kiang, which he descended to the sea. From June to November the average altitude of the ground where the party camped was over 16,000 ft. and much of the region traversed had never before been visited. On one occasion, deserted by their guides, they wandered for days, lost among the high mountains, in constant peril of lacking food or water. In more inhabited tracts they fared little better. One of the main difficulties with which the leader of the expedition had to contend was the character of the natives he encountered. Most of them were hostile, all entirely untrustworthy. Although he met with a few intelligent men among the highest class, the picture he gives us of the Tibetans in general is far from flattering:

"They are cowardly, faithless, and immoral; to those they are afraid of they are servile, to those they are not afraid of, insolent."

"It is almost impossible to get the correct names of places or lakes in Tibet, as every Tibetan lies on every occasion on which he does not see a good valid reason for telling the truth. Sometimes I have asked half-a-dozen men separately the name of a lake and received half-a-dozen different answers."

"It is a long time before one thoroughly understands what a mistake it is ever to be polite, or assume any affectation of friendliness, with Tibetans or Chinese. Even after being taught by experience the folly of it, I have unconsciously often treated them with courtesy and consideration, only to find in return that, while possibly showing politeness outwardly, they would lay themselves out to covertly degrade me in the eyes of the people by insults so far-fetched as often to be quite unperceived at the time, and would invariably manage to shuffle out of any compact. By taking a high tone, civility and as much honesty as their natures are capable of are insured."

And again:

"Poisoning is very prevalent. . . . If one offers a man tea, he generally refuses unless some one first drinks some in his presence; and when offering to eat or drink, a Tibetan invariably ostentatiously takes some in order to show there is nothing to be afraid of."

The government, as is well known, is a theocracy. In theory the Talai Lama, or Deva Zhung (happiness centre), is a *pape-roi;* in practice he is poisoned off before he comes of age. The lamas or monks, some half a million in number, are supported by the rest of the people, whom "they rule with a rod of iron."

"In no country is religion so much *en évidence:* every man has a praying wheel in his hand, which he continually turns, even when on horseback; piles of stones engraved with mystical sentences are met with; flags bearing the same mystical sentences flutter in the wind; and in the very hills and rocks they are inscribed. But all this outward show means nothing but a gross superstition; in no way do the people regard their religion as being a rule of life inculcating virtue and morality; all they think is that, by observing certain rules, benefit—but they know not what benefit—is obtained; and, by neglecting them, calamities—but they know not what calamities—would ensue."

It is perhaps doubtful whether Lamaism can be classed as Buddhism at all. The population (some 8,000,000, of whom perhaps half are in so-called Chinese Tibet) is kept by the custom of polyandry from outgrowing the scanty means of subsistence in this immense region.

The relations of Tibet and China, which are peculiar, may some day be of importance in the complicated game of Asiatic politics. According to the author, the *Amban*, or Chinese Resident, at Lhasa has no power whatever, and the Chinese are "a stalking-horse" to use against the outside world. Even further west, in regions nominally under their direct jurisdiction, the *Amban* is little more than a figurehead. So much for the present, but the author does not refer to the meaning of such a relation for the future. However shadowy Chinese suzerainty may now be, it probably has substance enough to keep off Great Britain and Russia; and as the military power of the lamas is *nil*, we may confidently expect that the Imperial Government will slowly but surely tighten its grasp, as it has in the last few years in other outlying provinces and dependencies. Kashgar is as far away as Lhasa from Pekin, and its inhabitants were far more warlike, but eastern Turkestan has been thoroughly subdued, and what is left of the population has been taught a lesson it will not soon forget. Already the peaceful invasion of Tibet has begun. The Chinese are coming in increasing numbers, pushing further and further west; and, as elsewhere, the natives, the weaker race, cannot in the end compete with them. Whether the country will be better off as a province of the Celestial Empire than under the present régime may perhaps be doubted.

"The identical people under the rule of China differ enormously from those under Lhasa. The Lhasa Government may not be a strong one, but, compared to the Chinese, it seems so; thieves, instead of being the rule, are the exception, and the people can certainly be restrained and kept in order by those in authority over them. A good deal of it may be owing to the fact that the Tibetan of high rank is immeasurably superior to the Chinese mandarin—in intellect his equal, in strength of character his superior; there is a more manly, healthy tone about him than about the time-serving literati of the Celestial Empire."

We doubt if the writer's experience was sufficient to authorize him to make such sweeping statements as some of the above. Still, we do not wish to close with a criticism, but rather to repeat that Capt. Bower, after making a remarkable journey, also deserves credit for the excellent and very readable account he has given us of it.

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*Modern Mystics and Modern Magic.* By Arthur Lillie. Scribners. 1894.

This book affords matter for curious reflections. Its purpose, if it has any definite purpose, is to draw attention to the mediumship of the Rev. W. Stainton Moses, and to urge the claims of the spiritualism that was in fashion twenty years ago. This Rev. Stainton Moses, a man of defective health—though whether epileptic or subject to insanity we are not told—was a country curate, and an undermaster in an unimportant school. He is said to have been one of the half-dozen greatest mediums, and the only one of the half-dozen whose mediumship was adverse to his worldly interests. That he must have seen it to be so, in advance of committing himself to it, is not made clear; but we are disposed to think that he did.

Spiritualism may be considered under two aspects: that of the phenomena or miracles (as we may, without prejudice, conveniently term them), and that of the character of its doctrines. Modern psychology has made a beginning towards an explanation of the former, still quite defective, and leaving their genuineness still in doubt. But the materialistic, and generally grovelling, character of the upshot, assuming the manifestations to be veritable, appears unmistakable in regard to the revelations of Stainton Moses. The clergyman seems to have written a book of his personal objections to the theological teachings of his spirit-guide, with the replies, which brought him to a state of belief that deprived him of his curacy and ultimately caused his death. Of these teachings, we can at best say that they might have been more flat. Many sects are founded upon less elevated ideas. But they are, on the whole, pretty commonplace, and not at all extraordinary. They show no wonderful insight, no deep spirituality; they seem rather to skim the surface of religion.

It is not an unparalleled occurrence to meet

an Anglican clergyman, only slightly acquainted with the sort of thought which has made the modern world, whose ideas of the divine order seem rather wooden and lifeless. That sort of man, it would seem, was the Rev. Stainton Moses. He took a part, at first, in the work of the Psychical Research Society; but his colleagues (though the scientific world has thought them rather credulous, and some facts have gone to bear out that estimate) found him altogether too incautious and hasty, while their ways of thinking were to him incomprehensible. The logical maxim called Ockham's razor was held by him, as it is by Mr. Lillie, in utter scorn. The latter declares substantially that if this principle be adopted, the conclusion must be Büchnerism. Namely, he remarks (p. 132) concerning Mr. Hodgson's saying, "I was compelled to assume, in the first instance, that Mrs. Piper was fraudulent," that "a man who starts on the investigation of psychical matters in that spirit" will come out with the doctrine (p. 135) "labelled 'Büchner.'" Surely, this is a very large concession. Were it a proper one, it would seem to settle the whole dispute. But it is not a proper concession. Büchnerism consists in a materialistic conception of the universe, due to a hasty and superficial generalization from some of the most striking results of physical science. The Psychical Research Societies cannot be accused of this. On the contrary, precisely what they are engaged in is the inquiry whether there are not phenomena which cannot possibly be brought under such a formula, They may not have been very wise to spend their lives in researches which, with the means now at command, did not promise decisive results. There is such a thing as economy in scientific investigations; and it was perhaps a rash undertaking for those men to stake their lives on such an exploration. Nor have they shown any fine genius—any Faradayesque power—of bridging the chasm between the known and the unknown. But they have shown themselves to be fairly candid and, under human limitations, rational inquirers. Certainly, if they have not been in haste to announce positive results which would have redeemed their reputation for good judgment in embarking in their enterprise, this reserve should redound to their credit. Sober-minded judges are inclined to think they look too favorably upon the slender promises of such results; not too sceptically.

The opinions of the prudent in regard to another world are very unsettled in our age; inclinations towards opinions are very divergent; but no doubt the resultant of them all is a vague faith that the creed of Büchner will not answer the conditions of the problem. Twenty years ago sensible people dwelt with emphasis on the vast amount of cheating and mendacity connected with marvels of all kinds. But during the interval many things have been brought to light to increase our respect for human honesty, until now it is likely the pendulum is on the other side of the equilibrium of justice. Most of us to-day are somewhat disposed to admit that, for example, Swedenborg had a miraculous knowledge of the fire in Stockholm, trivial as the miracle was, and in spite of the manifest falsification of his more important prophecies. Then, too, twenty or thirty years ago, thinkers dealt largely in necessity. Such and such a thing *must* be the case; such and such other thing *cannot* be. But since the axioms of geometry were exploded, as anything more than probable approximations, we fight shy of asserting that anything in nature is exactly accordant with our inductions. The question is no longer whether disembodied spirits *can* move matter, but whether the collective observations of experience are favorable to their frequently playing the particular sort of tricks which they are supposed by spiritualists to play. So in regard to miracles, we no longer ask whether the sun *could* go back on the dial of Ahaz, but whether the evidence is sufficient that it really did so.

Mr. Stainton Moses instituted many intended crucial tests of the manifestations. These are all, or nearly all, of one description. Namely, with or without the suggestion of a "spirit," he asks for information he is not aware of possessing, and under the supposed guidance of the spirit he writes down that information. Thus, he asks the spirit to write the first words of the last paragraph on page 98 of a book he has forgotten all about; and it is done. A modern psychologist would see in such phenomena indications of two or more states of consciousness capable of producing suggestions the one in the other. Perfumes played a great part in Moses's manifestations. Sweet odors, often of strange kinds, were usually perceived when something extraordinary was about to occur. As there seems to be no rational connection between the perfumes and the significance of the revelations, their occurrence naturally suggests some derangement of the brain.

Mr. Lillie practically admits the explanation by multiple consciousness, for his only reply to it is that all multiple consciousness is obsession by spirits. This is granting that the phenomena of Stainton Moses are of the same class as those of multiple consciousness; but Mr. Lillie fails to show how it is necessary to invoke the hypothesis of spirit influence to explain either the one or the other.

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*Edward Livingston Youmans*, Interpreter of Science for the People: A Sketch of his Life, with selections from his published writings, and extracts from his correspondence with Spencer, Huxley, Tyndall, and others. By John Fiske. D. Appleton & Co. 1894.

It is often remarked that the life of a man of science, how great soever his works may be, can offer but little of interest to the general reader. When the lives and letters of such men appear, we are accustomed to regard them as designed mainly for the edification of friends and relatives, and as performing for posterity much the same functions as an extended inscription on a tombstone. But one soon finds, on looking through Mr. Fiske's book, that an exceptional interest attaches to the history which it embodies. The characterization of Youmans as interpreter of science for the people may perhaps do the book a little injustice in giving the impression that his most important work took this direction. It was not as an interpreter of chemistry, or even of the doctrine of evolution, to the people, that Mr. Youmans most deserves to be remembered, but rather as the agent through which the doctrines and works of Spencer were first brought prominently to the notice of the American people. He may even have been a not inconsiderable factor in bringing Spencer to notice among his own countrymen. There is nothing uncommon in finding a philosopher without honor at home until it is reflected upon him from abroad. This is frequently the case with Americans—so frequently, in fact, that one never expects such a reflection to be thrown from America upon any European country. But in the present case it is certain that thirty years ago Spencer was much more widely read and highly appreciated in America than in England, and there is nothing unreasonable in supposing that American appreciation was an important factor in drawing English attention to his writings. That Youmans was the leading agent in this result was well known, but the full extent of his activity is now brought to view for the first time.

In his earlier chapters one cannot but admire the way in which Mr. Fiske makes a rather commonplace story both pleasing and instructive. A rural community in which social, political, and philosophic questions were freely discussed by young men and old, each determined to reach his own conclusions for himself, seems a very familiar sort of thing to us; but will it seem so to our children? Common enough to this day is the doubting and rationalistic husband abdicating his reason to a religious wife who does not use her reason at all. We have often read and heard of the youthful seeker after knowledge who reads all the good books he can get hold of, busies himself in demonstrating the laws of mechanics by windmills and waterwheels, and scares his mother with chemical experiments. But we much fear that as the graded school and the iron curriculum extend their influence over the land, this bright boy will disappear as the buffalo has disappeared before the advance of a semi-barbaric civilization. The country teacher caring little for rote learning, aiming rather at the development of the thinking faculty and the right guidance of spontaneity, is often described as one of the actors in the millennium, who is to take the leading part in showing the bright boy how to use his faculties. We are glad to learn that he actually existed sixty years ago in a New York village in the person of Jeremiah Goodrich, alias "Uncle Good." It is only just to remark that a most exceptional feature of the story is the almost total blindness of Youmans from the age of seventeen till twenty-three, and even longer, as recovery was very slow.

In the later chapters Mr. Fiske quite judiciously lets his subject tell the greater part of his story, through his letters and correspondence. No one who knew him only from his very grave articles in the *Popular Science Monthly* would ever have suspected him of being so lively and humorous a correspondent. In the letters the entire story of the arrangements through which Spencer's works were brought out in this country is told very fully. The story is an important and readable contribution to the history of an enterprise which has had an important bearing on thought in our times.

We lay the book down with a feeling that the author has put forth one of his best efforts in depicting a life which deserved more fame than it got, and offers a more instructive example to youth and manhood than the history of many more prominent actors in the world's drama.

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*Dante Rossetti and the Pre-Raphaelite Movement.* By Esther Wood. Charles Scribner's Sons.

*Dante Gabriel Rossetti.* By F. G. Stephens. London: Seeley & Co.; New York: Macmillan. [Portfolio Monographs on Artistic Subjects.]

The simultaneous appearance of two books on Rossetti, following the earlier and timely publications, shows an interest in the life and work of that unique artist which only those who knew him personally can thoroughly understand, as only a wide knowledge of art can

enable one to estimate their value. But a just comparative estimate of Rossetti as painter or poet is hardly possible yet, and no more can the truth of his life be told in the lifetime of persons now living, and who were in too close relation to him to be able to speak freely of him. The personal fascination of the man was such that those who lived under it long would never be able to judge his work coolly, while its peculiarities, defects, and qualities are such that time must be given for a broad estimate of its rank as art. To the material for forming this true estimate the book of Mrs. Wood furnishes no additional material; it is all hearsay; its opinions have all the inconsistency of the overestimate of the contemporary, without any apparent knowledge of the individual; it is at once inflated, exaggerated, and very insufficient, starts from the purely sentimental side of art, and rings the changes on mysticism and symbolism, poetry and painting, till one lays down the book with a wonder as to what kind of world the author has lived in. We alternate between dogmatism of the emptiest because founded on no knowledge of art, and declamation which is but the vagary of language.

The generalizations of the book may be fairly judged by a single example which we quote entire, the subject being the coming on the scene of the school (?) called pre-Raphaelite:

"Then the great wave of rebellion, surging through the life of Europe, swept into the deep backwaters of imaginative and creative thought. Men born into the storm and stress of revolution, and confronted with the great practical problems of practical life, were thrown once more upon the spiritual world. And as the outward struggle spent itself, its full significance weighed more upon the peoples. The deep charm of the contemplative, the reflective, the critical, fell once more upon the European mind."

One hears in this a murmur of Ruskin and Carlyle, about as he does the roar of the sea in a conch-shell. Next this, describing the "neo-romantic revival . . . which appeared soon after the year 1845 on English exhibition walls":

"And to do this it became necessary to set out, as it were, the terms on which life is lived; to deal not merely with the beauty which man loves and the joy which he desires, but also with the stern conditions of their attainment. The struggle between the present evil and the recognized good, the conflict of the soul with earthly bonds, Love baffled in dire cross-currents of fate and duty, or wasted and despoiled in sin, Faith shaken by the storms of circumstance, Hope bowed down before the closing doors of death; and, on the other hand, the glory of consummated joys (though never without the under-thought of their transiency) or the strength of human fidelity and endurance—these are the themes of the second renaissance."

After a rambling medley on the whole school, of which the only new matter is certain anecdotes furnished by a fellow-student at the R. A. school, Mr. J. A. Vintner, and which finishes with the death of Dante at Birchington, we have a rehash nearly as long, which reminds one of Agassiz's first lecture, in which, having told the audience all he knew in twenty minutes, to make out his hour he recapitulated it, and succeeded in occupying only a half-hour, and was obliged to stop for want of more to say.

Mr. Stephens's monograph is of a different type; and if posterity should find it necessary to give Rossetti his position among the immortals, his biographer will have furnished at least safe material to be guided by. The author knew Rossetti intimately from the beginning of his career, and, if affected in his judgments by the fascination of the circle, at least in his comparative estimates he is sound, as in his art opinions he is informed by a large critical experience. His judgments are toned by a strong personal attachment, and his facts are mainly accurate; but there are certain passages of Rossetti's life about which both he and Mrs. Wood are mistaken, and of which Stephens does not, perhaps, care to tell the truth. We think that Stephens, like all the admirers of Rossetti, overestimates the value of his technique, which was, as compared with his ideal of art, juvenile; he always lamented that he had not in the beginning been taught to paint, and he blundered all his life through experiments in methods of which he could not hope to see the success. He was essentially a subjective painter, and never profited much by direct study from Nature, unlike Millais and Holman Hunt, who never were able to leave her. There was nothing in common between him and them, if it be not originality. The samples of illustration in both the books under review show that Rossetti, unlike Millais, never learned to draw accurately, and in his later life his drawing is often curious in its distortion; but his sense of color was one of the most remarkable of all time, and makes us all the more regret that he had not been educated in a true and solid school which would have given permanence to his coloring and developed still further its motive. He was to the last a student, trying, often blundering, rarely satisfying himself. All the biographies of Rossetti mistake and misstate the circumstances of his final breaking down in health, which began, long before they noticed it, in over-work at night, and was already a grave menace in 1868. Most of the later works of Rossetti in which the female head was rendered, were taken from Mrs. William Morris, who shared the judgment of beauty with Miss Wilding; the two giving him the material for most of his later work. The head which Mr. Stephens gives in his illustration on p. 63 is not, as he says, of Mrs. Stillman, but of Miss Wilding; the "Lady with the gold chain," "Our Lady of Pity," "Pandora," "Proserpine," and many others at the time these were drawn, being portraits of Mrs. Morris.

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*An Illustrated Dictionary of Medicine, Biology, and Allied Sciences.* . . . Based upon recent scientific literature. By George M. Gould, A.M., M.D. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co. 1894. 4to, pp. 1633.

NOT to compare this dictionary with smaller ones in extensive use, by the same editor, we have confronted it first with the twelfth edition of Hoblyn's 'Dictionary of Terms Used in Medicine and the Collateral Sciences' (London, 1892), a plump duodecimo of 822 pages. Page 562 of the latter embraces *pith* to *placenta*, or ten items in all; while in the same limits there are twenty-one in Gould. Again, p. 672, Hoblyn has fifteen to Gould's sixty-nine. The compounds of *ophthal-* (Dr. Gould's specialty) number eight in the English and one hundred and sixteen in the American work. Hoblyn has no illustrations, while those in Gould are abundant and of great beauty of execution; among them we will single out the group of postures in surgical operations, which is backed by a table explaining the uses of each; the group of bandages, etc. The tables form an admirable feature, and we may particularize that of eponymic diseases, as Addison's disease, Barton's fracture, Bérard's aneurysm, etc., filling thirteen pages; parallel with which is the untabulated list under *Operations*, a perfect columbarium of eminent practitioners. Other remarkable tables are of arteries, bones, foramina, ganglia, muscles, pigments, poisons, stains, tests, and tumors; and lists of bacilli, bacteria, and parasites.

We have applied also the test of the 'Century Dictionary,' choosing the compounds of *hyper-*. This rich vocabulary contains twenty entries not to be found in Gould, and lacks ninety-nine which he has collected. It is fair to say that this difference is not absolute, since the one dictionary sometimes records the noun, the other the adjective, either of which would satisfy the seeker after definitions, and since a large part of Gould's vocabulary is strictly non-English. In the same way, and with the same qualification, the compounds of *cata-* in Dr. Murray's Dictionary yield twenty-one vocables not recorded by Gould, who in turn has forty-three not embraced in the greater work. The conclusion is not to the disparagement of either the Century or the New Dictionary; it is merely that Dr. Gould's volume is a substantial addition to this class of books of reference. A small number of foreign phrases has been admitted—*in extremis* (but not *in articulo mortis*), *in vitro*, etc. We miss the table of abbreviations which Hoblyn gives under Prescriptions.

This is not an historical dictionary. Occasionally dates are annexed to Latin names and to names of authors and inventors. On the other hand, neither under Ether nor under Anæsthetic is there any hint of the vexed question, for this country, of the first employment of ether in surgery. Phrenology is defined in a purely impersonal way, and without date. Spurzheim's Amativeness is let in without citing his authority; Philoprogenitiveness is disregarded; Bump is taken note of, with the remark, "origin uncertain," but this is etymological. Pronunciation is indicated in the simplest manner, except when French is in question, and then we have the old *on(g)* revived to imitate the nasal *en*. There is a moderate attempt to throw the weight of the Dictionary in favor of an improved spelling, while generally exhibiting also the common form. We do not share the editor's preference for the ending -eal over -ial in such adjectives as apophysial. The derivations of words are of most consequence in formations from Latin and Greek, the proof-reading in both these languages being noticeably careful; but pittacal is said to borrow its root from the Latin *pix*. Cross-references are sometimes inadequate. The expectation-table under Life finds no pointer under Expectation; the table of gestation or incubation under Pregnancy is not hinted at under either of its captions, and incubation itself is defined without including the meaning applicable to the table. In this table, by the way, the horse is bracketed with the camel as having a term of thirteen months, whereas eleven is the minimum for both. For Painters' Colic we are referred to Colica, but the description under Colic is much fuller. Pajot's Law has an entry by itself, but is not catalogued under Law, nor is his "method" registered under "Operations and Methods"; so Bowditch Island Ringworm is missing from the list under Ringworm.

These are trifling inaccuracies and inconsistencies in a work whose general trustworthiness is as apparent as its utility.

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*Society in China.* By Prof. K. Douglas. London: A. D. Innes & Co.

THIS book, by the keeper of the Oriental books and manuscripts in the British Museum and Professor of Chinese at King's College, naturally provokes comparison with another book

on the same general subject. The late Rev. Justus Doolittle's 'Social Life of the Chinese' was published in 1865 and reissued in the American edition in 1876. It dealt with the social institutions, customs, and views of the Chinese, and was written by one who lived constantly among the people, gathering his material and forming his judgments from living beings as well as from written records. It is to-day an excellent source of information Nevertheless, so densely apathetic is the feeling of the Western world towards China that new books seem to be requisite from time to time to excite even a passing interest. Apparently it is necessary that literary bomb-lances be shot frequently at the great mass of indifference in order to arouse it to sympathy or even curiosity. It must be confessed that Prof. Douglas's book is to be classed with those which the admirer of Marjorie Daw hurled at his body-servant Crosby, among projectiles. It has the whiz of a Jingo weapon. Apparently its object is to goad the British authorities to a more stalwart policy in China. From one point of view it is an appendix to the Jingoish Life of Sir Harry Parkes recently reviewed in these columns.

China is governed, both socially and politically, by the literati or mandarins, and for these gentry Prof. Douglas has no good word to say. He considers them the most bigoted wretches on the face of the earth. They are both unsleeping and implacable in their hatred of foreigners, and spend their lives in determined efforts to drive out all aliens from the country. They would build up a new Chinese wall around the whole world of China, and make a society utterly impervious to foreign ideas. They are incredibly conservative, and anything like originality in thought is hooted down as impiety and treason. No body of educated men known in history has ever equalled them in ignorance, bigotry, violence and corruption. It may be that all that Prof. Douglas says of these dictators of Chinese thought and fashion is true, but it seems never to occur to him that possibly the British view of the case has some elements of fallibility in it. "British interests" is no doubt a religion to many men born in England, and yet even the creed of this religion may possibly be in need of revision.

Apart from this criticism, the book is a welcome addition to the shelf of books on China. It is handsomely printed and bound. Its thick paper and good type, with the twenty-two illustrations, some of which are exquisite reproductions of scenery or architecture, make it rank high even among English books. The style is also very agreeable, and the text is divided into numerous short chapters, for the reader's comfort. Naturally the opening chapter treats of the Emperor and court. To the great family of the Chinese the Chief Magistrate of the Empire is not only the Son of Heaven but also the Buddha of the present day. To find out about the daily life of one so secluded from public view is an enterprise, even for one living in Peking, that would tax the ingenuity of a keyhole reporter for an American newspaper. The author, living in London, has to rely upon that wonderfully frank newspaper periodical, the *Peking Gazette*, and upon the plays and novels of the people, for sketches of his monotonous and dreary existence. After describing the government, the penal code, and the administration of the laws, the author outlines and details Chinese society, beginning with the village communities. He treats of the literati and farmers, and then of the mechanics and merchants—for China, with all her wealth and the antiquity of her commerce, rates the merchant below the farmer and even the farm laborer. The competitive examinations receive due treatment, and then follow descriptions of marriage, family life, and funeral rites. To Prof. Douglas, China is the land of shams. There is no country in the world where practice and profession are more widely separated. The Empire is preëminently one of make-believe. There is no more prolix or tiresome preaching of virtue anywhere on earth, and yet it is doubtful whether such systematic hypocrisy is elsewhere so general.

On some questions which students of Chinese life consider "vexed" or "burning," the author speaks with commendable modesty. He believes, because the proofs are too strong to believe anything else, that infanticide is frequently practised, but it is difficult to pronounce accurately upon the prevalence of the custom. Occasionally some foreigner may stumble upon out-of-the-way places which are covered with the unburied remains of infants, and notices may sometimes be seen at the sides of pools to the effect that "Girls may not be drowned here." The province of Fuhkien is most infamous for its destruction of girl-babies, while at Peking the custom cannot be said to exist at all. Other interesting chapters relate to food and dress, gardens and travel, coins and art. The chapter on the religions of China is curt and scrappy. It is in his treatment of England's commercial relations, the war of 1860, the outrages on missionaries, the audience question, and foreign trade in China, that the author waxes eloquent and becomes most vigorous in the handling of his pen. The book lacks an index, of which it is worthy.

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*By Moorland and Sea.* By Francis A. Knight. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

*Wayside Sketches.* By Eben J. Loomis. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

If certain expectations are ruled out of court in regard to these two volumes, almost everything that remains may be said in their praise. They may furthermore be praised in nearly identical terms and paragraphs, for, notwithstanding the transatlantic origin and scenery of one of them, they are alike in their qualities and their points of view. Both suggest, and incidentally confess to, a non-professional paternity. Neither is trimmed and pruned and clipped precisely, after the fashion of the writer who practises literature as an art, but in the more desultory mode of those who pursue it as a relaxation. The reader in quest of the artistic reticence and fastidious avoidance of commonplace that characterize such portrayers of rural England as "Q." and Hardy, may be warned off at once, while the mood that can be suited only by the delicate and distinguished humor of such another open-air saunterer as the author of 'Pagan Papers' must search elsewhere than here for its complementary color in print. But if themes that are at once refreshing and refining, sanely and cheerfully treated, are to any one's taste, he can be confidently promised its gratification at the hands of both our writers.

Mr. Knight's wanderings are wide and various. He describes from the deck of a yacht that stormy portion of the British coast which most travellers, by reason of their physical infirmity, see either not at all or in very incomplete glimpses. The Hebrides have lost nothing in wildness since Dr. Johnson made his famous "journey" thither. It is even possible that they have gained in human isolation through the displacement of crofters in favor of deer forests, more highly valued by modern owners. An undiminished population of birds, whose multifarious names could be remembered only by a naturalist, still inhabit the bleak cliffs, and lend variety and animation to Mr. Knight's descriptions. His moorlands are partly those of the north, and are in part those altogether lovely and desirable wastes of heather and gorse across which the North Devon coach ruthlessly speeds the passenger, in one and the same breath berating himself for his hurry and thanking the fortune that has brought him to an outside place on even this unsympathizing vehicle.

Ordinarily Mr. Knight is possessed of the wisdom that tarries in journeying. But his trip from Paddington to Plymouth, on the engine of a Great Western express, forms the topic of one of his most agreeable papers. At Bristol, Chatterton is of course brought to mind, but, strangely enough, Keats has not been remembered at Dawlish, notwithstanding the annoying inveteracy with which poetical quotations at every turn break the swing of the prose.

Their very limited circumference is, on the contrary, the distinguishing feature of Mr. Loomis's holiday outings. Save for a visit to the ruins of a family homestead in New England, they are confined to a comparatively small radius from Washington. But it is Mr. Loomis's cue to discover the largeness that the large mind can always find in circumscribed space, and he is eminently successful in his attempt. In his walks about the suburbs of the city of his adoption as Congressman, he reads a lesson to neighbors of the type of the Londoner who has never gone to see Westminster Abbey. He also is an intimate friend of the feathered tribes, and opens up an acquaintance with some of them for which any one may feel himself socially richer. Less happy when he allows his imagination too fantastic excursions into the boundaries of allegory, he nevertheless presents on every page the interesting individuality of a person who runs no risk of the boredom which is the bane and retribution of unoccupied minds.

Each of these volumes equally with the other inspires the wish that it might vie in popularity with the light novel, sole literary pabulum of such minds. But through the same flaw of constitution that prefers finery to cleanliness, or pastry to bread, there is little hope that, this side of a millennium, the careless reader will find his mental pastime in books which, like these, leave the mind fuller and observation of nature sharpened. Easy to read as fiction, though entirely unsensational, they will leave with the reader a comfortable impression of the widespread substantiality of human intelligence, very like that which comes from fresh contact with healthy solidity of character, where exceptional qualities are neither strained after nor affected.

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*The Binding of Books:* An Essay in the History of Gold-tooled Bindings. By Herbert D. Horne. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

No volume in the series of "Books about Books" which Mr. A. W. Pollard is skilfully editing has been more harmoniously in accord with the general idea of the series than this on bookbinding. Mr. Horne has started with the belief that the "Books about Books" were intended for book-lovers at large, for those who like books as books without any special knowledge of the several departments of bibliophilistic lore. He has therefore begun at

the beginning, and in his first chapter, "The Craft of Bookbinding," gives an account of the mechanical processes of bookbinding, an understanding of which is a condition precedent to a rational appreciation of the masterpieces of the art. He describes the successive steps of "forwarding" and "finishing" so clearly that the lay reader can follow without difficulty. Although this information can of course be had in technical treatises, like Mr. Zaehnsdorf's (or Mr. William Matthews's Grolier Club lecture), yet Mr. Horne is the first writer of an historic sketch of bookbinding who has seen the necessity of prefixing such an explanation; and that he should have done so is strong evidence of his fitness for the difficult task he has undertaken.

In three successive chapters, he next presents us with brief outline histories of the art of binding in Italy, in France, and in England. His knowledge is wide, and his understanding of the principles of the art thorough; and it is a pleasure to follow his clear account of the development of gold-tooling in Italy and its transference to France. While claiming a high place for the early Italian binders, he is almost ready to admit the truth of M. Thoinan's assertion that bookbinding is really a French art. Of English binding he speaks with commendable disinterestedness. He rates Roger Payne more highly than do the French critics (who ignore all English binders for the most part), but his eulogy is temperate after all.

In the final chapter, in which the author discusses the principles of decoration as applied to books—a subject he approaches with both the bias and the training of an architect—Mr. Horne performs the valuable service of showing that a bookbinder must design with his tools in his mind if not actually in his hand, since the decoration of a book cover is conditioned absolutely by the means for executing it at the binder's disposal; and he exemplifies this by decomposing one of Mr. Cobden-Sanderson's richest and most elaborate book covers, and by printing an impression of each one of the few and simple tools used in its composition. The lover of beautiful bindings probably knows that they are all composed by a host of little tools, but it was well to make this visible to him. Much of the most pretentious of recent German binding fails because the designs are the work of architects who disregard the means of execution.

The dozen illustrations of Mr. Horne's book are well selected; they are apparently photogravures, but neither as well executed nor as well printed as we have been accustomed to find in books of Parisian or New York manufacture. Mr. Horne, it may be noted, displays no knowledge of any American bookbindings or of any American writing about the subject.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aspects of Modern Study: University Extension Addresses. Macmillan. $1.
Bradshaw, John. An English Anthology from Chaucer to Tennyson. 4th ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Chêlard, Raoul. L'Autriche Contemporaine. Paris: Léon Chailley.
Duruy, Victor. History of Modern Times. Henry Holt & Co. $1.60.
Forster, Francis. Major Joshua: A Novel. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Gudeman, Prof. Alfred. Tacitus's Dialogus de Oratoribus. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Hensel, Julius Macrobiotic; or, Our Diseases and Our Remedies. Philadelphia: Boericke & Tafel.
Irvine, Leigh H. Told in Whispers. Crown Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Lewis, L. R. National School Library of Song. No. 2. Boston: Ginn & Co. 60 cents.
Much Ado About Nothing. Love's Labor Lost. [The Temple Shakspere.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. Each 45 cents.
Noble, Annette L. Love and Shawl-Straps. Putnams. 50 cents.
Otken, C. H. The Ills of the South. Putnams. $1.50.
Parker, F. W. Talks on Pedagogics New York and Chicago: E. L. Kellogg & Co $1.50.
Roux, Hugues le. Confidences d'Hommes. Paris: Calmann Levy; New York: Charles Eitel.
Ruskin, John. Letters to a College Friend, 1840—1845. London: George Allen; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Scott, Sir Walter. Quentin Durward. 2 vols. [International Edition.] Boston: Estes & Lauriat; New York: Bryan, Taylor & Co.
Skeat, Prof. W. W. The Complete Works of Geoffrey Chaucer. Vol. III. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Sloane, Florence N. Practical Lessons in Fractions. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 40 cents.
Smith, Charles. Elementary Algebra. Macmillan. $1.10.
Sylva, Carmen. Edleen Vaughan; or, Paths of Peril. Cassell. 50 cents.
Turner, Rev. William. Hand-Book of the Bible: A Compendium of Facts and Curiosities. Whittaker. $1.

Mrs. S M. H. GARDNER'S Character Sketches.

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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 9, 1894.*

## The Week.

THE commendation of President Cleveland's course during the recent labor troubles by more than one Republican county convention is an evidence that the ancient bitterness of partisanship is steadily giving way. The Republicans of Jefferson County, Mo., endorsed the President "for his patriotic course in using the full power of the Government to at once suppress riot and anarchy." The Republicans of Dallas County, Texas, "endorsed the action of President Cleveland in maintaining public order and upholding national authority during the late disturbance in the city of Chicago." The Burlington *Hawkeye*, one of the most prominent Republican newspapers in Iowa, strongly urged the adoption of a like plank in the platform of its party at the recent State convention. This was a little too much for the sort of politicians who controlled the gathering, but the fact that such advice could be given by a party organ in one State, and that county conventions in two other States have pursued this course, shows to what an extent the Democratic President's course has met the approval of fair-minded Republicans.

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Ex-Gov. Boies of Iowa is the first public man since Senator Davis to get over stage-fright about Labor and speak out like a man not afraid of shadows. His address before the State Democratic Convention at Des Moines on Thursday is worthy of particular commendation in these days of tongue-tied statesmen. The Republicans of Illinois met in State convention the week before, and though their chief city and the State itself had just barely escaped plunging into universal anarchy, they had not a word to say in condemnation of the criminals who had brought them into such deadly peril, nor in praise of the national executive who, by his prompt and fearless action, had rescued them from it. Gov. Boies did not mince his language, but plainly told the labor agitators that their strike meant simple revolution and anarchy, and was but "the incipient stage of civil war." With equal emphasis did he declare that the "sympathetic strike" must go, or else that the unions that encourage it and engage in it will be destroyed. It will be said that Mr. Boies uses such plainness of speech because he has no further political ambition. But if he had, there could be no surer way of furthering it than such manly affirmations. It is one of the delusions of our small-minded politicians that the people like trimmers and trucklers. But Hosea Biglow spoke for the American people when he said, "By Time, I *du* like a feller that ain't a Feared."

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The Senate passed on Monday a bill against "alien anarchists." Severe measures are to be taken against them, to prevent their landing in this country, and to provide for their deportation if they are hardened enough to get ashore. Suspected alien anarchists are to be rigidly examined, "by pertinent questions," as to their "antecedents and political opinions," and if any of them confess to having bombs concealed about their persons, they are to be sternly sent back to the land of their nativity. It is well known that anarchists always speak the truth, otherwise it might be hard to make the law effective. We must say, however, that it would be simpler to make all alien anarchists wear a badge or some distinctive dress, so that they might be recognized on sight, and freed from all temptation to perjure themselves under cross-examination. But the law, as it is, will make all good citizens rejoice. France and Germany are having a terrible time passing laws against anarchists. But they have, unfortunately, to deal with their own subjects. If they were as happy as we in having no native anarchists, perhaps they could solve the whole question with a law as beautiful in its simplicity as the one our Senate has passed in a single session.

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There is a deepening mystery about Senator Smith of New Jersey, and the Society for Psychical Research cannot too soon take hold of him. The phenomena of double consciousness were never more clearly marked. The public first began to suspect that there was a double when the Jersey Senator's speech on the income tax was made. His nearest friends at once saw that something had happened to the man they knew so well. For a time, the private-secretary theory was held, but those who knew the private secretary well were ready to make oath that he couldn't have written the speech either. This was puzzling enough, but what came after was positively stupefying. A man purporting to be Smith of New Jersey appeared before the Senate investigating committee and swore that he had not bought or sold, directly or indirectly, any sugar stock "since the beginning of this session of Congress." But another man, asserting that he was the same Senator, appeared later before the same committee and made oath that he had bought "a thousand shares of Sugar about last January." Which was the impostor Smith or the sleep-walking Smith? Again, on August 2 the real James Smith, jr., or at any rate a man who professed to be he, wrote to some of his Englewood constituents that he would not vote for the Wilson bill because "it would have made it impossible for at least 50 per cent. of the manufactories within the borders of our State to continue or resume operations." So much for the protectionist Smith; but the free-trade Smith took an inning on Monday and asserted that he was in favor of free sugar, raw and refined, and particularly in favor of free coal and iron ore, as the latter "would be a practical benefit to my State."

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The Senate committee on Territories has reported favorably the House bills for the admission of New Mexico and Arizona as States, and apparently only a pressure of other matters will prevent the passage of the measures. New Mexico is still a half-foreign community, and Arizona has only about 63,000 people all told, but each is to be given as much power in the Senate as New York or Pennsylvania. Their admission will be a gross outrage upon the country, but each party thinks that it stands a chance of getting the two Senators from each of the new commonwealths, and nobody seems ready to make an effective protest.

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The House of Representatives has succeeded in having the scandalous $1,000,000 item for extirpating the Russian thistle struck out of the appropriation for the Agricultural Department. It has not been so firm in resisting the extravagance of the Senate in the case of the river-and-harbor bill. This appropriation bill notoriously conceals more jobbery than any other, and is, therefore, a peculiar favorite with the Senate. After attempting to increase it a good deal more, this useful and conservative legislative body has finally compromised with the House by accepting an increase of about $2,000,000 over the sum originally fixed. While the total appropriation—about $11,500,000—is not extravagant measured by the standards of former years, the policy of the Senate in neutralizing the attempts of the House of Representatives to lessen the burden of taxation borne by the people is disgraceful. To veto measures that suffer such treatment in the Senate would be a popular course for the President to adopt.

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The success of the Democratic ticket over the Republican-Populist fusion in

the Alabama election on Monday is cause for rejoicing on the part of all good citizens. Kolb, the candidate of the "combine," is an unscrupulous demagogue, who deserved no support—least of all the endorsement of sound-money men in New England, as Senator Hoar and the members of the Home Market Club profess to be. The most interesting and significant feature of the election is the impetus which it has given to the breaking down of the race line in Southern politics. Both the Democrats and the fusionists have sought the support of the negroes, and this has been done openly and frankly. A large proportion of the colored men voted for Oates, and they did it upon a clear understanding as to the attitude of his party toward their race. This understanding was reached through some interesting correspondence between the presiding elder and a number of ministers of colored churches in Birmingham and vicinity on the one side, and representatives of the Democratic party on the other, and it has been endorsed by leading Democratic newspapers. The ministers complained that the law requiring equal accommodations for the two races on railroads had been a dead letter, and asked that it be enforced and that colored passengers be freed from the intrusion of convicts and other disreputable characters. They asked that "like punishment be given for like offences," pointing out that to send a negro to the penitentiary for larceny and to acquit a white man of murder is a license to crime, can result only in disorder, and is a constant menace to good order and the enforcement of the law. Pledging themselves at all times to do all in their power to enforce the law and maintain peace and order, they asked that their race be protected in their lives and persons, and in the exercise of their right to labor in any position for which their moral and mental capacities may fit them. In conclusion, they promised to stand by that man or party who would guarantee them these rights.

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This communication was submitted to leading representatives of the Democratic party, including Mr. H. C. Tompkins, chairman of the State executive committee, who said in his reply:

"Of course I have no authority to speak for the party as a whole, but I know that the members of the executive committee, of which I am chairman, and the members of the party generally, believe that the negro race are entitled to those things which they ask in that communication, and that the laws giving them should be enforced; and if it is necessary to enforce them to enact new laws, then I know the Democratic party will pass them. I have no hesitation in pledging you to use whatever influence I may possess in securing to them their full rights before the law, and in seeing that the people of that race are protected in their lives and persons, in all their rights before the law, and in the exercise of their right to labor in whatever occupation they may be employed."

It should not escape notice that this movement toward better relations between the two races in a Southern State follows the repeal of the federal election laws.

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The Democrats in Tennessee are found to have lost ground in last week's State election for judges of the Supreme Court, to such an extent that the Republicans ought to have carried the day. But the Republicans also lost ground in their strongholds, so that the Democrats retain control. This is really an ideal result. The Democrats ought to suffer everywhere for the incompetency displayed by the party in Congress. On the other hand, the Republicans of Tennessee ought to be punished for "fusing" with the Populists, and endorsing as the candidate of the latter party a man whose only distinction is that he voted for the salary grab in Congress twenty years ago, and held on to the money in the face of public indignation.

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The small vote cast shows the deterrent effect of a poll-tax. The law requires the presentation of a poll-tax receipt before a man can cast his ballot, and a Nashville paper pointed out the other day that, while there were about 16,000 registered voters in that county, the number who had paid the tax was small. The intention was to diminish the negro vote, but it is found that a large proportion of the whites will not pay the tax. Then there is always a chance that some political manager may suddenly turn up just before election day with a pile of money and pay poll-taxes by the thousands, on the agreement that the voters thus favored will support his side. This is the game which Mahone played on the Democrats of Virginia, and they were glad enough to abolish the system as soon as they recovered control of the State. The theory that a man should pay at least as much as a poll-tax towards the support of the Government as a prerequisite to having his say in deciding its character sounds all right, but in practice it generally works to the advantage of corruptionists.

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The Michigan Republicans have made a strong bid for the silver vote. A minority of the committee on resolutions reported in favor of free coinage at the ratio of 16 to 1, and although this proposition was rejected, a plank was adopted which "recognizes the so-called silver question as one of the paramount issues of the day," declares that the Republican party is "the only party that can give a wise and adequate solution of the problem," and pledges that party in Michigan to "use every effort in its power to restore silver to its historic position in the United States as a money metal"—whatever that may mean. It is explained that this pledge is made "in the belief that permanent prosperity will not be assured or justice done until silver takes its place side by side with gold as one of the two great money metals of the world." The only thing plain about such a deliverance is, that the framers of the platform are ready for any compromise with the silver men which promises to help the party. It is in the sharpest possible contrast with the previous clear and straightforward declaration of the Wisconsin Republicans for sound money.

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It is discouraging to learn that the committee on State prisons, in the New York Constitutional Convention, has decided to report favorably an amendment to the Constitution prepared by the representatives of the labor-unions for the purpose of preventing the employment of convicts at remunerative work. This amendment, which is entitled by the New York *Tribune* an amendment "to protect honest labor," directs the Legislature to provide for "the occupation and employment" of convicts, but forbids any convict to work "at any trade, industry, or occupation wherein or whereby his work or the product or profit of the work shall be farmed out, contracted, given, or sold to any person, firm, association, or corporation." Exception is made in the case of work done for, or goods disposed of to, the State or any subdivision thereof, or any public institution. It is quite consistent with the theory of protection to support such a measure as this upon the ground that it will prevent the competition of criminals in industries practised by honest workingmen; but it would be more consistent if the exception were not made. It is perfectly clear that if the State and all its subdivisions and all public institutions were prohibited altogether from employing the labor or buying the products of convicts, they would have to hire honest men and buy the products of honest labor. It is equally clear that, by excluding the competition of convicts in this way, the wages of free labor would be increased. The exception is therefore inconsistent with the theory of the amendment and with the theory of protection, and should be stricken out. If we held to the protection theory, like the *Tribune*, we should insist that no convict should lift a finger at any trade, or do a stroke of work for himself or any one else. Let them be forbidden to wash their own clothes or clean their own cells, thus giving honest washerwomen a chance to practise their laborious but commendable art. Let honest trade-unionists be hired, at regular union wages, to do the baking and the cooking, and to make the shoes and the clothing for the whole of our prison population. The right to labor is a sacred right, and no convict should be permit-

ted to exercise it so long as any freeman can be found to take his place.

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The *Financial Chronicle* publishes a table of Government receipts and disbursements for each month since January 1, 1894, and for the corresponding period of 1893, which tend to show that the corner of the bad times has been turned and that we may fairly look for a gain, from this time forward, both in total receipts and in the gold balance. The receipts for July were $35,697,000, and the disbursements $37,590,000, showing an apparent deficit on the month of about $2,000,000. But the July interest payment of $7,000,000 came in that month, while the average interest payment is only $2,500,000 per month. If we consider the latter the amount fairly chargeable to the July disbursements, there is a surplus of $2,621,000 for the month. This is in part due to unusually large withdrawals of distilled spirits from bonded warehouse—a condition which is likely to continue, however, during the present month. The *Chronicle* thinks that we are likely to import gold during the next few months. Certainly there is nothing that London could more easily spare, the Bank of England holding at the close of last week over $190,000,000 of that metal—a sum quite unprecedented in its annals.

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A very remarkable and interesting event happened on Monday, when, for the first time in economic history, the price of corn on the New York market rose above the price of wheat. The significance of this event becomes more striking, and its economic meaning plainer, when it is recalled that throughout our entire industrial history, until the recent vast extension of wheat culture, the price of wheat averaged double that of corn. Moreover, while wheat sells now for barely half the price it reached as recently as 1891, corn is ruling well above the level of such years as 1878 and 1879, when the paper inflation premium on prices for the first time vanished. Nor is this difference due alone to possible damage to this season's crop, for at least 600,000,000 bushels could be deducted from the Government's latest estimate, and still leave a yield of corn as large as that of 1878. It scarcely needs demonstration to make clear that if silver demonetization had broken the price of wheat, the present advance in corn, even with the undoubted speculative exaggerations, would have been wholly impossible.

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While we are in the thick of our fight against the protectionists, it is encouraging to learn that they have been overthrown in New South Wales. This probably indicates a return by that colony to its time-honored policy of free trade. We say probably, for although sixty-five free-traders have been returned to Parliament and only forty protectionists, there are twenty labor representatives—a sufficient number to make trouble; yet as they numbered thirty-three in the last Parliament they are not so likely to be courted by the politicians. Indeed, it is highly to the credit of Sir Henry Parkes that, after he was driven from office, he declined to form any coalition with the labor faction, but informed the Government that he should support it on all questions except protection. The victory of the free-traders appears to be more complete if we bear in mind that the new Parliament contains but 125 members instead of 141. Had the diminution been evenly distributed, each of the parties would have lost eight members. As it is, the gain of the free-trade party is not three, but eleven members. According to precedent a certain number of the labor representatives are sure to vote with the free-traders. In addition to the relief of trade, Sir Henry Parkes's policy embraces federation of the Australian colonies, retrenchment, and land settlement. To accomplish federation will be as difficult as it was to unite our colonies after the Revolution, but the free-trade victory will enable Sir Henry Parkes to offer the abolition of intercolonial duties, which is of course of the first importance.

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Apropos of the talk of an income tax in France, Paul Leroy-Beaulieu recalls a saying of Saint-Simon which legislators in England and this country who are boasting that they have got their hands on the throats of rich men at last, would do well to consider. We can easily imagine, said Saint-Simon, what grief it would cause France if the King and all the royal family, the ministers, the marshals, and the prefects should suddenly die. Yet how short a time, after all, would it take the country to recover from such a blow. But suppose a plague should carry off 1,000 of the leading manufacturers, as many of the chief merchants, an equal number of the great land-owners, and the first men in all the professions: it would take a half-century for the nation to regain the ground lost by such a calamity. In the same way, proportionately, any law which tends to fine successful men for their success and to discourage the higher business and professional talents by taxing them, is a crippling of the productive energy of a country. This is especially the case when an animus like that which manifests itself against enemies of the public welfare is put into legislation against the rich. If the hatred of his kind is to be added to discriminating taxes on the rich man, the incentives to the accumulation of wealth will be enormously diminished, and the prayer of Agur, "Give me neither poverty nor riches," will become popular. If granted, it might bring more individual content in certain cases, but it would fatally lessen the chances of millions to earn their daily bread, which now comes to them in industries that would be impossible but for great stores of wealth.

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No great addition to our knowledge of anarchist psychology was made by the judicial examination of Caserio. The mental history of Carnot's assassin appears to have been not essentially different from that of Vaillant or the Spaniards, Pallas and Salvador. Simple-hearted and ill-balanced natures, generally with a screw loose somewhere in their family history, they go on peaceably and harmlessly enough till they happen to fall in with the doctrine that the existing social order is unspeakably bad and incurably corrupt and ought to be destroyed. This view takes complete possession of them. They hear with joy of the exploits of dynamiters, as of heroic reformers, and come themselves to fling a bomb or wield a dagger with the conviction that they are true servants of humanity. Now the existence of such natures in great numbers must be recognized, along with the fact that they put a new and heavy responsibility upon all who discuss questions of social reform in public. With these powder-barrels standing by uncovered, no man ought to go carelessly dropping sparks, in the shape of vague assertions that society is unjust and that a better order is possible through some kind of a struggle not specified.

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To be specific ourselves, the sort of thing to be condemned as a needless provocation to anarchy is exemplified in Mr. Howells's article in the August *Harper's*. In it he turns wholly aside from the main purpose and interest of his subject to speak of his "dream of a truer social order," and to assert that there is a "struggle now at hand" to free the world from "industrial slavery" and "the infinitely crueller and stupider vanity and luxury bred of it" than was bred by "chattel slavery." Such remarks can only be considered as inflammatory—we speak of their effect, not of their intention. If a man has anything serious and reasonable to say about such subjects, let him say it in a fashion that can be met by straightforward argument. Rational presentation of socialistic views is harmless beside these vague appeals to passion. We do not suppose that Mr. Howells's 'Altruria' has conveyed any anti-social impulse, or any clear idea whatever, to any of his readers. But what he and all who write for the public ought to understand is, that to inflame the passions of the weak-minded by such utterances as we have cited, with no attempt to justify them, is to assume the very gravest responsibility.

*PRAISE TO WHOM PRAISE IS DUE.*

THE circular addressed by President Fish of the Illinois Central Railroad to the employees of that corporation, which has just been published, will be read with gratification by every conservative citizen. Mr. Fish states that, with few exceptions, the employees of the company remained faithful to their obligations. They performed their duties without flinching, and exhibited a coolness, steadiness, and intrepidity in trying situations which merit the highest praise. For their resolute and efficient efforts to overcome the malignant violence of the mob, and for their extraordinary exertions put forth in the face of great difficulties to protect the property in their charge, President Fish expresses, in behalf of his company, his heartfelt thanks. In this sentiment the community at large may properly join.

For it should not be forgotten what loyalty and fidelity signify under such conditions as existed at the time of the Chicago riots. It is altogether natural and altogether right that men dependent upon their daily labor for their daily bread should be united by the strongest bond of sympathy. Any increase that they can gain in wages means for those who are not vicious a positive increase in the comforts of their homes: better food, better sanitary conditions, better medical attendance, better clothing, more books, more of the "sweetness and light" which outweigh most material comforts. Nor is it in the least to be wondered at if men of this class believe that such gains are to be made only by concerted action on their part. The very atmosphere in this country is permeated with the fallacy of protection. American workmen have been brought up to believe that their comparatively high wages have been due to the imposition of taxes by Congress. They unquestionably believe that this beneficent governmental power has been utilized by the rich men of the country for their own benefit, and Heaven knows there has been ground enough for their belief. A struggle for higher wages, therefore, enlists the heart of every workingman, and neutrality in such a struggle is felt to be a kind of treachery. To incur the odium involved in defeating the purposes of strikers involves no small degree of courage. When this odium is deliberately incurred from the conviction that the methods of strikers are prejudicial to the common welfare, we have a display of patriotism in its most genuine form.

But it is not only unpopularity that threatens these men who have risen superior to the prejudices of their class. Many of them incur danger, as is forcibly set forth in the following extract from the *American Architect and Building News:*

"Few persons outside the ranks of certain trades realize the force of the appeal to fear which Debs and his like bring to bear on those whom they wish to subject. The temper in which the ringleaders, encouraged by official apathy or sympathy, were disposed to deal with those who resisted their dictation, is sufficiently shown by the circular placarded about the Chicago stock yards, denouncing the men who returned to their work as 'scabs,' and calling upon all persons to 'treat them as such,' accompanied by other posters, explaining the latter expression by advocating that all 'scabs' should be immediately assassinated. We, who read of such things in the newspapers with mild deprecation, need, in order to appreciate the resolution required by the faithful engineers and firemen, to imagine the fences around our houses and offices adorned with placards, officially signed by persons intimately connected with the Governor of the State and the executive department of the city, 'branding' us as 'scabs,' and fiercely urging the public to 'treat us as such,' explained by others representing us hanging to lamp-posts, and inviting all persons out of employment to join at once in carrying out this amiable suggestion. If, in connection with these incidents, we were to miss, at frequent intervals, our associates in business from their accustomed places, a blood-stain at their doors indicating what had become of them, we must acknowledge that we should be strongly tempted to close our offices for a time; and that to go on with our work, simply to fulfil our engagements with our clients, would require a moral and physical courage on which we might justly plume ourselves for the rest of our days. Yet this is just what the men have done who have remained at work during the furious reign of Debs and Sovereign; and, modest as they suppose to be their part in the history of this republic, the country owes them a debt of gratitude which it can never repay. Years hence, when Americans can earn an honest living in their own way, without being 'branded,' or 'treated as such,' at the dictation of any despot, the brave engineers of our Western railroads will, we hope, be honored as they deserve."

This is well and eloquently put; nor is it at all too strongly stated. We are glad that President Fish has taken the opportunity to express this feeling in behalf of the great corporation which he represents, and we are especially pleased to see that he also declares that "the public authorities in every county and town along the Illinois Central Railroad, almost without exception, early saw the imbecility and wickedness of the movement which had been set on foot." Such expressions on the part of the managers of our railroad corporations tend to promote good feeling and to remove unreasonable prejudices. We are of opinion that these managers might, with the approval of the stockholders, go somewhat further, and add to a "vote of thanks" some more substantial recognition of faithful service. We do not believe that men should be paid for patriotism or rewarded for doing their duty. But, as Mr. Fish says, the exertions in this case were extraordinary and the risks undergone exceptional. We do not believe that we misrepresent the stockholders in our railroads when we say that they would heartily approve the expenditure of a portion of their money in paying for services which have had an exceptional pecuniary value to them, and which have cost their employees exceptional sacrifices. We are quite satisfied that it is better to spend money in this way than in rate-wars, or even in political contributions. Possibly a corporation that should adopt such a policy might find itself so strengthened in the devotion of its servants and in the support of the best public opinion that it could defy blackmailing legislation. If the amount of the "corruption fund" could be applied in this way, some corporations might even find it a pecuniary gain. "There is that scattereth and yet increaseth."

*A GAIN FOR CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.*

THE cause of civil-service reform, as administered by the Commission, has won an emphatic advance, and by an agency from which little was expected this year, namely, by action of the present Congress. It was accomplished in the quietest and most unobtrusive manner, and it may be questioned whether any considerable number of either the friends or the enemies of civil-service reform realize the magnitude of the achievement. The clerical force of the Civil-Service Commission is largely obtained by detailing clerks from the various departments, who then, under the orders of the Commission, perform such examining work as is needed for the service of the respective departments whence they are detailed. Such an arrangement was in every way unsatisfactory. The departments would naturally enough detail the least valuable members of their own forces, retaining the best for their own use, so that the Commission was obliged frequently to send back the detail. In the second place, the clerks naturally disliked to be removed from the regular line of promotion in their own departments and put where they had no such chance, and, knowing that, after all, their destiny was not in the hands of their new employers, they lacked one great incentive to faithful service. It might happen, and it has happened, that a department has, in its determination to be economical, informed a clerk that his services were no longer required after a certain date, while he was doing satisfactory work under the Civil-Service Commission, which was anxious to retain his services.

In order to remedy this uncomfortable state of things, a modest clause was inserted in an appropriation bill, simply putting the clerks detailed from the departments under the control of the Commission, and transferring the appropriation of their salaries from the departments to the Commission; also providing that, in future, estimates for their salaries should be submitted by the Commission and not by the respective departments.

This clause was instantly pounced upon by the spoilsmen in the House of Representatives. They were already armed with more than one amendment to the executive appropriations, tending to destroy, or at least to nullify, the Commission. Feeling only too sure that

these would hardly be adopted in their own house, and certainly not in the Senate, they eagerly attacked the clause just described on the point of order as new legislation. The appropriation committee readily admitted as much, but deprecated insistence on the point of order, and urged the need of the appropriation. It was in vain; out the clause went, to the great satisfaction of those who at the same time were trying to strike from the bill all provision for the Commission. The Senate, however, took a different view of the matter. In that body new legislation may be, and frequently is, introduced by way of amendment. Accordingly, when the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation bill was reported to the Senate, it contained a clause granting to the Civil-Service Commission a force of thirty-six clerks of its own, duly classified, in place of detailing an equal number from the departments, with an appropriation therefor of $52,000; providing also that the Commissioners might transfer to their own rolls any of the detailed department clerks who had proved useful as examiners.

It will be seen at once how much such a provision increases the efficiency of the Commission and the freedom and spirit of those in its employ. The amendment was agreed to in the Senate with no objections, and with scarcely a word of debate. When the bill came into conference there is no record of any difference of opinion; and when the conferees reported to the House of Representatives that a long string of Senate amendments had been agreed to, including amendment No. 32, assigning thirty-six clerks to the Civil-Service Commission, there was scarcely a member who distinguished this particular clause as part of the statement of the conferees. In the discussion of half an hour that followed, the provision was not mentioned, the report was agreed to, the bill was passed; it has since been signed by the President, and the Civil-Service Commission, by act of Congress, is put upon a firmer and more efficient basis than it ever has had since its establishment, by the quiet, intelligent, and vigilant work of its friends in the Senate, duly seconded by those in the House.

The gain of such legislation to the cause of civil-service reform is greater than might be supposed by one who merely read the text of the clause alluded to. Every step which enables the Commissioners to do their work more speedily, efficiently, and systematically makes the results of that work more completely felt by the people and by the departments. As long as they were to some extent dependent on those departments for the very machinery by which they worked, there was, there could not but be, a feeling of uneasiness and strain in all their operations. Now that they can work for themselves, and their force, small as it is, is their own, they will undertake more than ever to demonstrate that their service is needed by the country; that the more efficient it is, the more acceptable it will be, and that the institution which has outlived so many attacks from open and secret enemies, responds to a real demand from the country which no future Congress will dare to undervalue or reject.

## *OUTSIDE INTEREST IN THE ORIENTAL WAR.*

THE merits of the quarrel between China and Japan remain for most people in this part of the world as obscure as they have been from the beginning. Nor is there, apparently, any preponderance of sympathy here for either party to the struggle. Yet it is evident that, since it was settled that the controversy was to be referred to the arbitrament of war, no little interest has been taken in the contest by those whose direct concern in it is hard to see.

A part of this interest comes, no doubt, from the old idea that the adversity of others means our own prosperity. In spite of the frequent demonstration of the commercial and financial solidarity of the world, the fancy still lurks in many minds that it would be a splendid thing for our trade to have some other nation or nations crippled by a war. "A general war in Europe" used, in fact, to be thought an infallible remedy for all our industrial ills, just as the Napoleonic wars used to be regarded by the squires of England as the *sine qua non* of English prosperity. This idea has survived, like so many other economic fallacies, long after the brains were out of it, and one hears people talking as if the war in the Orient might be a godsend to us and prove the turning of the tide of our financial depression. But commerce does not catch fish in troubled waters. Even the apparent stimulus which comes from placing orders for war materials will not inure to the benefit of this country, as England is in the way of getting pretty much all of the trade of that kind which the war may create. So that, as far as we are concerned, the idea that the troubles of others mean our own happiness is not likely to receive so much as surface confirmation. Substantial injury to our trade in the East is a far more probable result than apparent benefit to it.

Another way in which outside interest is shown in the struggle between Japan and China is perhaps more rational, though equally selfish. It springs from a desire to have a demonstration, at the expense of somebody else, of how modern men-of-war and armaments will stand the test of actual warfare. It is a fact, which disturbs the sleep of naval constructors, that none of them can appeal to actual experience to say how modern ironclads are going to behave in real battle. Every civilized nation has gone on building them and making them huger and (on paper) deadlier, but there has long been a nervous feeling that they might not act, in the water and enveloped in smoke and with torpedoes dashing at them, precisely according to theory. Since the battle of Lissa in 1866 there has been no satisfactory fighting test of the modern armored battle-ship, and naval experts have a consuming anxiety to see one. Some of our hotspur naval lieutenants are willing enough to make the test themselves, but nearly all others who take an interest in naval warfare would prefer to see other countries made the subject of experiment. What better *corpus vile* could be found than the half-civilized Japanese and Chinese?

There is, in fact, an added interest for the spectator in the fact that the contestants are but half-civilized. They have been playing at the game of civilized life for some years now, but there has been all the while on the part of Western nations a half-amused feeling that it was all a pretty farce. How will the veneer of civilization stand the friction of war? Will the laws of war be observed by powers that only lately and reluctantly have given their assent to the modern doctrines of international law? The atrocities in the naval battle already fought make this seem highly doubtful. Then, how are these men going to manage the arms of precision with which they have been hastily equipped? It is probable that their war-ships will be commanded by foreigners; but in the end, and if the struggle is as prolonged as now seems likely, the thing will come down to their own capacity to handle battle-ships and serve artillery. Have they the technical skill and the flexibility of nature to adapt themselves to these strange conditions?

Far more profitable is it for outsiders to give their attention, as some are doing, to the lesson in government which Japan is setting the world. As far as she is concerned, it is fairly evident that the war has been undertaken in a Jingo spirit, to divert attention from the difficulties at home. The Government has twice had a deadlock with Parliament in the past few months, and has twice dissolved it in the hope of getting a more manageable majority. The elections to the new Parliament are to be held this month, and the Government has obviously been willing to get a pliant majority by appealing to the war spirit and thus overshadowing the immense difficulties of domestic policy which confront the nation. It has borrowed representative institutions, as well as modern arms, from Western nations, and now it is letting go the former to use the latter. The energy and intellect of modern Japan, great as they are, are none too great to devote

themselves exclusively to the arduous task of fitting their country for the peaceful assimilation and development of modern ideas, in government as well as in science. To give over this great work and plunge into war is little short of a sheer reversion to barbarism.

Certainly, if Japan is successful, the consequences will be important, not only in checking her republican development, but in seriously complicating her foreign relations. Success now undoubtedly means a foothold on the continent. Japan talks of reforms in the Corean government, but it is the Corean territory she has her eyes upon. She will take that and as much else as she can wrest from China, if strong enough. Nor will she omit to claim any of the Pacific islands which she thinks essential to her predominance. Once shown to be the aggressive and rising power of the East, she will not rest for a day under those treaties with other powers which limit her sovereignty. Victory in the war against China would mean speedy and serious complications with all those powers. But she will not be victorious if the superior numbers and the tougher fibre of her antagonist can be squarely brought into a contest with her more brilliant but less solid qualities.

## THE FRENCH POPULISTS.

PARIS, July 16, 1894.

THE most far-reaching and important result of last year's Parliamentary elections in this country was not the almost entire annihilation of the monarchical parties and the consequent overwhelming victory of the Republicans; it was the choice of some fifty out-and-out socialists—miners, mechanics, agitators, and, in two or three cases, politicians of solid education, wide legislative experience, and remarkable oratorical gifts; M. Jean Jaurès, for example, being one of the most brilliant debaters on the floor of the House.

At first militant socialists held aloof from politics. A seat in the Chamber of Deputies seemed to have no attraction for them, while the mere mention of the aristocratic Senate put them in a rage. But this aversion for the Palais Bourbon and the Luxembourg gradually disappeared. The attention of the whole nation was so absorbed during the first years of the present republic in the bitter struggle over its foundation that socialism, which in one form or another has always had a following in France, was relegated to the background. But in 1888 a sufficient number of pronounced socialists, or so-called socialists, had succeeded in securing seats in the Chamber to warrant the formation of a "group." Though a score of names were found on its list, probably not more than a dozen were those of genuine socialists. The little company kept on growing, however, from year to year until it has become a factor that can no longer be neglected in parliamentary computations. For instance, to cite but one example out of many, the overthrow last May of the Casimir-Perier cabinet was due, in large measure, to this group of socialists.

How completely the early antipathy for public life has disappeared from among the socialists is strikingly shown by the fact that "Citizen" Thivier, the peasant Deputy who attends the sittings of the Chamber attired in the traditional blouse of his class, did not hesitate recently to stand for the much-vilified Senate—the first instance, I believe, of a socialist taking this step. He even offered as a bait for votes to add wooden shoes to his blouse if elected. Another example of this change of front was seen when M. Floquet came forward for a seat in the same body. On this occasion the socialist delegates in the college pronounced themselves almost to a man in favor of sending up their friends to the Upper House.

The following extract from a letter of M. Toussaint, one of the Paris workingmen Deputies, gives the reason why the Socialists now desire to enter Parliament:

"We know full well," he writes me, "that none of our demands will be acted upon by the present Chamber. Consequently our rôle consists in producing in the Chamber and in the country the greatest possible amount of agitation, by which means we hope to awaken the masses and convince workingmen that, in the struggle for emancipation, they can count on themselves alone; that it is only by grouping ourselves into societies and clubs for the study of social questions that we shall be able finally to form an organization solid enough to wrench from the capitalist class those privileges which it will not abandon unless forced to do so. But, in order that the economic revolution for which we are preparing the way may be durable, it must find acceptance in men's minds. This is the difficult task to which our Deputies are addressing themselves with all the energy they possess."

M. Jules Guesde, one of the boldest and most extravagant of the "revolutionary socialist" Deputies, a thorough-going advocate of "propagande par le fait," thus expressed the same idea in a recent speech:

"Those who count on the socialist Deputies for the triumph of our ideas will be disappointed. We do not intend to ask the Chamber to really carry out our programme. We shall not waste time in trying to convert our colleagues. It suffices us to combat them. It is the country we are laboring to bring over to our ideas. We shall call upon the nation to accomplish, by its own efforts, the social revolution. We look upon Parliament simply as a means for propagandism. It furnishes us our tribune. It is a new instrument of publicity which has been placed at our disposal. Far from us the chimera that our social revolution can be brought about by parliamentary or constitutional measures. We make no distinction between legal and illegal action. We enjoy the benefit of being able to have recourse to one or the other, according to circumstances."

And this programme is being followed to the letter, and even with considerable success. The socialist Deputies have provoked during the past year several general debates and won one or two moral victories. They have also called public attention to their cause by the introduction of various bills, none of which, however, has passed. One of these, fathered by M. Goblet, has to do with mines and miners, and its capital clause, which will kill it, declares that if a strike continues beyond a certain period, the State may step in and withdraw the concession without indemnifying the company. The object of a second measure, which originates with M. Jaurès, is to put an end to the complaints of the agricultural classes, whom the socialists are now exerting every nerve to bring over, about the competition caused by foreign corn. This desideratum is to be attained by the State assuming the monopoly of the buying and selling of this import. Thus, according to the project, the selling price will be kept constant whatever the purchasing price may be.

It may be well to describe now, briefly, the nature of the organization of this Socialist, or Workingmen's party, as the leaders prefer to call it. Its origin is the famous International Association of the epoch of the Second Empire, though its present form is the result of many congresses held in the various capitals of Europe during the past twenty-five or thirty years. M. Victor Dejeante, a hat-maker, who represents one of the Paris districts in the Chamber of Deputies, has kindly furnished me a description of the organization of this body, from which it appears that the party is made up of "regional federations." Each federation has its headquarters in the city which is the acknowledged industrial centre of the surrounding country. Correspondence between the various federations is carried on through the general secretary of the party appointed by the federations themselves. There are two sorts of bodies in these federations—trade societies, and clubs devoted to the study of social questions. The members of the latter are generally members, also, of the former, so that the ideas prevailing in the clubs are spread among the real workingmen. When election day comes round, these clubs are easily converted into election committees that aid in every possible way the triumph of the labor candidates at the polls. The Workingmen's party is thus exceedingly well organized for conducting a political campaign, and as none of the other parties knows what organization is, at least in the American sense, this may go far to explain the success of the socialists last year at the ballot-boxes.

Now a word about the Workingmen's platform. The "legislative programme" adopted and revised at several congresses contains, among a long list of whereases, the following: "The emancipation of the laboring classes can be brought about only through their own efforts"; "The subjection of labor to capital is the source of all political, moral, and material servitude; hence the economic enfranchisement of labor is the principal aim to which every political movement should be subordinated"; "The emancipation of labor is not simply a local or national problem, but, on the contrary, interests the working classes of all so-called civilized countries." Whence the four following resolutions: "The final aim of the party is the complete emancipation of all human beings without distinction of sex, race, or nationality." "This emancipation cannot be accomplished until the socialization of the materials of labor gives rise to a communistic state of society in which 'each, giving according to his strength, will receive according to his needs.'" "In order to attain this end, it is necessary, on account of class distinction, to keep up a political party in opposition to the various political parties of the middle and upper classes." "This enfranchisement can be secured only by revolutionary measures; hence the reason for seeking to gain a foothold in the public assemblies of town, province, and state, to be used for purposes of propogandism."

The platform consists of two parts—one purely political and the other economic. Under the first head are demanded the following reforms: Direct legislation by the people, the American town meeting and the Swiss *referendum* being in the minds of those who introduced this "plank"; the consideration, during the session in which they are introduced, of all bills emanating from workingmen's organizations; an elective judiciary; the gratuitous administration of justice; removal from the code of every discrimination unfavorable to the laboring classes, women, or natural children; the suppression of standing armies; the general arming of the people, and the development of

local self-government. In economics, the platform calls for a complete system of free education; one day's rest in each week; a working-day of eight hours for adults, six for those under eighteen, no night work for children, and only six hours of night work for adults; workingmen's corporations to fix the scale of wages, with fines and imprisonment for employers who offer wages below this scale; the holding of employers responsible for labor accidents, and requiring them to pay compensation in proportion to the degree of injury done to their employees; equal pay for equal work, without distinction of sex; the prohibiting of employers from imposing fines or reducing wages in any way; the appointment of inspectors, chosen by the workingmen's corporations, whose duties shall be the examination of workshops, factories, mines, etc., in order to pass on the nature of the work, the hygienic arrangements, the precautions against accidents, etc.; the suppression of the public debt; the assumption by society of the support of the old and sick of the laboring classes; the abolition of all indirect taxation and the establishment of a single tax, of a decidedly progressive nature, on all property, both capital and revenue—with an exception, however, in favor of persons whose income does not exceed 3,000 francs a year; a return to the State of all inheritances in collateral line; and, as regards direct inheritances, a return to society of all above 20,000 francs.

The Republicans in Parliament have not been slow, especially during more recent years, in trying to check the advance of socialism by forestalling the demands of the leaders. It cannot be denied that the Third Republic has already done a good deal to ameliorate the condition of the French laboring classes. Some of these innovations were pointed out by Advocate-General Sarrut in his speech before the Paris Court of Appeals at its annual opening meeting in October, 1890.* The fact of such a personage selecting such a subject for his discourse on such an occasion is significant in itself. But M. Sarrut did not exhaust the list, and new measures of a similar kind have been added since he spoke. The establishment of hundreds, perhaps it would be more correct to say thousands, of free schools; of popular savings banks, benevolent societies, pension funds; the passing of laws for the protection of women and children employed in factories and of employees in general against accidents; the appointment by the minister of commerce of a Superior Council on Labor, composed of well-known specialists whose duties are the study of labor problems, and by the Chamber of Deputies of two standing committees of thirty-three members each, empowered to examine and report bills on this same subject—such are some of the more prominent acts of the Government and Parliament in their efforts to satisfy the demands of the French Populists.

But in their attempt to check "the socialistic endosmosis," as M. Yves Guyot describes the tendency I have been dwelling on, the Republicans do not confine themselves to legislative bills and lyceum discussions. They have long been keeping up a heavy fire of hot shot from the hustings, the printing-presses, and the newspapers. "To count upon Revolutionary Collectivism bringing about social progress," says one of their organs, "would be like expecting hail to ripen the harvest, or hate to produce fraternal union, or intestine war to increase the strength and happiness of a nation." Whereupon the French Populists reply in the words of M. de Rémusat: "No tradition possesses absolute and definitive authority; a step in advance is always possible in everything"; or in these of Heine: "We have for eighteen hundred years been giving Cæsar far too much; what remains shall now be for us."

THEODORE STANTON.

* 'L'Œuvre Législative de la Troisième République dans le Domaine des Questions Sociales.' Paris: Née.

## MT. MONADNOCK AND BEN NEVIS.—I.

ENGLAND, July, 1894.

AFTER reading books and special articles, after poring over maps and sections of foreign lands in the effort to compare them justly with one's home country, it is a rare pleasure to stand on their hills and see the original "copy" of the books and maps outspread to the horizon. So it has been in the last month, in a comparison that I have sought to draw between the geography of our New England plateau and that of the Scotch Highlands. The comparison is not so much concerned with area or height as with geographical development, in which the two regions resemble each other somewhat closely. Following various students of the question at home, of whom Prof. Emerson of Amherst was the earliest, it is now generally understood that our New England upland is an old mountain region, once rising to great heights, as is indicated by the extreme distortion of its rocks; that its latest period of mountain growth is nevertheless so long past as to have allowed the destructive forces of the atmosphere to wear the mountains down to a lowland of moderate relief close to sea level—to a *peneplain*, as I should term it; and that only after the broad uplifting of this lowland to a gently slanting upland were the present valleys excavated in it. The lowland was not worn down perfectly smooth by any means. Remnant mountains rose above it, for they still surmount the upland. The type of such remnants of the earlier cycle of erosion may be found in Mt. Monadnock, a grand conical mass in southwestern New Hampshire, rising about sixteen hundred feet above the plateau platform, which is there another sixteen hundred feet above the sea. Indeed, I hope that other writers may follow the example of Messrs. Hayes and Campbell in their recent admirable account of the Southern Appalachians, and employ Monadnock as the generic term for all such residual mountains that rise over uplifted plateaus of denudation. The White Mountains appear to be simply a cluster of Monadnocks, preserved by some peculiarity of structure or drainage not yet fully explained.

The valleys that have been eroded in the New England upland since its slanting elevation follow a simple law. They are shallow near the coast, where the uplift was small; they deepen inland, where the uplift was greater. Indeed, it is largely from this variation in the depth of the valleys that the unequal uplift of the old lowland to a slanting upland is determined. The valleys are still narrow where the rocks are resistant; but they are already broad where the rocks are relatively weak. The Connecticut and its branches illustrate all these features. Near Long Island Sound, the river has incised its valley only one or two hundred feet beneath the upland; in northern Massachusetts it is fully a thousand feet beneath the plateaus east and west. The Deerfield River, entering the Connecticut from the Hoosac tunnel district, runs in a deep and narrow valley—deep, because cut in a high upland; narrow, because the crystalline rocks there are so resistant that there has not yet been time for the valley to widen greatly. The Quinipiac, entering the Sound at New Haven, drains a broad and relatively shallow valley—broad, because the red sandstones there are comparatively weak and have already been greatly consumed; shallow, because near the shore the upland has only a moderate elevation.

The rolling upland, with its scattered or grouped Monadnocks, and its broad or narrow, deep or shallow, valleys, has been glaciated since its present form was essentially assumed; but to this peculiar episode in its history we owe many of its smaller features, such as the lakes and gravel-beds, especially in the valleys and lowlands. The region now stands somewhat lower than when its valleys were cut out, as is known because the mouths of the valleys are drowned near the coast, forming estuaries so well shown in the Thames from Norwich to New London, or bays like Narragansett; but the region has risen a little since the ice was on it, for the gravel terraces around the coast rise somewhat above present sea-level.

Now, with a considerable exception regarding the evenness of the upland, all these features are found in Scotland, and with remarkable distinctness. During a week's excursion in the Highlands and along the western coast, it was my good fortune to see on the ground and under most hospitable and skilful guidance the classical examples of mountain structure, of denudation, of glacial action, and of old sea margins for which Scotland is famous to geologists and geographers all over the world. They constantly recall examples of home structures and forms, yet always with a strong and interesting foreign flavor. They exemplify at every point that a knowledge of home geography is the beginning of the appreciation of foreign countries. The likenesses to home examples are often well marked, but the contrasts are always entertaining and instructive. From the moment of stepping on the landing-stage at Liverpool, where the party from the steamer were silently awaited by the runners of various railways, each one labelled but speaking no word until spoken to, the likenesses and contrasts began, and the lively procession is still marching by. On the way to Edinburgh, I stopped a couple of hours at Appleby in the vale of Eden, with the mountains of the Lake District on the west, and the bold escarpment of the Pennine chain on the east; this being in the hope that an east wind might blow me at least a good turn, and form the peculiar isolated cloud, known there as the Helm bar, in a great roll of the air current west of the escarpment. The day, however, was fair and the wind was the prevalent southwester, in deference to which many of the trees were growing one-sided. There was no Helm bar, but floating *cumuli* threw climbing shadows over the mountain slope in truly homelike fashion. Moreover, the floor of the valley was rolling with drumlins—great whale-backed hills of glacial drift, familiar all about Boston, where they make the islands in the harbor and many of the hills on the land; but over the hills at Appleby rose the skylarks with eager song, and they have no match at home. Then, like Lochinvar, a run over the border, but unhappily alone; through the bare hills of the southern uplands of Scotland, with their long even slopes, bright with grass or dark with heather; across the open lowlands with their farms and collieries; and at last the spans of the great Forth bridge rose over the treed ridges as the train neared Edinburgh in the long northern twilight.

The Scottish capital gave me a most pleasant meeting with three leaders in their respective subjects: Prof. James Geikie, at work on a

new edition of his 'Great Ice Age'; Dr. Alexander Buchan, by whom the meteorological records of the *Challenger* expedition were discussed, and from whom we shall next have an essay on ocean temperatures and currents; and Mr. J. G. Bartholomew, chief of the Edinburgh Geographical Institute, under whose energetic direction this great publishing house produces about five million copies of maps of many kinds yearly. The office of the Geological Survey of Scotland was also visited in final preparation for the excursion into the Highlands; for unfortunately the publications of the British surveys are rarely found complete at home outside of the governmental bureaus in Washington. Very few copies of the British geological reports and maps are presented to libraries in foreign countries, and the price at which they are sold practically forbids their purchase. The maps are, moreover, colored by hand, so that every copy is expensive; while ours are lithographed, and "additional copies" are of only nominal cost —perhaps three or four cents apiece. The policy of her Majesty's Stationer's Office is in all these matters just opposite to what prevails in our bureaus in Washington. With us the intention is to give as wide a distribution as possible, either free or at a very moderate cost, to the maps and reports whose expensive preparation is warranted only by their general use. The British practice almost seals up the costly results of the geological surveys, and thus greatly diminishes the profit resulting from them. It was a satisfaction to learn that this opinion, formed at home, was shared and emphatically expressed over here.

Distances are so short on the British Isles that the morning steamers leaving Glasgow for the sea lochs on the west coast are overtaken at the mouth of the Firth of Clyde by the early trains from Edinburgh, thus saving a stop over night in the smoky manufacturing rival of the capital. The run through the Kyles of Bute quickly introduces the traveller to the delightful combination of steep highlands and deep narrow waters that characterizes this beautiful part of the world. The Crinan Canal cuts off the long passage around the peninsula of Cantyre, and gives opportunity for a pleasant walk, if the day is by exception not rainy, while the little canal steamer passes up and down through the locks. A third steamer, waiting at the further end of the canal, runs up to Oban in the afternoon, and there most of the passengers disembark, to make the trip around Mull to Staffa the next day, and only the few go on through Loch Linnhe to Fort William at its head, although here the mountains are bolder than any below Oban, the view up Glen Coe from Ballachulish being especially striking. As the upper mountain slopes were much of this day obscured by clouds, a much humbler feature of the scenery attracted my attention. This was the "twenty-five-foot beach," of peculiar interest in the sea lochs from its distinctness and its control of population. It is a mark of wave work when the sea stood higher on the land. There is a cliff from ten to thirty feet in height cut in the mountain side, with caves frequently indenting its level base, and a smooth gravelly or sandy slope stretching two or three hundred feet from the foot of the cliff to the present shore. Where streams from the glens entered quiet water, the beach spreads out into a delta. Where eddying currents carried the gravels outward from the old shore, the beach locally widens, recalling the much larger examples of this process on our coast in Cape Canaveral and its fellows further north. Where the mountains descend abruptly to an exposed coast, as on the promontories between the sea lochs, the gravelly waste from the land was washed away into deeper water by the strong waves, and only a ragged rocky bench remains, now taking the form of "skerries," or low ledgy islands, where the former wave action was especially violent.

It is not too much to say that nine-tenths of the scanty population of this region live according to the opportunity afforded by the gravelly beaches or the sandy deltas of this ancient sea margin. The roads often follow it for miles. The scattered cottages of the crofters are all set back close against the old sea cliff; their little crofts lie on the smooth bench in front, while their cattle and sheep are driven up to pasture on the steep mountain slopes above. There are no cottages on the upper slopes. Villages are strung along on the old beach, assuming a narrow linear form, like the towns along the banks of the Rhine in its gorge. On the deltas, or on the cuspate beaches that have been built outward by ancient currents, there are occasional castles or halls, with shady groves, grassy lawns, and all the elegances of high life, amid the poverty of the smaller folk, up and down the old shore line. The bare skerries support no one but the light-house-keepers; the slopes of the mountains leading down to the exposed headlands are desolate in the extreme. There are miles and miles of bolder coast, seen in a later part of my excursion, where not even a cottage is in sight; no tempting bench of cultivable land invites settlement there. It would be difficult to find a better illustration of the control exerted by past processes on present opportunities, either in their bidding or forbidding aspects.

W. M. D.

# Correspondence.

## MME. DE RIEDESEL ON THE FENTON CASE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mme. de Riedesel, in her memoir, states that the wife and daughter of Capt. Fenton, a Royalist absentee living in England in the time of the Revolutionary war, were tarred and feathered by the rabble of Boston. In my work on the United States I have repeated her statement, as Lord Mahon (Stanhope), in his 'History of England,' had done before me. In the report of a meeting of the Massachusetts Historical Society on January 11, 1894, Dr. Samuel A. Green, in reference to my work, discusses Mme. de Riedesel's story, and comes to the conclusion that it is baseless.

"This German Baroness," he says, "was a guileless woman, unused to the ways of the world—as crops out in her 'Letters and Journals,' etc.—and too readily believed improbable tales. She had never seen the seamy side of life, and her credulity was equalled only by her inexperience. Without doubt the story was told to her, and she jotted it down; but her authority in the matter is entitled to no more weight than specks of dust floating in the air."

I would very gladly cancel the passage if I could persuade myself that Dr. Green's view was right. The exact words of Mme. de Riedesel are:

"I had, during my residence at Bristol, in England, made the acquaintance of a Capt. Fenton, whom the Americans claimed at the beginning of the war, but who remained faithful to his sovereign, and refused to go to America. Upon this the infuriated rabble seized his wife, who was a most respectable woman, and a daughter of the age of fifteen, who was very beautiful, and stripped them both of their dresses, without regard to their moral worth, their beauty, and their delicacy; and after having besmeared them with tar, and covered them with feathers, drove them through the city. What had one not to fear from people maddened to that degree of hatred!" ('Letters and Memoirs,' pp. 196-97.)

In an earlier part of her Memoir, recounting her journey from Germany to America, the Baroness had said:

"I met in the house where I lived in Bristol a Capt. Fenton, whose wife had remained in Boston with a daughter of fourteen. He was a fond husband and a doting father, and begged me to take charge of some letters on my departure for America. On my arrival I learned that, on account of his long absence, Mrs. Fenton had been arrested and suffered much ill-treatment; but of this anon" (p. 74).

She does not say, nor was she specially called upon to say, from whom she had the story. She does not tell us whether she saw Mrs. and Miss Fenton at Boston. But, being acquainted with Capt. Fenton, and having taken letters for his wife and daughter, she is pretty sure to have made special inquiry about them. The date of the occurrence, as to which Dr. Green raises a question, is not given, but we must suppose that it was between the evacuation of Boston by the British army and the arrival of Mme. de Riedesel.

Mme. de Riedesel states that she was herself insulted by people of the baser sort at Boston; that the persons of her own sex were the worst; that they gazed at her with indignation, and spat when she passed near them. We can hardly reject her evidence in this case.

As a German, the wife of a commander of auxiliaries, Mme. de Riedesel little shared the passions of the civil war. I have, in fact, found in her Memoir only one spark of royalist emotion, and this was elicited by singing in her presence "God save good Washington and God damn the King," which must have pained her the more because she had been very well received by the royal family in England. When she is kindly treated by Americans, as she often is, she heartily acknowledges the kindness. Nothing can be warmer than her tribute to the generosity and chivalry of Gates and Schuyler. I see no indications of weak credulity in the Memoir. On the contrary, I should say that it was the work of a woman of sense, as well as the picture of a very attractive character and of rare conjugal affection. A woman who had followed a camp, and a motley camp such as that of Burgoyne, must surely have seen the seamy side of life. Indeed, she had seen not a little that was seamy on her travels before she joined the camp.

The silence of the Boston journals of that day, which Dr. Green proffers as negative evidence, seems natural enough. The incident was one which they would hardly like to chronicle. The negative evidence of the kindred of the Fentons in Boston, which Dr. Green also urges, will have more force than the silence of the journals, provided Dr. Green can tell us who the kindred are and what it is exactly that they say. No positive evidence is adduced by Dr. Green.

It appears from Dr. Green's paper that Capt. Fenton was an object of special odium as a noted Tory who had been expelled on account of his political proclivities from the Legislature of New Hampshire, had been afterwards arrested by order of the Provincial Congress, and was accused of having violated his parole, which bound him to take himself in the first instance to New York. The last circumstance seems to explain Mme. de Riedesel's otherwise

unintelligible expression as to the Americans having "claimed" Capt. Fenton at the beginning of the war.

It was by an infuriated rabble, Mme. de Riedesel says, that the outrage was committed, and Dr. Green will hardly think that there is a limit to the excesses of which an infuriated rabble, even at Boston, can be guilty in a time of civil war. GOLDWIN SMITH.

TORONTO, July 21, 1894.

## THE SILVER EVIL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: People who think are at present becoming so impressed with the mischief of the so-called protective system fastened on the country by a greedy minority and now fighting desperately for its life, that it seems to me another equally potent cause of disaster is in danger of being momentarily neglected.

The country has been engaged for years in a gigantic silver speculation. We have attempted to "corner" the commodity by buying immense quantities and struggling to convert it into money at double its value by the power of Congressional fiat. Like most other attempted corners, this has failed, but the worst of the effects remain, and must remain till we retrace our steps. The millions of silver dug up on Western hillsides and now reburied in Eastern vaults, of itself merely involves a pecuniary loss which the country is rich enough to stand. But unfortunately we have borrowed upon it; that is, we have issued an overwhelming and redundant mass of silver certificates and notes "based" upon it, to which paper, though it possesses no value anywhere else, we have in effect given the legal-tender quality as against our own people.

Probably almost every one who addresses himself intelligently to this subject is familiar with the financial canon known to the world as the law of Gresham. It is the principle which assures us that in any country whose aggregate currency is redundant in quantity and composite in quality, the best will tend to disappear from circulation by either hoarding or exportation. Now the present currency of the United States includes eight different kinds, and is absurdly redundant in quantity. Notwithstanding the financial wisdom of backwoods conventions, it is probably two or three times more than is required by a people whose entire pecuniary transactions—95 per cent., as we are credibly told—are conducted by checks and credits.

Under these circumstances, no one need be surprised at the continued efflux of gold under any and all probable conditions of international credit and rates of exchange. It seems to me that Gresham's law is asserting itself as vigorously as can be reasonably expected. Gold and gold certificates have gone out of common use. Greenbacks redeemable in gold have followed suit. National bank-notes payable in greenbacks are no longer profitable, and are being steadily withdrawn. We have, in fact, a badly inflated silver paper currency, and no other, although as yet expressed in terms of gold. It continues to be so expressed because we know the Government can, and most of us believe it will, maintain this silver paper at par by purchasing it, when required, with gold borrowed for the purpose or wrung from the taxpayer. Every dollar of it represents simply a debt of the Government (*i. e.*, the taxpayers) to meet which there is nothing besides taxes and some thousands of tons of depreciated silver, for which there is no market, the demand being fully supplied from current production. We may as well accept the fact, than which few are more certain, that the world whom Congress cannot reach by law will continue to refuse this paper, and it must all be taken up with borrowed gold if the country is to maintain solvency. When that process shall have been seriously begun and honestly completed, and when Congress will let the people's industries alone and abandon its mischievous tendency to enact prosperity by statute, then we can look for nothing less than the most prosperous commerce and industry in a land so abounding with individual energy and natural resources.

Very respectfully yours,
I. J. WISTAR.

PHILADELPHIA, July 30, 1894.

## TEMPERATURE AND VERTEBRÆ.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Mr. Jordan's own 'Contributions to North American Ichthyology,' p. 307, in the genus *Oncorhynchus*, a Pacific salmon, *O. chouicha*, or quinnat salmon, is said to possess 66 vertebræ, and to often attain the length of 3 to 4 feet, and to have been known to attain a weight of 100 or more pounds. (This fish, by the way, should retain the specific name of *quinnat*, which everybody from Alaska to Greenland, almost, knows, rather than *chouicha*, a name changed from another name, which everybody does *not* know.) It is well known to eat up both the *old* and the *young* of its neighbor, *O. nerka*, a smaller species having only 64 vertebræ. The latter, in its struggle to get away from its more voracious neighbor, ascends the stream to its highest source. S.

GEORGIA, July, 1894.

[This note relates to objections urged by us (*Nation*, April 19) against acceptance of Prof. Jordan's theory of "temperature and vertebræ" in fishes. It was inspired by his assertion that, "as a rule, members of the same group having different numbers of vertebræ *do not* inhabit the same waters." As yet no evidence has, to our knowledge, been advanced against our statement that, of closely allied fishes, those making most use of the vertebra in the column, usually the more active and predaceous species, have the larger numbers of vertebræ, and that the differences correlate with habits and use instead of temperature and selection.

Our knowledge of the life histories of the Salmones is not at all complete. Our correspondent's note bears the inference that the species *nerka* (narka, 1764, nerka, 1774, nærka, 1784) is driven to the uppermost reaches of the streams by tchavitche. It may well be that to avoid the enemy the young are placed as far out of the way as possible, but early authorities say tchavitche, in the Kamtchatkan waters, is first to go up the streams in the yearly rush. Fishing for this species "begins about the middle of *May* and lasts six weeks." Nerka "is caught about the middle of June. . . . There are two things worth notice concerning it: the first of which is, that part go before to the heads of the rivers, as if they were sent out to examine them, where some of them are caught before the shoals appear at the mouths. The second is, that this fish is more plenty in such rivers as run out of lakes than others: nor does it live long in the former, but hastens directly into the latter; in the depths of which it lies till the beginning of August, at which time it comes nearer the shore, and tries to get into these rivers that communicate with the lakes." "Each kind of fish always ascends the rivers at the same time. In the month of August sometimes two, three, nay even four species come up at once; but each keeps separate from the other. The different species of those fishes which are here called red fish shall be mentioned in giving an account of the time when they come out of the sea into the rivers; it being remarked that they always observe the same order, the same species which comes out first one year continuing to do so the following. This the Kamtschadales find to be so certain, that they call their months by the name of the fish which are then caught. The largest and best of these fish, and which come first out of the sea, are called chavitsi."

Some writers hold that this last does not feed while in fresh water.

The generally recognized rules of priority would fix the specific name *tchavitche*, instead of quinnat, on the California salmon. The former is a vernacular word, nearly rendered by the spelling given. There are several forms of the word in literature: chavitsi, tchavitche, and tchovnitche, 1764, tschawitscha, 1766, tschabitscha and tschavitscho, 1774, tshawytscha, 1784, and chouicha, 1882. Quinnat, 1836, is said to be a vulgar name for various species, and to mean shining or glittering.—ED. NATION.]

## SCIENTIFIC INDEXING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your kind notice of 'Drainage Channel and Waterway,' which I had the honor and pleasure to write, you speak of the work, in the *Nation* of July 5, page 11, as "an excellent book, with the most inadequate index that it has been our fate ever to find in any work on a technical subject." If an index of fourteen pages in agate type, two columns to the page, in a book of about 450 pages printed in small pica, containing more than two thousand references, with no subject or name omitted, is inadequate, will you kindly state what, in your opinion, would be an adequate index?

Yours very truly, G. P. BROWN.

766 WEST ADAMS STREET, CHICAGO, July 18, 1894.

[An index may be very full without being intelligently made. Our expression reflected, perhaps too strongly, our vexation at being baffled when we sought to find out about the rate of flow and volume of discharge of the new waterway, which we had seen in reading the book. Turning to the index, we found neither Velocity, Capacity, Volume, Flow, Cross-section, Depth, Width, Section, Slope, Inclination, Fall, Current, nor Channel. Discharge and Waterway were there, but with no reference to what we were in search of. We thought that such important subjects as these missing titles indicate should be traceable in an adequate index.—ED. NATION.]

## DECORUM IN BERLIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I beg to submit the following incident as an instance of the detail to which police authority may extend here in Berlin:

Wandering through a rather unfrequented part of the Thiergarten recently, I observed a decently clad fellow asleep on a shady bench; he was sitting sidewise, with one leg on one side and one on the other of the narrow bench, his head resting on his arm, while his arm was supported by the back of the bench. I had noticed nothing unseemly in his position, but a police officer, more observant than I, approached and felt apparently no hesitation in rousing the fellow up and directing him not to straddle the bench, but to take a proper position. The culprit quietly complied, and the big policeman walked on.

The incident is a trifling one and may go to confirm the fact that Berlin is well governed, but may it not serve as well to make us more contented with our own land? For though sometimes called on to submit to the caprice of an Irish officer "armed with a little brief authority," it is certain that the humblest of our citizens would not submit uncomplainingly to such a wanton interference with his happiness.

Very truly yours, C. G. Baldwin.

Berlin, July, 1894.

## "BACK AND FORTH."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your learned correspondent "F. H." is probably correct in the statement that the use of the phrase "back and forth" is now confined to America, but it may be of interest to note that a precisely equivalent phrase, "back and forwards," is current in Ireland.

The Cornish "foorth and back," the Devonshire "voar an' back," and the West Somerset "back and fore," all in the sense of 'wrong end to,' are perhaps only corruptions of "fore end back" or "back end fore."

Your correspondent's interpretation of the colloquial Hibernianism "to the back of" to mean 'immediately after,' falls in naturally with the quotation cited, viz.: "He made her drink a bumper, and another to the back of it." This meaning, however, does not seem to accord with general usage, for in the above phrase, as commonly heard in Ireland, the word "back" has its ordinary meaning of *support* or *reinforcement*, as in the sentence: "I am not afraid of Johnny, nor his big brother to the back of him." J. M.

Ithaca, N. Y., July 30, 1894.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The dialect illustrations under the above head in your issue of the 26th inst. seem to me to change the obvious meaning of the speaker in both cases by giving "and" where "end" was used. What I venture to think the woman said was, "'Ee 'ave 'is 'at on foorth eand back"; and did not the miner say, "I gnawed they pump wud na run fur 'ee 'ad they rockers in foorth eand back"?

Very respectfully, J. G. C.

July 30, 1894.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "Back and forth" is given in Webster in the sense of to and fro. It may not appear in literature, but it has been used in all parts of New England for a hundred and fifty years, and undoubtedly longer—so generally that it could not have originated there. "Walking back and forth for a long time," "going back and forth continually," are common examples. In a letter of my great-grandfather, in 1760, I read: "Indians went back and forth [from New Hampshire]." Sometimes the phrase was varied by "forward and back," as "passing forward and back every day." P. J. F.

Clinton, Iowa, July 28, 1894.

# Notes.

It must have seemed as if the English-speaking world was already in a fair way to be satisfied with dictionaries of the language, but still another has just been set on foot and makes an appeal for subscribers. 'The National Dictionary of English Language and Literature,' it will be called, and its aim is "to include all words and phrase-words found in English literature between 1360 A. D. and the present day," with the expectation of embracing "a large number of words of good authority or of common speech never before registered in any dictionary." It is to be "based on full indexes of several carefully selected authors, including Chaucer, Caxton, Elyot, North, Phil. Holland, Bacon, Pope, Johnson, Burke, Thackeray, Macaulay, and Ruskin." Date of authorship and exact references will accompany every quotation, as in the 'New English Dictionary.' The editor, Dr. C. A. M. Fennell, Barton Cottage, Cambridge, England, is but two years free from the great labor of the 'Stanford Dictionary of Anglicised Words and Phrases'—a work more apart from existing dictionaries than his new venture can be, but also less popular in character. The 'National Dictionary' will make three volumes at three guineas, if paid for in advance during the current year. Subscriptions should be sent to the editor.

Charles Scribner's Sons will shortly launch a subscription book, 'The Woman's Book,' consisting of chapters interesting to the sex contributed by many well-known writers, both male and female. There will be more than four hundred illustrations. The same firm have in press a new story, 'Marsena,' by Harold Frederic.

'A Story of Courage: Annals of the Georgetown Convent of the Visitation,' by George Parsons Lathrop, will be published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Little, Brown & Co. will bring out 'Curb, Snaffle and Spur,' training for young men for the cavalry service, by Edward L. Anderson.

A new translation of Molière's works, by Miss K. P. Wormeley, the translator of Balzac, will bear the imprint of Roberts Bros.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have issued 'The Footprints of the Jesuits,' by R. W. Thompson, ex-Secretary of the Navy.

Ginn & Co. will soon have ready 'Citizenship: A Book for Classes in Government,' by Julius H. Seelye, D.D., late President of Amherst College.

William Briggs, Toronto, has in preparation a book of verse, 'My Lattice,' by Frederic George Scott, a Canadian poet.

Wilson Nevens, Falmouth, Me., invites subscriptions to a genealogical record of the Nevens or Nevins families of New England, including those of Palmer and Gloucester, Mass., and of Pelham and Hollis, N. H.

'Quentin Durward,' in two volumes, is the latest of the Waverley Novels in the International Limited Edition (Boston: Estes & Lauriat; New York: Bryan, Taylor & Co.). Mr. Lang's task as preface-writer has visibly begun to pall upon him, and he has little to say except to rate 'Quentin Durward' with the very best work of Scott, and to supply some bibliographical and historical data. M. Lalauze furnishes the etched illustrations, with his usual academic grace and correctness.

Two more volumes have been added also to the Dent-Macmillan pocket "Temple Shakspere," viz., 'Love's Labour's Lost' and 'Much Ado about Nothing.' There is a charm about this series which bears prolonging.

The changes in the island of Nantucket have not been so great since 1882 that Mr. Edward K. Godfrey's "complete index and guide to this noted resort," just reissued by Lee & Shepard, Boston, is seriously out of date. The interval of time, however, might well have been improved in providing a table of contents and perfecting the index. There is much history and natural history in this volume, which is furnished with maps of the island and the town.

Two more numbers of the series "Artistes Célèbres" (Paris: Librairie de *l'Art*) are before us. That on 'Michiel van Mierevelt et son Gendre [Willem Jacobsz Delff],' by Henry Havard, is needlessly diffuse, and does relatively little to draw Mierevelt out of his "penumbra," by supplying fresh data from original research. Still, something has been done in this line, and there is a large series of examples of the work of this prolific portraitist, most of them engraved by his son-in-law Delff. Adrien Moureau's 'Antonio Canal, dit le Canaletto,' is equally expanded. A third of the hundred pages is given up to a preliminary sketch of Venetian life in the eighteenth century; a quarter describes the various phases of Venice embalmed in Canaletto's pictures; a sixth (the fourth and last chapter) deals with Canaletto's pupils and imitators; another sixth discusses his merits as painter and engraver; and the remaining twelve pages more than suffice to tell all that is known about his uneventful career. In short, the text seems designed chiefly to keep the full-page plates from crowding each other. They occupy on the average every other page, and give its principal value to the volume. The majority are from engravings after Canaletto's canvases, but there is a good sprinkling of his own skilful etchings, and one unpublished wash drawing. These examples, except the last, have been drawn from the National Library.

Prof. Rudolf Koegel, whose 'Althoch- und Altniederdeutsche Litteratur' forms one of the most valuable sections of the "Grundriss der Germanischen Philologie," has just published the first volume of a 'Geschichte der Deutschen Litteratur bis zum Ausgange des Mittelalters' (Strassburg: Trübner). It is safe to say that this compendium is destined to be the worthy successor of the works of Koberstein and Wachernagel. The present volume goes as far as the middle of the Karolingian epoch, and deals in a most comprehensive manner with the nature and development of ancient Germanic verse and prose. In contradistinction from Johann Kelle, with whose 'Geschichte der Deutschen Litteratur bis zur Mitte des elften Jahrhunderts' this volume in part coincides, Koegel does not confine himself to a consideration of the few literary fragments which have come down to our time, but tries also by a careful analysis of historical testimonies, by a searching study of archaic remnants in later literature, and through analogies with the literary development of other Germanic tribes, to reconstruct the earliest oral tradition of the German people. He succeeds in shedding light upon many doubtful

points, especially in the history of the oldest hymnic poetry and of alliterative verse; and he presents, all things considered, the most complete picture of German literary origins which as yet has been given.

It is a rather discouraging sign of the times that the volume recently published by Dr. M. Felix Korum, Bishop of Trier, and entitled 'Wunder und Göttliche Gnadenerweise bei der Ausstellung des Heiligen Rockes zu Trier im Jahre 1891,' should have already passed into a fourth edition. The bishop does not wish his statements to be accepted on his own authority, but claims to give an "aktenmässige Darstellung," or documentary presentation, of the miracles wrought by the holy coat of Trier in 1891, and thus invests them with a seemingly scientific character. It is hardly necessary to add that these certificates, issued by obscure curates and country doctors, or by an episcopal commission of theologians and physicians, who have very strangely forgotten to sign their names to their reports, have no evidentiary value whatever. The diseases said to have been healed were nervous and hysterical affections, St. Vitus's dance, and a few cases of certain mild forms of lupus and tabes, which, as is well known, often disappear for months and even for years without the aid of medicine or miracles.

Dr. Korum has also published a pastoral letter denying the genuineness of the "holy seamless coat" of Argenteuil, and inviting the faithful to pay their devotions only to the "holy coat" of Trier. The same conclusion was reached by a French Benedictine Abbé Vonel, whose pamphlet threatened to produce in Argenteuil a serious depression of spirits and of trade, especially among the innkeepers, and was immediately suppressed by order of Monseigneur Richard, Archbishop of Paris. On the other hand, the ecclesiastical authorities of Argenteuil do not deny the genuineness of the relic at Trier, but only assert that it is an upper garment, whereas theirs is an under garment worn next to the skin, and therefore endowed with greater healing virtue than could possibly be possessed by a mere overcoat. The masses, however, seem to be scarcely affected by these mutual accusations and recriminations. This is the year for the "elevation" of the rival relic at Argenteuil, the gift of the Byzantine Empress Irene to Charlemagne, and already 500,000 pilgrims have flocked to the little town on the Seine where Héloïse took the veil after her separation from Abélard; and no one doubts that scores of miraculous cures will be recorded and in due time officially reported.

M. George Cogordan's 'Joseph de Maistre' is the latest issue in Hachette's "Les Grands Écrivains Français," and it is quite worthy of the volumes which have preceded it. The subject of the biography is a man whose influence on French thought has been larger than is commonly supposed, and it is this point which comes out clearly in M. Cogordan's work. An opponent of Rousseau, a corrector of Voltaire, a more serious Christian than Chateaubriand, De Maistre held views which events justified and proclaimed beliefs which have proved groundless. He believed Washington would never be built, for instance, and that Congress would never meet there; he was mistaken also in predicting the early disappearance of Protestantism; but he enunciated many sound political views which, at the time, were scouted, and which have triumphed since. M. Cogordan has been particularly happy in reproducing the living personality of De Maistre, with its many noble traits, and in analyzing his doctrines.

Prosper Mérimée forms the subject of a most readable and thoroughly interesting volume by M. Augustin Filon (Paris: Hachette & Cie.). M. Filon was fortunate enough to know the great writer personally and to be somewhat intimate with several of Mérimée's closest friends. Many letters, of a confidential character, have been intrusted to him, and these various materials have enabled him to give his readers a very living portrait of the author of 'Carmen' and 'Colomba.' M. Filon remains convinced that while it is possible that Mérimée's scepticism may have been partly assumed as far as love is concerned, it was absolute and sincere in all other respects, "standing upright his life long on the narrow and giddy crest of absolute negation," with, as he died, a "perhaps" breathed instead of the usual "no." A very valuable part of the book is the complete and accurate bibliography of Mérimée's works prepared by that eminent authority, the Viscount de Spoelberch de Louvenjol, which is published here for the first time.

The *American Journal of Insanity*, published quarterly for half a century at Utica, N. Y., has been purchased and will hereafter be published by the American Medico-Psychological Association of Chicago. Dr. Richard Dewey becomes the temporary editor.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for July contains two valuable, though technical, articles on the mountain systems of Central Asia, by Mr. E. Delmar Morgan, and a continuation of Otto Pettersson's review of Swedish hydrographic research in the Baltic and North Seas. In this part he treats of the Baltic current in the Skagerack and North Sea, the salinity of its waters, its temperature at different seasons, and the meteorological consequences, all of which are illustrated by a series of colored plates. These are followed by a second instalment of Mr. D. R. Urquhart's entertaining notes on the Bolivian Altiplanicie or highlands, mostly devoted to an account of the inhabitants, whom he divides into the Bolivians, who are of Spanish descent, the Cholos or half-breeds, and the Indians. These last are apparently the most hopeless of the three, being "mirthless, abject, spiritless creatures, whose only idea of recreation or pleasure is in drunken orgies of the most disgusting nature." Although a very healthy race, with great powers of endurance, which, the writer suggests, may be partly owing to their continual coca-chewing, and though many of them are very long-lived, he believes that, "as this Indian is really incapable of improvement, he will probably shortly disappear." They are all Roman Catholics, and, if the example given is typical of the class, their priests guide them with a cudgel.

If a thorough equipment can insure success, the Jackson-Harmsworth Polar Expedition, which started from England on July 11, will be successful. It consisted of eight men, all carefully chosen for some special qualification—as, an astronomer, surveyor, photographer, steward, and doctor. While game is abundant in Franz Josef Land, their theatre of operations, they have taken provisions to last four years on full rations, together with a large stock of methylated spirit for fuel and light. A novel feature is an aluminium boat, 18 feet by 5 feet, in three sections, and capable of holding 13 to 20 persons, but weighing only 150 pounds. There are also other boats and eighteen sledges, of extraordinary strength and lightness, and capable each of carrying 1,600 pounds, to be drawn by dogs and Siberian ponies—another novel feature in arctic exploration. We have already described Mr. Jackson's plans, and will only add here that he expects to be gone three years. The total cost of the expedition, borne by Mr. Harmsworth, will be about $100,000.

*Die Grenzboten*, a weekly periodical published by Grunow at Leipzig, contains in the number for July 12 some sharp and quite significant remarks on "Beamtenbeleidigung," in which the writer animadverts on the growing tendency of imperial prosecuting attorneys to shield Government officials from public criticism by rendering such censure a punishable offence, and thus creating a *delictum sui generis* hitherto unknown to the statutes of the realm. An insult offered to the Emperor or to any of the confederated sovereigns is recognized by the criminal code of the German Empire as "Majestätsbeleidigung," or lese-majesty; and the frequency, and in many cases the frivolity, with which in late years prosecutions have been instituted under this clause, and the gross abuse of the legal protection properly granted to the dignity of rulers, have given rise to much injurious comment and provoked bitter feeling even in the minds of loyal subjects and good citizens, who are instinctively inclined to show due respect to "the powers that be." The consciousness of their official importance, and the habit of exercising absolute authority over submissive and often servile subalterns, have now excited in the higher class of public functionaries in Germany the desire to have a like protection extended to themselves, especially as regards strictures emanating from the press. Hence the attempt to revive the obsolete distinctions between grand and petit as formerly applied to treason and larceny, and thus to establish a new delict known as "kleine Majestätsbeleidigung," or petit lese-majesty, for the safeguard of all servants of the state.

The latest news from the explorations at Hissarlik (*Levant Herald* July 7) comes to us from the owner of the site, Mr. Frank Calvert, United States consul, Dardanelles. It was readily seen that the second, or burned city which Dr. Schliemann enthusiastically assumed to be the city of Priam, instead of solving the question of the 'Iliad,' offered new problems to the archæologist. The precious objects and the works of art there found were evidently ruder and more ancient by some centuries than those of Mycenæ, and therefore decidedly earlier than Homeric Troy. In the sixth city, however, pottery of a Mycenæan type was discovered, and this led Dr. Dörpfeld, assisted by Mrs. Schliemann, and later by the German Government, to extend excavations on this level, with results that are now proving fruitful, and that may possibly be conclusive. Curiously enough, Dr. Schliemann's excavations obscured rather than aided this particular investigation. The area of the sixth city was twice as great as the space covered by the successive acropolises of the other five; and, in consequence, their débris was dumped on the very spot which Dr. Dörpfeld has just been clearing. The massive walls he has uncovered, from five to six metres broad, the lofty towers, and the street which has been traced, may provisionally be assumed to belong to the Homeric Troy.

Mr. W. I. Fletcher writes to us from Amherst: "I am in receipt of a private letter from Mr. M. Foster, Secretary of the Royal Society, in which, referring to a subject-index to the Catalogue of Scientific Papers, he says: 'I have now to inform you that the Royal Society has determined to publish such a subject-index, and that it is already proceeding to

put the matter in hand.' I am sure this news will be hailed with delight throughout the United States."

We have received from the Skandinavisk Antiquariat at Copenhagen, 49 Gothersgade, a catalogue of Icelandic and Scandinavian works of exceptional rarity or excellence, pertaining to the languages, literature, history, topography, etc., of the countries in question. It represents more than the stock in hand, and has therefore a bibliographical value.

—In *Harper's* for August "Trilby" comes to an end, and so does Mr. Howells's account of his first visit to New England. He gives a report of his interviews with Hawthorne, Thoreau, and Emerson, and mentions that, when Poe was spoken of, Emerson said: "Oh, you mean the jingle-man?" Owen Wister's story, "The Serenade at Siskiyou," is noteworthy because it presents a timely satire on the mushy sentimentalism which sympathizes with riotous strikers. Of the remaining fiction there is not much to be said. Richard Harding Davis tells what he assures us is a true story, and one would rather take his word for it than suppose so clever a writer capable of inventing anything so inane. Mr. Smalley narrates some of his experiences as a war correspondent, and says that during the battle of Antietam an officer on Gen. McClellan's staff requested him to see Gen. Hooker (who had been wounded), "find out whether he can mount his horse, and, if he can, ask him whether he will take command of this army and drive Lee into the Potomac or force him to surrender." "Up the Norway Coast," by George C. Pease, contains some useful information for travellers in that region, not the least attractive item being to the effect that the mean temperature in July is 56°. Mr. Julian Ralph's article on "Old Monmouth" might serve to point a moral on the literary shortcomings of much of our magazine literature. It starts very well with much interesting historical lore concerning Monmouth County, N. J., then veers off into a pretty enough celebration of the fish-hawks of the region, and winds up with a reprint of the Asbury Park bathing regulations. It surely is not exorbitant to ask that in an article of only fifteen pages, of which nearly one-third is taken up with illustrations, there should be a little more unity of treatment. Even the illustrations do not refer to anything in the text; however, the frontispiece, engraved by Victor Bernstrom after a study from nature by himself, may be enjoyed as confirming the feeling for the picturesque and the technical skill already displayed by the same artist on a larger scale in depicting the same Shark River.

—The *Century* opens with an article on "Washington as a Spectacle" which would at once be recognized as being by Mr. Marion Crawford even if his name were not signed to it. It is pleasant to observe that his style gains in force and dignity. When he says, "For the French mind differentiates keenly, but integrates by one rule only, which is the Parisian," it would be some satisfaction to have an explanation of the Parisian rule for integrating. The most attractive piece of fiction is Mrs. Mary Hallock Foote's "Maverick," a masculine, tragic story. There is an instructive description of "The Coleman Collection of Antique Glass," by Russell Sturgis, and a fine engraving by Cole from Quentin Matsys, in his series of the "The Old Dutch Masters." In the fourth instalment of "Across Asia on a Bicycle" it is stated that one method of sweetening tea in use among the Russians is "to hang a lump [of sugar] in the midst of a tea-drinking circle, to be swung around for each in turn to touch with his tongue, and then to take a swallow of tea." The singularity about this is that Diedrich Knickerbocker reports the same custom as being in vogue in the town of New Amsterdam. A discussion in which Senator Hoar advocates Woman Suffrage while Dr. J. M. Buckley opposes it, pretty nearly exhausts the subject without settling it. Perhaps the most important article, from a purely literary point of view, is that on "Poe in the South," consisting of selections from Poe's correspondence edited by Prof. Geo. E. Woodberry. The letters here printed form part of a collection of papers which will appear in book form under the editorship of Wm. M. Griswold, a son of the Rev. Rufus Wilmot Griswold, whose biography of Poe was the occasion of a heated and acrimonious controversy nearly forty years ago. Prof. Woodberry vindicates Dr. Griswold from the aspersions of his critics, and confirms his judgment of Poe; but the letters need more explanation to show their full bearing on Poe's biography.

—In *Scribner's* Prof. Woodberry prints, with comments, a number of letters written by Lowell to Poe in 1842-'44, also forming a portion of the Griswold papers. They contain matter of biographical and literary interest, throwing more light, however, on Lowell than on Poe. Poe's letters are not included, having appeared in Woodberry's Life of Poe. A letter of Robert Carter to Poe bears witness to Lowell's rapidity of composition, mentioning that he had written a poem of 400 lines in seven or eight hours. In one letter Lowell advises Poe (who was about to edit a magazine which was projected, but came to nothing) to "be very watchful of your publishers and agents. They must be driven as men drive swine—take your eyes off them for an instant and they bolt between your legs and leave you in the mire." Mr. Bunner's story, "French for a Fortnight," is adroitly managed so that just as the reader is about to ask impatiently when the story is going to begin, he finds himself stumbling over the end of it. M. Octave Uzanne carries out quite consistently the somewhat obvious fantasy that books will in time be superseded by the phonograph and illustrations by the kinetograph, of which he says he saw "the first trial at Orange Park, New Jersey." Mention should be made also of Mr. W. B. Closson's fine engraving of Carolus Duran's "The Poet with the Mandolin."

—The *Atlantic* contains the final instalment of Sidney Lanier's letters to Mr. Peacock. They are pathetic for their revelation of the poet's struggles with consumption and poverty, and of the gentle patience with which he bore his many burdens. He was a reluctant and an unsuccessful applicant for a Government position under the Hayes Administration, and was casting about for a place in the Johns Hopkins University or in the Peabody Library in Baltimore, all in the hope of obtaining a more secure livelihood than was afforded him by magazine articles and by his engagement as first flute in the Peabody orchestra. In a letter written in November, 1878, he outlines a scheme for systematic courses of lectures to serve as "Schools for Grown People," which have a vague resemblance to the Chautauqua system. Under the title of "The College Graduate and Public Life," Theodore Roosevelt indulges in a criticism of the critics similar to that expressed by Senator Lodge in his recent Phi Beta Kappa address at Harvard. It seems hardly probable, however, that he will persuade the critics to lay down the pen and take up the sword. He might as well try to convert a razor into a carving-knife. Another obvious consideration is that the actors on any stage must always be outnumbered by the audience, and that a good actor will always prefer a critical audience. Mr. A. H. Washburn's article on "Our Consular Service" is a very useful piece of criticism, and evidently the work of an expert. "Professional Horsemen," by H. C. Merwin, is a little out of the ordinary run of magazine articles, but very readable and touched with humor.

—Nowhere else than in Old England could such a book as Prof. G. G. Ramsay's 'Latin Prose Versions' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) have got itself published. It is a small quarto beautifully printed on the largest of paper, bound in half vellum, and deckle-edged with gilt top; there being only 300 copies, of which but 220 are offered for sale. And the contents of all this magnificence are Latin versions, 150 of them, turned by 30 eminent Englishmen from well-known English writers. Among the contributors are the Archbishop of Canterbury (who "does" a page from Grote), Profs. Butcher, Conington, Robinson Ellis, Nettleship, and Postgate, and Drs. Merry, Sidgwick, Sandys, Reid, and the editor himself. The English authors from whom the selections are made include Shakspere, Burke, Addison, Lord Chesterfield, Cromwell, Darwin, Mill, Froude, Gibbon, Macaulay, Raleigh, Scott, and Thackeray. Classical teachers everywhere will agree with Prof. Ramsay that the practice of Latin composition supplies them with their most effective method for teaching clearness of thought and purity of style; and it is only to be regretted that the price of this book and the limited number of copies put it out of the reach of those to whom it would do the most good. A cheaper edition would be a real boon to school and college-teachers throughout this country, where indeed the interest in Latin composition, of late years dulled, seems now to be reviving. The versions are in general very well done and will repay careful thought and study. Many of them have the true classic ring, and only now and then do we meet what reminds us of Dr. Johnson's definition—"*Latin:* an exercise practised by schoolboys who turn English into Latin."

—Our Paris correspondent last week attributed, no doubt correctly, to Proudhon the invention of the *doctrinal* meaning of the word Anarchy. Littré's earliest quotation for the word in its abstract sense is from Bossuet in the last third of the seventeenth century. Dr. Murray's earliest quotation is from Taverner's translation (1539) of Erasmus's 'Adagia'; "This unleful lyberty or lycence of the multytude is called an Anarchie," and it is extremely probable that Erasmus (about the year 1500) gave to the word its modern currency. "The populace is plotting anarchy," he says in one of his 'Colloquies' (1522) ("Puerpera"); and from a marginal gloss in editions so late as Amsterdam 1662 and Basel 1683 ("*Anarchia*, cum nullo principe tumultuatur populus"), it clearly appears that the word was a Latin neologism. In the Leyden edition (1703) of the 'Opera Omnia,' "ex recensione Johannis clerici," this gloss is dropped, presumably for the reason given in the preface to volume i., that the 'Colloquies' had been disfigured with a lot of silly, false, puerile, or superfluous patches, which the editor felt in

duty bound to remove—in order to make room for his own "multò uberiores Notæ." In other words, Anarchy by that time needed no explanation for any scholar of the Greek, and probably it was familiar enough in the vernacular of all the western European languages. Dr. Murray shows that Bacon used it as an ordinary word in 1605. There must be other instances in which the 'New English Dictionary,' by its historical examples, furnishes a clue to the origin of words in Continental languages also.

## HITTELL'S MENTAL GROWTH OF MANKIND.—I.

*A History of the Mental Growth of Mankind in Ancient Times.* By John S. Hittell. 4 vols. Henry Holt & Co. 1893.

In these days of monographs and encyclopædias he is a bold man who undertakes in a single book to give a connected history of the mental growth of mankind in ancient times, and who means to "follow up this book with other volumes, in which the course of human progress [shall] be traced down to the present day." It will be seen that Mr. Hittell has come very near selecting the universe as his specialty. He is aware of the magnitude of his task. In his preface he gives a list of questions which the historian of culture should answer. These fill five pages, and range from, "Were the first men black, yellow, or white?" to "Has the Celt any natural fitness for free government?" and from "Was dress first used for ornament, for comfort, or for the gratification of modesty?" to "Is our moral code the product of intuitive perception, or of experience guided by reason?" With becoming modesty, he expresses the hope that his own answers to these questions, if not successful, may at least serve as stepping-stones to better solutions by-and-by.

Writing not for scholars, but for the public, Mr. Hittell is obviously held to four main requirements: simplicity of plan, a controlled abundance of interesting details, accuracy, and a lively style. He must consult the best authorities, but he is not bound to get all his materials at first hand, or to enlarge the domain of science. His business is to codify, to expound, and, meanwhile, to keep his readers awake. One of these requirements the author satisfies fully. He is seldom dull. He has read widely, he has considerable mental alertness, and he knows what will interest his audience. We may open any one of his volumes almost anywhere and be pretty sure of finding entertainment. His style, though not brilliant or always correct, is usually clear and straightforward, and has some vigor. We have observed but one instance in which his Pegasus has run quite away with him, and that is the peroration of his remarks on the uses of evil. We have space for only the closing words, which are to the effect that "material, moral, and intellectual progress, arm in arm with their congenial associate, general enjoyment, shall continue their glorious triumphal march, with speed increasing in geometrical ratio, so long as mankind shall exist." We venture to suggest that so swift an acceleration of a triumphal march would endanger its dignity.

Mr. Hittell divides culture into three grades, which he calls "culturesteps" (a hideous adaptation of *Kulturstufen*): savagism (another unpleasant word), barbarism, and civilization. "Barbarism," we are told, "is the condition of the Aztecs, Quichuans, ancient Egyptians, Phœnicians, Carthaginians, Persians, and Hindoos, the Chinese and the Mohammedan nations. They have cities and natural government, but lack a high intellectual life. Civilization is limited to the ancient Greeks and Romans and the modern Christian nations." This classification denies a high intellectual life to the authors of much respectable literature, including the Hebrew Scriptures, which Mr. Hittell himself calls "the most wonderful of books." It also puts the Aztecs and Quichuans into the same category with the Phœnicians and the Indo-Iranians. So weak an attempt at defining "culturesteps" as this does not encourage the reader to expect much method in the treatise that is to follow. And, indeed, this feebleness of grasp on important historical generalizations is a defect that defeats the whole purpose of the book. The historian of culture has to accumulate details, and to estimate, on the basis of these details, the degree of civilization which this or that people has attained. In this part of his task Mr. Hittell has not been uniformly successful, though his estimates are commonly not far astray. But the historian of culture has another and a far more difficult duty. He must define with clearness the contributions made to progress by various nations. He must explain the relations of nation to nation and of race to race so far as these relations have affected culture. He must grapple with problems of race-mixture, of migration not merely of races but of institutions, of the absorption of lesser civilizations by greater, of the lending and the borrowing of languages. And throughout these discussions he must never lose sight of his main purpose—to describe the progress of the human race and not merely of its parts. The great nations that have passed the torch on must be studied not merely for themselves or even as typical of different stages of social advancement, but as active, if unconscious, promoters of general enlightenment. Peoples which, like the Aztecs, have for any reason exerted no influence on the world at large, may be studied as types, no doubt, but must not be so treated as to interfere with the main plan of presentation.

Mr. Hittell would of course agree with all this; indeed, he expresses himself to much the same effect. But his control over details is not firm enough to enable him to keep these general principles always in mind, and his constructive skill is inadequate to the execution of so large and complicated a literary task. His "history" is, therefore, rather a collection of essays or cyclopædia articles than a unified work. The chapters that should introduce, sum up, connect, generalize, are scrappy and insufficient at best, and are sometimes left out altogether.

In the first volume, which deals with savage life, this fault, though not so conspicuous as it becomes later, is visible enough. The prefatory chapter treats of "Man's Antiquity," his "Simian Relations" (a trifle ambiguous!), and so on, very briefly, but it may serve well enough as an introduction. There follow interesting chapters on Ethnology, Industry, Social and Intellectual Life, Polity, Military System, and Religion, in which these matters are illustrated with an abundance of facts; but when it becomes necessary to give the results of the whole investigation, the author leaves us in the lurch. The summary at the end of the volume is both incomplete and rambling. It occupies but nineteen pages, and the titles of three consecutive divisions—"Departmental Relations," "Queer Customs," "Benefits of War"—indicate its discursive character. A similar fault shows itself in some of the preceding chapters. That on savage religion, for example, does not contain a clear statement of any theory of religious development except that which Mr. Hittell happens to hold, and even this is somewhat obscured by details. The discussion of marriage is similarly unsatisfactory.

In the second volume—"Heathen Barbarism"—the weakness just adverted to becomes marked, and its results are confusing and misleading to the last degree. The first chapter is entitled "Bronze." It consists of three sections: "Barbarism," "Bronze Tools," and "Superiority of Iron." The main points as to the connection between barbarism and bronze are given, but the reader must get at the significance of the facts as best he can. The chapters that follow show some curious ideas of proportion. To the Aztecs 42 pages of text are given; to the Quichuans, 28; to the Chinese, 42; to the Japanese, 5; to the Egyptians, 61; to the Celts, 10; to the Teutons and Etruscans, 5 each. These figures are eloquent. Mr. Hittell does not contend that either Aztec or Quichuan culture has had any effect on the progress of mankind; yet he gives to these two tribes together more than three times the space allotted to the Teutons, Celts, and Etruscans. He seems himself to suspect that there is something wrong in this. After dismissing the Teutons with their beggarly dole of pages, he remarks, apologetically: "This may seem a brief account of an ethnological family which unquestionably occupies the first place in the history of culture . . . ; but it must be remembered that not until after the Teutons had been brought under the influence of Rome did they show their great capacities and begin to exert a strong influence on other nationalities. Their glories belong to a later period." This is not to the point. We do not want a discussion of the glories of the Teutonic race. That may be deferred to one of the forthcoming works with which Mr. Hittell threatens us in his preface. What we require is an account of the culture and the religion of the ancient Germans that shall indicate what manner of men they were.

One may ask, too, when the Germans first came into contact with the Romans. Was it later than the time of the Conquest of Peru or the Conquest of Mexico? But the chronological limits of this second volume are hard to survey. The author actually defies time when, in the closing chapter, he remarks that "although we have studied the Chinese, Japanese, Aztecs, and Quichuans, who belong wholly or largely to modern times, and have considered the Celts and Teutons, who became prominent about the beginning of the Christian era, and have not yet taken up the Jews and Greeks, whose activity dates back to a period before the rise of Persia; yet, notwithstanding these inequalities in the chronological lines, the general story of human progress has now been brought down to 500 B. C." We must confess our inability to follow the turns and twists of a method like this. The real reason for the scant measure dealt to our Germanic ancestors we think we have discovered by a search in the notes and bibliography appended to the volume. The notes substitute for citations the significant remark: "In reference to the ancient Teutons, there is no one authority of superior comprehensiveness and accuracy." The bibliography contains the titles of no works on the subject except Prof. Anderson's 'Norse Mythology' and Mr. Du Chaillu's 'Viking Age.' Even so accessible a book as Prof. Gummere's excellent 'Germanic Origins' has escaped the notice of our historian of culture.

Another "feature" of this curious second volume is the section on the Primitive Aryans. This occupies (if one counts the notes) just four pages, and two of these are taken up by quotations from Max Müller's 'Chips.' The amateur of statistics might find amusement in instituting a few comparisons. We shall content ourselves with setting over against these four pages the five pages devoted to the "aggressive [foreign] policy" of the Quichuans. Again Mr. Hittell's notes and bibliography betray him. He knows nothing of Schrader, old edition or new. To him the Aryan migration is a migration of tribes, in all cases, never a "migration of culture." He has no inkling of the complicated questions, vitally important to the historian of civilization, which surround this whole matter. Fifty pages would have been none too many to give to the primitive Aryans, and the reader is put off with four. The defects of Mr. Hittell's method are again exemplified in the chapters on the Egyptians, the Ancient Indians, and the Persians. The space assigned to these peoples is sufficient, but the discussion of connections and interrelations is scanty. Thus, out of sixty pages on the Egyptians, but two pages are given to "Egypt's place" in the history of civilization. Again, in the chapter on the Hindus, one of the most important questions in comparative literature is dismissed with the unilluminating dictum: "'The Arabian Nights' and 'Æsop's Fables' are copied from the ancient books of the Hindu."

## ALLEN'S UNITARIAN MOVEMENT.

*An Historical Sketch of the Unitarian Movement since the Reformation.* [American Church History.] By Joseph Henry Allen, D.D., late Lecturer in Ecclesiastical History in Harvard University; Honorary Member of the Supreme Consistory of Transylvania. New York: The Christian Literature Co. 1894.

If the series of American Church Histories, of which this volume is the first instalment, is kept up to the level of Dr. Allen's 'Sketch,' it will be an extremely valuable addition to our present stock of careful information. Such a consummation, however devoutly to be wished, we hardly dare expect, for Dr. Allen was, by birth, experience, and culture, peculiarly well fitted for his task. One of a long line of clergymen exceptionally strong in Harvard names; the grandson of the elder Ware, whose election to the Hollis professorship in 1805 marked the accession of Harvard to the Unitarian movement; the son of a Unitarian minister, settled for life in Northboro', Mass., who was a typical representative of all the humbler virtues and fidelities of the New England country clergyman; a scholar second to no other in the Unitarian body, and one whose specialty has been the study of this body's origin and growth, loving its traditions, and devoted to its great names and high examples, while illustrating in himself the utmost freedom of its intellectual development—so qualified and conditioned, Dr. Allen possessed extraordinary fitness for the work of which the volume now before us is the ripe and pleasant fruit. In and between the lines one reads of the most liberal knowledge of the subject and the most careful special preparation. In the expression of his opinions and in his characterization of persons and events, the writer steadily observes the rule of naught in overplus. He brings a tempered admiration to the depiction of the men who, like Hedge and Bellows, have impressed him most. In no respect does his book differ so widely from the ordinary church history as in the entire absence of all extravagant laudation, all "booming" of his special cause. If we are not mistaken, many of his Unitarian friends will wish that his tone had been less disengaged, and many of his more orthodox readers will wonder that it could be so to such a remarkable degree. The action goes on without a chorus from the beginning to the end, and we are not disposed to question the wisdom of this arrangement.

> "Pleads for itself the fact,
> As unrepentant Nature leaves her every act."

It is certain that Dr. Allen has set down naught in malice, it is equally certain that he has extenuated nothing in his history.

The first chapter, which treats of the reformers Valdés and Ochino and related matters, suffers from the scarcity of our knowledge and the vagueness of the first tentative departures from the theology of Rome, with which Luther had no quarrel save in the one particular of salvation by faith alone. Evidently there was in the sixteenth century a great variety of departures from the orthodox standard, some of which, without the severe repression of both Catholics and Protestants, might have become vigorous growths.

In his second chapter Dr. Allen confines himself to Servetus, with whom he deals much more sympathetically than with the Socini, especially the younger, in the chapter following. This is because Servetus had more of the free intellect, less of the dry, thin, rationalizing temper of the Socinian founders. There is no exaggeration of the circumstances of Servetus's death nor undue emphasis upon them. Calvin's action received wide Protestant endorsement. He would have had Servetus beheaded. But evidently his death was determined, as it was threatened, in advance of the trial, and Calvin did his best to make the Roman Inquisition do his dreadful work. Very grim is the humor of his 'Refutation' of Servetus after his death, where he writes how he had hoped that his errors "would soon vanish of themselves in smoke." To the criticism of the Bible, Servetus brought an intelligence that was remarkable for his time. His insistence that the Old Testament predictions dealt with immediate events went nigh to anticipate the views of Dr. Noyes in 1834, for which a prosecution was threatened. His departure from the orthodox doctrine of the Trinity has never met with favor among Unitarians. It was of that Sabellian type, panoplied in which Moses Stuart of Andover went forth to war against the Unitarians of Channing's time, and whose vaguer adumbrations are sufficient to sustain the consciousness of orthodoxy among the "progressive orthodox" of our own day. Servetus shared the Anabaptist distrust of infant baptism as something magical in its operation, and nothing will more commend him to the modern heart than the wonderfully tender prayer concerning children which Dr. Allen quotes (p. 44). Contemporary Calvinists will find no fault with Dr. Allen's treatment of Calvin. We have something very like an apology for his conduct in the plea that tolerance of Servetus might have jeoparded the Reformation's hard-won liberties.

Coming to the Socini, Lælius and Faustus, the uncle (Lælius) has for Dr. Allen, as for Dr. Alexander Gordon, the most careful English student on these lines, the more attractive personality. His temper was more sceptical than dogmatic, and he had nothing of the constructive temper of his nephew Faustus, who was twenty-three years old when his uncle died, in 1562. What the nephew essayed was to bring the whole system of orthodox dogma into comparison with the New Testament, and build up a system over against that of Calvin, which should have chapter and verse, without traditional corruption, wherewith to support itself. A career of singular nobility does not atone with Dr. Allen for the dryness of his intellect, his lack of emotional ardor, spiritual fire. (To the early Socinians generally Dr. Allen brings the same distrust, which does not seem in perfect keeping with his well-considered admiration of the "Racovian Catechism" (1605), the best expression of their own and their leader's thought.) His relations with Francis David, the Transylvanian Unitarian, cast the deepest shadow on his fame. These Dr. Allen passes over too lightly. Socinus insisted on the worship of Jesus *as* God, because, while he was truly man, God had given him "a name above all names" in recognition of his glorious life and death. David would worship God alone, and consequently he was thrown into a dungeon, in which he shortly died. Socinus was summoned from Poland, by the wretched Blandrata, who was a conspicuous Socinian, both in Poland and Transylvania, to take part in the affair. His part is not clear; but the whole miserable business is one for Unitarians to remember when they are disposed to deal severely with Calvin's treatment of Servetus.

The subject of Dr. Allen's fourth chapter is the heroic martyr age of Polish Unitarianism. (The name first appears in 1568.) That the Unitarian college at Rakow had, at one time, about one thousand pupils, is one sign of many of the vigorous development of Socinian Unitarianism on Polish soil. A succession of Jesuit rulers, culminating in John Casimir, a Jesuit cardinal, brought this development to naught. For once, at least, the blood of the martyrs was not the seed of the church. An edict of exile was passed in 1658 to take effect in 1661, but it was enforced in 1660. As compared with the exile of the Huguenots from France, this was much more desperate and cruel; for the Huguenots had Protestant friends abroad, but these had none at all. A few were well received in Brandenburg. In 1730 eleven families of these were left. In 1838 two old men were the poor, feeble remnant of a sect which at one time had the promise of dominating all others in the kingdom of Poland.

A chapter on Transylvania gains much in interest from the fact that Dr. Allen has studied the Unitarianism of that country not merely in books, but as a traveller visiting the scenes of its tragedies and successes, and making the acquaintance of its modern representatives. The name of Francis David is their most honored name. Here, too, the Jesuit persecution was effective, but the triumph of a conservative temper was hardly less damaging. Where there were 425 congregations under David's preaching, there are now but 106. The whole story is full of interest and instruction, and it is told extremely well; the figure of David standing out with mournful grandeur against the darkness of a fierce and troubled time.

The history of English Unitarianism is rich in names of much more than sectarian repute —Milton, Locke, Newton, Penn, Clarke, Priestley, Martineau. With respect to Martineau, Dr. Allen makes a marked exception to his avoidance of living persons as subjects of characterization, allowing himself the pleasure of a liberal appreciation. Dr. Martineau contributes a letter which is printed as an appendix. Personally he is a Unitarian, but he does

not believe in Unitarian churches or other organizations. When Unitarianism began to organize itself (1774), he thinks that it surrendered its birthright. But there is little evidence that the movement by any other name would have been more liberal or more sympathetic with the best in other sects. As a movement of thought in sympathy with science, and a movement of ethics in sympathy with reform, Unitarianism, both in England and America, owes much to Priestley, and it has been generally true to his initiative; but, while Martineau appreciated the spirit of the Slave Power as clearly as his sister Harriet, he was one of the most perverse in his interpretation of the issues of our civil war.

Dr. Allen's chapter on the antecedents of New England Unitarianism is good work, and shows his stomach for statistics at its best. Everywhere it is a stomach that assimilates them and does not leave them crude and undigested for the torment of his page. But as he comes down nearer to our own time in the following chapters, he is, if not more instructive, much more entertaining, for he speaks that which he personally knows, and testifies to that which he has seen. He has a remarkable aptitude for sketching the characters of the men whom he has known, in a few lively strokes. On pp. 203–205 there are nearly a dozen of these portraits, which could not be better done. Emerson is made one of the goodly fellowship without any forcing of the note, so long he kept up the habit of preaching in Unitarian pulpits after his Boston resignation (1832), and so modestly he at length took his position as a layman in the Concord meeting-house. There is more emphasis on Parker, setting his relation to his Boston brethren in the clearest light, but we note the singular omission of any mention of Parker's anti-slavery work; and this extends to the whole period. That the words slavery and anti-slavery do not occur in the index might only mean that it is not complete, as it is not; but neither, with one exception, do we find them in the text, while the part taken by Unitarians in the civil war has liberal allowance. Even the characterizations of John Pierpont, Samuel J. May, and Freeman Clarke contain no allusions to their most significant endeavors. These omissions give the denomination a worse appearance than it deserves.

The gradual development of various denominational agencies is lucidly set forth. The avoidance of living persons sometimes effects a palpable injustice, as where Weiss and Wasson are named as representatives of the Free Religious Association, and Abbot, Frothingham, and Potter, who signified an hundred times as much for it, are entirely left out. Mr. Potter's death some months ago should have given him the freedom of Dr. Allen's book, for no other has so well expressed the later Unitarian thought. The details of p. 235 and those of p. 236 are related as cause and effect, but there was no such relation in the events. The "Western Issue" was inspired by theological timidity, not by the dread of moral laxity, for the prevention of which a system of "Committees on Fellowship" was organized. It is an interesting comment on some recent signs of impatience with the Unitarian name that of 444 churches only 197 at present bear that name; the others, with two or three exceptions, never having borne it. That of 510 living ministers more than 100 were educated in other forms of belief, would seem to indicate a certain tide in the affairs of men.

Dr. Allen's style is generally as direct as possible, but we seem to have a satirical intention in the sentence which speaks of the orthodoxy of the Andover School as "protected by the periodical signing of its creed by each of its instructors."

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*A Traveller from Altruria.* By W. D. Howells. Harper & Bros.

SEVERAL of Mr. Howells's recent works have indicated his serious mental perturbation about our social conditions; his latest shows that he finds respite in the beautiful dream of that day when we shall all literally do unto others as we would be done by. With his customary literary skill, he heightens the fairness of the vision by a prefatory picture of the conspicuously ugly features of our actual state. Much the larger part of his book is given to a discussion of the difference between theory and practice in the American Republic, and here Mr. Howells speaks the thoughts of many men of his time with that clearness, force, and vivacity which have made his fame as a novelist; in the shorter part, the description of Altruria, he speaks the thoughts of Jesus Christ with graftings from Sir Thomas More, Bacon, and William Morris, all fused by that sweet though vague imagination which gives him some claim to sit among the poets.

From beginning to end the tide of his sympathy flows violently with the workingman, by which term is distinctly understood the man who works with his hands. "Goodness of nature," said the versatile and in practice scarcely Christlike Bacon, "is of all virtues and dignities of the mind the greatest, being the character of the Deity; and without it man is a busy, mischievous, wretched thing, no better than a kind of vermin." Mr. Howells seems to argue on the mistaken assumption that goodness of nature has its permanent and exclusive abiding-place only in the breast of the workingman, and that there can be no hope of its acquisition by others until we enter into a political condition where all shall work with their hands for at least three or four hours a day. We are not obliged to call upon history to testify that manual labor is not necessarily a purifier of the spirit and sure means of grace, nor to prove that the laborer, like the capitalist, may not on occasion show himself a mischievous, wretched thing, and a peculiarly harmful kind of vermin. It is well that we have not to fly to the historical argument for succor, for that is the argument conspicuously flouted by the socialist. Mr. Howells even scorns the argument from human nature; but he cannot be said to justify this scorn. There is, however, one historical precedent which the socialist professedly cherishes and declares to be the model of his ideal state. The traveller from Altruria dwells upon it. It is the tradition of the early Christian republics or communities. Without pretending to any accurate knowledge of these early communities, we have an impression that they were small and scattered and very poor, that they were held together by fear of persecution as much as by mutual love, and that, as this fear was lifted, the members began to drift apart, and each one to look out for his own interests. If the cases are to be paralleled, why is it not lawful to suppose that when the tyranny of capital shall have been abolished and all material distinctions levelled, when persecution and oppression and fear shall have become obsolete words, there may be another separation, degenerating again into an individual scramble for individual aggrandizement? The Altrurian of course would assert that this could not be, because human nature would have changed; so, as it had changed in Altruria, we look to him confidently for an explanation of how the change came about. But he fails us sadly. "I wish," he says, "that I had time to go into a study of some of the curious phases of the transformation from a civility in which the people lived *upon* each other to one in which they lived *for* each other." This lack of time is indeed to be regretted, because we feel that the secret of the transformation lies in those "curious phases," and that, understanding them, we should also understand how a proletariat which had long been in the voting majority and had persistently elected corrupt and vicious men to control public affairs, suddenly swung about and elected honest and virtuous men, and kept on electing them, till even the most hardened of former oppressors praised God that the old order had passed away for ever.

But such demand for detailed information is unfair to Mr. Howells speaking as a poet. We should enjoy the fabric of a vision without inquiring too closely about the solidity of its base. Less captious is it to ask whether he is not, for once, at fault as an observer of American life in some trifling social matters. Though the literary class in America is far from guiltless of the charge of kotowing to wealth and fashion, we hope it would be hard to find in it so arrant a snob and cad as the host of the courteous and childlike Altrurian. What man of sense (not to mention of letters) ever cared for five minutes whether his friend helped a porter with a trunk or not, or ever went into hysterics because the same friend took a turn at bootblacking? Moved by Mr. Howells's severe and on the whole just arraignment of the American nation, we must defend it in these small details. It has frequently been our privilege to see men representing the classes, gathered together at that mountain hotel, lend a hand with heavy trunks without exciting surprise or censure. And, as for bootblacking, had Mr. Howells got on the scent, he would probably have unearthed in that very hotel several young ladies, daughters of his banker or lawyer, who carry about with them them the needful implements, and not only exercise their muscle on their own foot-gear, but also cordially proffer a "shine" to an unskilled friend, who would otherwise be obliged to put up with the blotchy performance of the despised and oppressed menial who, "on account of inadequate wages," is "compelled to accept a tip" for his more inadequate services. We linger on these insignificant defects in observation, not for their own sake, but because they lead us to hope that in graver affairs we may also be less black than Mr. Howells has painted us.

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*Rudin.* By Ivan Turgenev. Translated from the Russian by Constance Garnett. New York: Macmillan.

A NEW translation of Turgeneff's novels direct from the Russian has long been desired by those who are acquainted with them in the original. There has not even been uniformity to recommend the versions of the various volumes which have hitherto been accessible to the English-reading public. Some of them were made through the medium of the German, some through that of the French translations or "arrangements," and the result was truly appalling, both as to style and as to errors. For several years past efforts have been made to induce some American publisher to undertake this greatly needed work in the standard

literature of the world, but without avail. An English firm, that of W. Heinemann, has had the laudable enterprise to begin the issue of a set of seven volumes, of which 'Rudin' is the first.

Despite the advantage of direct translation, we sadly miss the exquisite phrasing of the beautiful Russian tongue, which was music itself from Turgeneff's lips. Of the story we need say nothing: its main features are familiar. Rudin, the hero, is the sort of man, common in other lands besides Russia, who is endowed with the gift of empty eloquence which charms all undiscriminating hearers—and nothing more. His life is barren of fruits; he dies, uselessly, in a vain cause. Stepniak, the revolutionary writer, who furnishes an interesting preface to the new series, adding remarks about Rudin in particular, seems, however, to claim him more particularly for Russia, as the typical man of the epoch of 1840. His comments on the little circles of that day, whose members worshipped at the shrine of one of their own number, are very helpful for the foreigner who desires fully to understand the significance of Turgeneff's creation. Equally so are the suggestions as to the reason why Turgeneff was earlier appreciated abroad than at home, though we are inclined to believe that Stepniak exaggerates in this respect through loyalty to hospitable foreign lands, as opposed to his native land, where he can no longer live, and which he is rather too much in the habit of underrating in most respects. We should like to commend to him and his sympathizers a paragraph in this very book, which he professes to admire so much:

"Rudin's misfortune is that he does not understand Russia, and that, certainly, is a great misfortune. Russia can do without every one of us, but not one of us can do without her. Woe to him who thinks he can, and woe twofold to him who actually does do without her. Cosmopolitanism is all twaddle; the cosmopolitan is a nonentity—worse than a nonentity. Without nationality there is no art, nor truth, nor life, nor anything. You cannot even have an ideal face without individual expression; only a vulgar face can be devoid of it."

The translation seems faithful, too faithful in the matter of punctuation in many instances to render the sense clear to English readers. The constant use of . . . is thoroughly Russian, but not admissible in English as a substitute for the dash in most of the cases where it is used here. The inconvenience of its use, even in Russian, is great, as it is the punctuation which is intended to indicate that the censor's office has eliminated disloyal or displeasing passages. There is no question of anything of that sort here; but the pointing is suggestive and unpleasant to our unaccustomed eyes. The principle observed in the transliteration of proper names is not very easy of comprehension. The final Russian *v*, followed by the symbol which hardens the pronunciation, is rendered as *v* in English—Turgenev, Lezhynov, and so forth. But Bassistoff, which terminates in the same way, is reproduced in the conventional manner which represents the sound, while the *s* is doubled, as never happens in Russian.

The most serious defect of the translation lies in its awkward, infelicitous phrases, which sometimes amount to bad grammar. From internal evidence it would seem as though Miss Garnett must have been born of English parents in Russia, and reared there, speaking English as her auxiliary, not her native tongue. We will content ourselves with a number of quotations, occasionally supplying the missing words or the proper form in brackets. "She is too weak; [it is] impossible to move her." "Hospitals, schools, and all that sort of things, are mere waste of time." "Why were you asking your way of that girl, am I to suppose?" "There is hardly any one more [else]." "There is one other of our neighbors." "I [have] purposely refrained from questioning you until now." "Volintsev had got on to curious terms with him." "In everything wise design and beauty seemed apparent, everything took [assumed] a clear and yet mystic significance." "It was a soft and peaceful evening, but under this peace was felt [could be felt] the secret breath of passion." "But up to this time I [have] believed in you." "He got up, buttoning himself up." "This letter proved to her clearer than all possible arguments." "He behaved . . . just as if he had not been [were not] a living man, but his own statue set up by public subscription." In the sentence: "a rosy-cheeked lad in a gray cloak, with a blue sash round the waist," the word should be coat, or caftan, not cloak. All these mistakes are precisely of the sort which Russians commit in writing English, and it is to be hoped that the following volumes will receive severe revision as to language and punctuation, for the comfort of the public, who will find this volume rather rough, unsatisfactory reading, notwithstanding its manifest excellences in other directions. This respect is certainly due to Turgeneff, who loses more than almost any other writer in losing his own language.

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*Geschichte der Musik in England.* Von Dr. Wilibald Nagel. Erster Theil. Strassburg: K. J. Trübner; New York: Westermann.

BRIEFLY stated, the object of Dr. Nagel's book is to show that England was not always in the van as regards musical culture and progress. He begins with the earliest records and intends to end with Purcell, "the last great English composer whose works, in part at least, have an unmistakable English coloring." The Handel period has, he thinks, been treated with sufficient detail by Chrysander, while "the English musical culture of recent decades is rooted almost exclusively in German soil."

With all his industry and erudition, Dr. Nagel does not succeed in removing the feeling that our only certain knowledge about the practice of English music in the earliest historic times is that we know very little about it. Yet there are a few scattered intimations that music played a great rôle in social life long before Shakspere's time; such as Beda's statement (eighth century) that at banquets the harp went from hand to hand, and that if a guest was unable to sing, he left the hall ashamed of himself. In the eighth century also are found the first certain traces of the use of organs in churches, whereas Spain had them in the fifth. Dr. Nagel considers it beyond doubt that it was from Germany that England got her first organ, and he mentions the odd fact that at one time letters were written on the keys to enable the player the more readily to recognize the key called for. The earliest organs had a compass of only one octave, and quantity of sound was obviously more valued than quality; at least Wulston describes an instrument which made a noise like thunder and was audible all over town.

In a chapter on the theorists, our author himself is obliged to admit that their writings confirm Vischer's assertion that the science of æsthetics is still in its infancy, and that "in the æsthetic wisdom of the mediæval theorists, apart from J. de Muris, nothing is more remarkable than the rigid persistence with which one repeats what another had said before him." The technical remarks in this chapter are intelligible only to those who have some acquaintance with the history of musical notation and polyphony; but in general the author has kept the promise made in the preface that he would relegate to the appendix such details as interest specialists only. In some aspects human nature and musical practices and abuses were the same in those early days as now. John of Salisbury complains that the main object of the singers was to make the congregation admire their technical skill by adorning ecclesiastic melodies with runs, and Tunstede says that the vanity of these singers was so great that when they had executed a piece particularly well, they would turn round to make sure that the auditors were properly impressed.

In common with all champions of English music, Dr. Nagel makes much of "Sumer is icumen in," which, being the oldest known canon, seems to indicate that the English were the first to introduce the important device of imitation in music. The inference is a bold and risky one, but has never been disproved. On pages 79, 80 some very interesting remarks are quoted on the part which the yodle and mountain echoes may have played in suggesting imitation and canonic form in music. A sentence on p. 83 indicates that Dr. Nagel, in common with many German writers, makes the mistake of classing the Flemish composer Lassus (Orlando Lasso) among Germans. On the same page we read about the great influence which English instrumental music had on the Continent; a claim which seems scarcely substantiated by the subsequent chapter on this department of music.

Minstrelsy is discussed at considerable length, a distinction being made between minstrels who were regularly connected with some court and those who had no master but wandered whither they pleased. There seems to be reliable evidence that in England as in France minstrels were also occasionally employed in churches. But the Church did not usually look on them with favor. Some of the opposition was based merely on the objection to the use in church of other instruments than the organ; but the real animus of the clerical enmity to the minstrels is to be traced to the bounteous rewards which some of the nobles heaped on them, and which the Church would not have refused itself. Hence Johannes de Sarisberia chides them: "In histriones et hujusmodi monstra hominum ob famæ redemptionem et dilationem nominis effunditis opes vestras!" And there was some cause for these complaints of extravagance. For a performance at Westminster in 1306, for instance, each of the minstrels received from 40 to 65 shillings, at a time when workmen received a penny for a day's work. A real artistic musical activity did not prevail at an English court before Henry VIII., during whose sumptuous reign "church service in England became a concert performance," to the great scandal of the pious.

Dr. Nagel regrets that the subject of music in its best period is ignored by Green in his 'History of the English People,' and incidentally he puts in a good word for Scherr's 'History of English Literature,' which the German savants affect to look down on because it combines the unpardonable virtues of vivacity and imagination with erudition. As for our author's own style, it is, as a rule, clear enough, without being conspicuously elegant. Not infrequently he falls into the German vice of trying to cram several sentences into one, as in the following

warning example: "Indem sich die Kirche ängstlich vor der im Volke traditionell lebenden Kunst (es ist mehr als wahrscheinlich, dass die Volksmusiker erst durch die fahrenden Kleriker eine Notenschrift kennen lernten; ihre Unkenntniss einer solchen schliesst das frühere Vorhandensein nationaler Tonschriften nicht aus) abzusperren suchte," etc.—wherein the verb is separated from the noun it ought to follow by two complete parenthetical sentences!

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*Essays and Criticisms.* By St. George Mivart, F.R.S. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 8vo., 2 vols., pp. 472, 461.

A BOOK like this is a valuable acquisition to the library of any thoughtful man. Few can turn its leaves without meeting something that will profitably fix their attention. Variety, comprehensiveness, and vigor make it generally attractive. In particular it will attract philosophical students, especially such as interest themselves in the literature of evolution. With depth and originality of thought, and a clear and forceful style, the author gives evidence of an amount and diversity of information that comes as a surprise to those who have made his acquaintance only through his zoological writings. Essays, reviews, and criticisms on history, politics, psychology, travel, evolution, education, origin of species or of faculties, church matters, life, growth, heredity, selection, force, energy, volition, tastes, emotions, and other topics, from various sources of original publication, make up these bulky volumes. To say that they are those of a devoted Catholic, of a conservative in regard to modern evolutionary theories, and one who holds it to be impossible that the mind of man should have developed from that of a lower vertebrate, will to some extent suggest the principal bias in discussion. A limit to the evolution of all creatures lower than mankind appears, according to this author, in a difference in kind, not in degree, that divides them from men—a something altogether new, the capacity for apprehending abstract ideas, that first appeared on earth with the coming of man. Like his opponents, Mr. Mivart cannot imagine the distinct origin of man; but, he continues, inability to imagine is no ground whatever for not believing a thing if reason supplies good evidence in its favor. That the reason-provided evidence is sometimes based on assumptions or imaginings is one of the severest criticisms to be brought against the book. An impassable gulf is asserted between the lower vertebrates and men; but, after being taught the necessity of what may be called a soul in addition to the physical existence of the living creature, and that the higher forms have been evolved from lower through variation due to internal reactions or tendencies induced by external stimuli, a reader is not satisfied arbitrarily to stop development at sense perceptions, so called, and say that advances in the direction of the self-consciousness and reason of man are impossible and inconceivable.

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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 16, 1894.*

## The Week.

WE abate nothing from our abhorrence of the surrender of both houses of Congress for the time being to an odious monopoly when we say that the passage of some tariff bill at the present time was necessary to the prosperity of the country. People must earn their bread and butter in sunshine and in rain, in storm and in calm. We might have dragged on another twelvemonth in the same mire that we have wallowed in for eighteen months, and yet have been no nearer victory. The unprincipled Trust that has had the national Legislature by the throat ever since the tariff bill went into the Senate, would not let go its hold by mere lapse of time, since its profits were as great under the McKinley act as under the Senate contrivance, if not greater. For this reason we have no censure for those members of the House who finally decided to accept the Senate amendments. We should have preferred to fight on till the people could pronounce their verdict upon Gorman, Brice, Smith, and Camden, but we acknowledge the force of Chairman Wilson's speech in which he said that he had done everything in his power, and that he could do no more—he could not even hold his own supporters together any longer. We cannot ask impossibilities of any man. Therefore, while we should have voted with Mr. Cockran and Mr. Warner if we had had a vote to give, we have nothing but praise for Mr. Wilson, who has proved himself a just and able and brave man throughout this long contest, and has actually sacrificed his health in his eagerness to do his duty.

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The bill that has finally passed is a considerable improvement on the McKinley tariff. It reduces the protective duties fully 25 per cent. on the average, and, what is even more important at this time, it puts the Government in funds. It restores the Treasury balance and thereby assures the continuance of gold payments. We have all the time considered the Treasury situation the darkest cloud on the business horizon. The behavior of Congress in this matter has been simply brutal. That body has seen the gold balance slipping away, and the general balance dropping from week to week and month to month, and has refused to pass any law to enable the secretary to borrow on easy terms, thus compelling him to borrow $50,000,000 on hard terms. Every railroad corporation in the United States, and every municipal corporation, has the power to make temporary loans in emergencies like that which befell the national Treasury. It was by oversight merely that the national Treasury was not empowered to do the same thing. Yet when the secretary and the President asked for power to make a two or three-year loan at a low rate of interest (perhaps 2 or 2½ per cent.), Congress turned a deaf ear and compelled a ten-year loan at a higher rate. As the national Treasury is the keeper of the ultimate cash reserve of the nation, holding, in this respect, the place held by the banks of England, France, and Germany in those countries, its condition was the barometer read by the business community from day to day. The insensibility of Congress to that condition was accordingly the heaviest weight that business men had to carry. All of that load is now lifted, for although it will take some time for the new law to get in operation, there will be a gain from the very first, and it will be helped by the upstarting of trade in all directions.

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That the Treasury, as well as general business, will experience prompt relief from the passage of a tariff bill is clear from the amount of goods now in bonded warehouses. The last number of the *Financial Chronicle* states the value of dutiable goods in bond, on June 30, as $43,182,922—$5,000,000 more than a year before, and $15,000,000 more than on the same date in 1892. The amount must have considerably increased since June 30, as importers have sent everything to bond not required to fill actual orders. With duties pouring into the Treasury on withdrawals of these and on the fresh importations which will doubtless speedily take on new volume, our financial corner will be turned. With a bigger balance at command, Mr. Carlisle will not have to lie awake nights thinking about the gold exports and the narrowing reserve behind our fiat silver certificates. In fact, the era of business prosperity which is now inevitable, unless ex-President Harrison succeeds in his fixed determination to hold it off, will do a great deal to ease up the theoretical as well as practical difficulties of the silver question. If men are conscious that they and the country are not ruined, they will not be button-holed off into a corner by the bimetallists to hear an elaborate explanation of how they came to be ruined.

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The *American Manufacturer* of Pittsburgh notes an increasing demand for pig-iron. The month of August, it says, "opens up very auspiciously for something like a return to a normal rate of pig-iron production. Following up the gain, at July 1, of 21,110 tons, August has a further and increased gain of 27,977 tons in the weekly rate of production. The reaction towards heavier production is sharper than it was on July 1, and comes in some measure from all the furnaces, but especially from those which have been enabled to resume by reason of renewing their receipts of coke from the disturbed Connellsville region." The reduction of the duty on pig-iron to $4 per ton by the Senate bill does not seem to have any terrors for the producers in this country. There is little reason why it should when the cheapest English pig sells for $8.62 per ton at home, the corresponding grade at Pittsburgh selling for $10. Bessemer pig is now quoted at $11.05 in England and at $12.25 in Pittsburgh. The Senate duty is strictly prohibitory. The duty of 10 per cent. ad-valorem in the House bill, added to freight and other charges, would have been ample for protection, and would have afforded some relief to the iron industry of New England.

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The wool trade has started into fresh activity, and prices have advanced 10 per cent. There is a sudden demand for woollen goods in consequence, as buyers know that an advance in the raw material must be followed by an improvement in the finished product. The Boston *Journal of Commerce* takes a cheerful view of the situation as to domestic goods, and says that the recent depression has led manufacturers to improve their designs, so that they now produce a grade of goods superior to anything that has ever before been made in this country. "The last year," it says, "has seen a wonderful advance in this direction, and it has been brought about largely by the dull times. Had our markets been ready to take the goods that were made last year as fast as produced, our manufacturers would have been satisfied to have followed in the same old track, or nearly so, as before; but, with a sensitive market, they have been compelled to try to produce a superior class of goods, one which the market would prefer to those of their competitors; and as a consequence the style and finish of our goods this season are far ahead of anything previously attempted." The Home Market Club ought to make a note of this. There are better ways to secure and retain the home market than a protective tariff. Foreign markets are sometimes achieved by skill and economy also. It is a fact of some importance that we are exporting more carpets to England at the present time than we are importing from that country.

It has been highly significant to note that the most strenuous efforts of the Sugar Trust, its impudent interference with legislation, have been made not to secure the one-eighth cent differential, but a change from specific to ad-valorem rates. Thus, Mr. Havemeyer testified (June 12) as follows.

"I went to Senator Vest. . . . I had my sugar samples, to which I have already referred, with me, and opened them before him, in his house, and showed him how indispensable it was to the sugar-refining industry of this country that if any duty was to be assessed on sugar it should be under the ad-valorem system, and not any uniform or specific rate. . . .

"The Chairman—What occurred between you and Senator Caffery?

"Mr. Havemeyer—The substance of what I have already testified to, as to what took place on the subject of raw and refined between myself, Jones, Vest, and Brice, except the absence of the samples. I endeavored to show him that it was to the advantage of Louisiana to have the form of duty ad valorem, irrespective of what the rate was. Mr. Caffery told me that he was satisfied his people wanted specific rates."

Mr. Havemeyer testified also that Senators Gorman and Brice "appeared to apprehend the subject better than anybody else," meaning the advantages of ad-valorem over specific rates. This is altogether likely.

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Senator Caffery's speech is even more to the point than Mr. Havemeyer's testimony. The Senator said that the finance committee agreed, after much labor, to a specific duty ranging from one cent for 80° sugar up to 1.26c. for 98°, with ⅛c. additional for refined. "That schedule," said the Senator, "conceded nothing whatever in favor of the Sugar Trust more than what appeared on its face. It was with reluctance accepted by the people of my State. They thought that by economy, by better methods of extraction and evaporation and even of agriculture, they could get along with that." What happened next? Mr. Caffery met Senator Gorman in the Senate doorway, and the latter said to him: "That schedule means free sugar." It happened oddly enough that Senator Brice made the same remark. Why did it mean free sugar? Because the specific schedule was "unacceptable to the refining interest," as Senator Jones explained. All the Republican Senators would vote for free sugar as a party issue, and then a few votes on the Democratic side would suffice to put raw sugar on the free list without any bounty. By this threat was Mr. Caffery driven to support the deceitful ad-valorem rate. Well might Senator Caffery ask: "What occult power is it which has the force to change a fair schedule adopted after long deliberation? What subtle influence is it which is pervading the Senate, that can strike down the agriculturist and uphold the interests of what is called a Trust?"

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The withdrawal of the militia from Chicago may be said to be the dropping of the curtain upon the great drama that has been enacted there. So quickly does public interest shift from one theme to another that this event has aroused but little attention; and yet it will be watched by careful observers with considerable anxiety. There must be a large number of men on the verge of starvation in consequence of their own folly and the crimes of their leaders, and it remains to be seen whether these men are disposed to resort again to violence. Several attacks upon workmen occurred upon the withdrawal of the troops, and the situation at Pullman will continue to be critical for some time to come.

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The injunctions issued by the courts against the members of labor unions are more and more sweeping in character. Judge Dugro of the Superior Court of this city last week enjoined the members of the Journeymen Tailors' Union, on strike against a reduction of wages, from assembling or loitering near their employers' places of business, from maintaining "a system of patrol, picketing, or espionage," and from all other acts tending to hinder their employers from carrying on business. The order goes even further, and specifically restrains the defendants from interfering by means of published circulars or notices, or by signs or menaces of any kind, intended to prevent workmen from seeking employment from the plaintiffs. It also prohibits "enticing" any one from the employment of the plaintiffs. The terms of this order are broader than those of the restraining orders recently issued by the United States courts in the West. It is doubtful if they are not too broad. It is one thing to threaten a man with violence if he goes to work, and quite another to entice him away from it, although the trade-union methods sometimes suggest the Irishman's "enticing with a club." We need not go back to the policy of the statutes against laborers in our zeal for restraining trade unions. Recent English decisions have drawn the line very sharply between what may and what may not be done by laborers on strike, and we believe that they are to the effect that neither "enticing" nor picketing is unlawful. It may not be desirable to follow these decisions, especially in regard to picketing, but they are deserving of consideration.

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The North Carolina Democrats have adopted a platform which combines folly and good sense. The commendation of the Administration is expressed in unusually good English for a political platform. The President's action in checking anarchy at Chicago, his sturdy efforts to secure tariff reform and a reduction in the cost of government, and the freedom from scandal which has marked his administration, are specifically and distinctly praised. But when the talismanic word silver was mentioned, the mental balance of the delegates could not be preserved. They want equal privileges for the despised and downtrodden metal at the United States mint. "Free and unlimited coinage of both gold and silver at a ratio of 16 to 1, such being the ratio of coinage which has heretofore held in the United States," is the demand of these enlightened financiers. The truth is, that silver is coming to occupy a position something like that of the negro during the days when the "bloody shirt" was waved. That was a picturesque and righteous grievance, enjoyed by Northern politicians exclusively, and the Southerners have not had any really good and satisfactory cause to sympathize with for a good while. But silver is just the thing. It is a kind of peg upon which to hang denunciations of capitalistic greed and unrighteous laws and unjust discriminations, combined with expressions of tender regard for the poor and oppressed. No platform-maker feels happy without a plank of this kind. A few years ago the "bloated bondholder" answered the purpose. Now it is silver, and in a few years it will be something else equally factitious.

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One of the most encouraging aspects of the Democratic victory in Alabama is the support it gives to the forces of law and order. The Republican-Populist fusion not only stood for free silver and general demoralization, but specifically attempted to make political capital out of the severe labor troubles from which the State has suffered. Gov. Jones had shown great firmness and energy in putting down riotous strikers by the use of troops. He had given especial offence to the Kolbites by guarding with State troops some negro miners who had taken the places of white strikers. During the campaign a story was put in circulation that Col. Oates, the Democratic candidate for Governor, would be another Jones, and would shoot down lawless strikers. So far from being frightened at this report was Col. Oates that he took occasion flatly to affirm that he would shoot down defiant law-breakers, strikers or not. This manly declaration was nuts to the politicians on the other side, who then had the colonel "just where they wanted him," and were going to beat him by many thousands of votes. But the extra thousands mostly went his way, the result indicating that many Republicans must have refused the ticket urged upon them by Senator Hoar.

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An interesting question on the subject of State constitutional changes in New

York has come up at Albany in connection with the proposed amendments in regard to the suffrage. One of these amendments provides that at the general election succeeding the one at which the amended Constitution shall be voted on by the people, the question of striking out the word "male" from the suffrage section shall be submitted separately, and that, in case of a favorable vote on that proposition, women shall thereafter vote at all elections upon the same qualifications and conditions as are prescribed to male citizens. The peculiarity of this amendment is, that it is proposed to submit it to a popular vote without having its merits passed upon at all by the Constitutional Convention, and the point has been raised that this course is itself unconstitutional, one student of the question expressing himself as follows:

"Such is not the method of amending the Constitution provided by the existing Constitution. The very object of a written constitution, or any constitution, is to protect the general organic law from being changed at any time by the mere expression of the will of the majority. The Constitution itself, and the act of 1893 creating the present convention, both provide that the province of the convention is 'to revise and amend the constitution.' It has no other powers whatever. It seems to me that it has no *moral* right at least to do indirectly what it cannot do directly."

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There is involved in this subject the old question whether an amendment of the fundamental law, when once accepted by the people on a popular vote, does not become a part of that law, regardless of any informalities in the way in which it has reached a vote of the people. Good constitutional lawyers, like the late Charles O'Conor, have held that an affirmative vote by the people is sufficient and final. Our State Constitution itself is very indefinite in regard to the ratification of amendments prepared by a constitutional convention. It provides specifically, with regard to amendments proposed by the Legislature, that, before they are referred to the people, they must be "agreed to by a majority of the members elected to each of the two houses" (of two legislatures). Section 2, article 13, which provides for constitutional conventions, is utterly silent as to the manner in which such a convention shall decide upon constitutional changes, not even providing that a vote of the people shall be necessary to their ratification. This has permitted the point to be raised that the action of the convention on amendments might be considered final if the Legislature had not provided by law for submitting them to a popular vote.

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The failure of the corn crop in portions of Kansas and Nebraska has produced great distress, and we read that people are abandoning their withered farms and moving eastward to find places where they can procure subsistence. Others, who have lost only half their crop, are staying at home, hoping for better times next year. There has been no suggestion from any quarter that these poor people should have a bounty from the national Treasury or that the great principle of protection should be set in motion for their benefit. Yet it is difficult to say who is better entitled to it. True, there is an embarrassment in applying it to a man whose crop has been entirely ruined. If it were only half destroyed, we might give him a bounty on the other half sufficient to bring the whole up to the average of former years; but when he has nothing for a basis, how can we determine what he ought to have? This is a problem which we submit to those who believe in bounties, and to the social philosophers who think that the state might institute some desirable means of distributing wealth without first producing it.

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The new Government of Hawaii being clearly *de facto*, its recognition by the United States follows as a matter of course. Minister Willis practically recognized it on the promulgation of the new Constitution and the inauguration of the new officers. If the Hawaiian revolutionists of 1892 had only proceeded decently and in order, as they have since done, they would have saved themselves and this country a world of trouble. They could just as well have set up their oligarchy under the form of a republic then as to have waited two years, and in that case they would have prevented the scandal of getting recognition as a *de-facto* government, when they were only a lot of scared conspirators and were asserting control over their country only for the purpose of giving it away. Recognition of a *de-facto* government is a proceeding into which should enter no element of personal sympathy or judgment of the character of the government recognized. We do not bow to governments, as we do to people, because we like them or approve of them. Stevens put a tremendous amount of feeling and republican sentiment into his recognition, pledged and written in advance, of the revolutionists. In fact, he felt so strongly and liked the men so well that he forgot to observe that they were not a *de-facto* government. Having now become such unquestionably, they are entitled to recognition by all countries having dealings with them, and will doubtless get it.

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Those who have confidently counted upon a great temperance revival in the Catholic church, as a result of the stand taken by Archbishops Satolli and Ireland and Bishop Watterson, have overlooked several important facts. One is that the Baltimore Council practically ordered all Catholic liquor-sellers to go out of business. But this had no effect, and it is not likely that what a council could not do a bishop can. Then there is what may be called the vested interest of the liquor business in the Catholic church. Last week's *Independent* culled a choice lot of saloon advertisements from the pages of the Catholic religious press. No severe thundering against saloon-keeping can be expected from such organs of the church. Finally there remains the fact, stoutly insisted upon by the organ of the liquor-sellers in this city, that saloon-keepers are among the most generous supporters of the Catholic church, and that it cannot afford to antagonize them. In the recent debate on the legacy duties in the House of Commons, the chancellor of the exchequer told of a miserly Scotchman who had on his death-bed left a large sum to the Established Church, and of the remark made of the transaction that it was the biggest premium against fire ever paid in Scotland. Doubtless it is the same kind of a premium, duly paid, which makes the Catholic saloon-keepers of this city easy in their minds on the score of interference with their business by ecclesiastical authority. They can pin their faith with absolute serenity on Archbishop Corrigan's profound remark on this subject, that "acceptance of principles is not to be confounded with blind application of the same."

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Extremely bitter contests were formerly waged between the gas companies of London and their workmen, during which there was danger that the city might be left in total darkness. In 1889 one of the great companies decided that for every penny it could reduce the price of gas (which by statute enabled the companies to increase their dividends) it would give the workmen 1 per cent. on their wages and salaries. In 1891 this bonus was 5 per cent., and amounted to £11,400. The price of coal in 1892, owing to the prolonged strike, was so high that it was necessary to raise the price of gas, with the result that the bonus fell to 3 per cent., the sum divided being £6,648. The next year the bonus reached 4 per cent., equalling £8,395, and for the year just closed it rose to the very considerable sum of £12,435. During this year, also, the rate of bonus was increased, so that for every penny reduction in the price of gas the bonus was to be 1½ per cent.; upon the condition, however, that one-half of the bonus should be left in the company's hands. The workmen have deposited with the company £26,530, and they have invested in the company £12,867, besides which £3,720 was invested for workmen by trustees. These facts are unusually suggestive, and appear to indicate that industrial peace is by no means a Utopian ideal.

*THE PROTECTIVE SYSTEM ON EXHIBITION.*

THE events of the last few weeks, we venture to say, have made more free-traders than many carefully prepared arguments could. Most people have not the patience, if they have the capacity, to follow prolonged and complicated discussions of economic theories and governmental policies. They have enough to do to think out solutions for their own domestic, social, and business problems, and they very plausibly reason that, as they pay the salaries of Congressmen, they should be relieved from considering the affairs of the nation. As a rule ninety-nine-hundredths of the people of the country have usually the vaguest possible ideas as to what is going on in Congress, and this is especially true of such technical matters as rates of duty upon imported goods. The determination of such rates is naturally supposed to require much technical knowledge of numberless mechanical arts, as well as a profound acquaintance with the conduct of business affairs. It is unnecessary to say that the beneficiaries of protection have assiduously confirmed this impression. They have generally replied to arguments in favor of lower duties by saying that such matters could be understood only by business men, and that arguments contained in books were only theoretical and were always despised by men of affairs. In this manner they succeeded for many years in having things their own way, while the public supposed the successive tariff acts with which the country was burdened were the product of a wise statesmanship.

The disclosures that have recently been made of the true method of constructing protective tariffs have startled and disgusted many worthy people who are reluctant to believe any one worse than themselves. It now appears plainly enough that there is no statesmanship required, nor any technical knowledge. All the theatrical "business" of protection is done away with. The public has been taken behind the scenes, and has had an opportunity to see how the actors look before they are stuffed and padded and powdered with the alluring promises of protection to American homes and all the familiar protectionist humbug. It is not an acquaintance with mechanical processes, after all, that is indispensable in these matters, but an acquaintance with secret political methods. Knowledge of business means knowledge of the stock market, and success in affairs means astuteness in making the utmost possible gain out of positions of honor and trust. Legislative favors are dispensed like a "free lunch," which finishes in something like a bar-room quarrel.

The Republicans profess to be very much shocked by this state of affairs, and lay it to the innate sinfulness of the Democrats. The country is also shocked, but it is not at the wickedness of the Democrats so much as at that of the protective system. This dickering and bargaining always went on among the Republicans when they were in power, but they were able to keep it quiet. They did not have a great deal of trouble in doing so, because they always raised duties instead of lowering them. If any one got angry and threatened to talk out because his business did not get more favor, they pacified him by giving him more. They had a commission to lower duties once, and it took a good deal of expert testimony about the arts and processes of manufacture, and about cost of production and prices. As a result of the evidence the commission proposed to recommend a small reduction in duties. But the protected interests had no idea of allowing any such thing. When it came to that, they were for the full measure of protection, no matter what might be figured out by men of business, and they had their way.

When the Democrats undertook to deal with the tariff, they had very different conditions under which to work. It was no longer possible to ask this Senator and that how much they wanted for their particular interests, but the question was how much they were willing to surrender. The process of disgorging is not a pleasant one, and it is not surprising that there has been a falling out over it. Perhaps even the Republicans might have let out some disagreeable secrets if they had undertaken to lower duties. But it is perfectly clear that the real iniquity is in the bargaining, and not in disclosing the bargaining. It is the protectionist Senators that were elected as Democrats against whom the popular wrath is hot, not against the other Democrats or the Democratic party. The exposure has been a good thing for that party. It has exhibited the spirit and the methods of protection in such an odious light that it will be more difficult than ever to defend it. It has made it clear that the better element in the Democratic party has taken up the fight in behalf of honest government in earnest, and it has made it clear how fierce that fight is, and what foul blows are struck by the adversary. The question of revenue sinks out of sight while it remains undetermined whether legislative favors can be bought or not by wealthy interests. It would be a relief to have this question settled now, but it is of sufficient importance to make delay immaterial. Protection has made an exhibition of itself which will prevent its posing hereafter under any hypocritical guise of affection for the poor. Its tenderness is plainly for the rich; the richer, the better. If it can once be turned out of our legislation, even the Senate may be purified and Congress enjoy as much freedom from the odor of corruption as the English Parliament has enjoyed since the repeal of the Corn Laws.

*DESTRUCTIVE COMPETITION.*

THERE are many features of the competitive régime which are odious, and some of its results are apparently so destructive as to lead those who do not consider the subject in all its bearings to pronounce a rather sweeping condemnation of the whole system. A correspondent, whose letter we print elsewhere, appears to have taken this position, and to have thereby involved himself in considerable perplexity. He gives his approbation to the doctrine that the destruction of property by rioters must be prevented by military force, if necessary, but he reasons from this that the destruction of property by commercial competition must also be prevented by law. He maintains that it is just as criminal for corporations to destroy capital by wrecking business as "it is for the anarchist to do the same thing by applying the torch." There is no legitimate competition, in his judgment, "that does other than it would be done by." And he instances the Standard Oil Company, which reduces the price of oil until the small refiner is driven out of business and compelled to abandon his plant. Such conduct on the part of the Standard Oil Company, our correspondent thinks, makes it the duty of the President of the United States to call out the army and navy, if necessary, in order to make Mr. Rockefeller behave himself.

We are not concerned to defend the commercial practices of the Standard Oil Company, which may be in numerous respects morally reprehensible; but we are quite sure that our correspondent is laboring under some confusion of thought, and we shall endeavor to disabuse him of some erroneous impressions, which are undoubtedly shared by many other people. The destruction of property by violent and unlawful acts is evidently an entirely different thing from the destruction of property which takes place through the progress of invention, the development of transportation, and the improvement of business methods. Doubtless many pack-saddles were rendered useless when wagons came to be employed. Many stage-coaches were practically destroyed by the construction of railroads. And many antiquated processes and inferior and badly situated refineries, we presume Mr. Rockefeller would say, had to be abandoned, owing to the decreased cost of production attained by the Standard Oil Company. Further reflection will undoubtedly convince our correspondent that every business man who undersells his neigh-

bor would declare upon oath that he was actuated by the purest motives, and was endeavoring to give the consumer advantages in the shape of cheap commodities which his neighbor, with his cumbrous system of doing business and his old-fashioned machinery, could not possibly afford. To puncture with bayonets every person who offered to sell goods at a less price than they could be sold for by such manufacturers as rejected all improved processes, and conducted their business in the most wasteful and unscientific manner, would be something quite contrary to the principles upon which the world now carries on its affairs.

A more careful analysis will probably reveal to our correspondent the fallacy which has misled him. The act of withdrawing from their employment on the part of a large number of men clearly tends to the destruction of their employer's capital. But this is not an act which is to be prevented by bayonets. It is not in itself an unlawful act, nor a violent act. It may even be an act which promotes the general welfare; and it would certainly be prejudicial to the general welfare were all such acts prohibited. Formerly they were prohibited, and so was underselling; but both prohibitions belong to a darker age than ours. It is quite clear that a distinction must be made between acts directly destructive of property and those indirectly productive of that result. *Non constat*, as the lawyers say, that the refiner who complains of the competition of the Standard Oil Company might not, by the exercise of great skill and ingenuity, meet that competition. Even if he cannot do so, it can never be admitted that the furnishing of commodities cheaply is properly called destruction of property. It may involve the destruction of some property; but it creates more than it destroys. The fallacy of our correspondent is the fallacy of protection, and many an honest citizen has felt his blood boil when told how British manufacturers were "flooding our markets with cheap goods," to the destruction of American manufactories.

Perhaps what our correspondent had in mind in his complaint was success in competition due to illegal and fraudulent practices and to the prostitution of legislation. In such case it is evidently not the successful competition that is objectionable, but the means employed to make it successful. We are glad to agree with our correspondent in condemning such means, and will support any measure which he proposes that will bring about the general adoption in commercial practice of the golden rule. For the present we know of nothing better calculated to produce this result than the doing away with protective duties, the iniquity of which is now being exhibited to the whole country in a very conspicuous manner. We anticipate a considerable improvement in business morality from this reform. If it does not reduce the evils of competition materially, we shall then be glad to consider more effective measures, but we shall not include in these the use of bayonets.

## *THE RULE OF THREE VOLUMES.*

ENGLAND'S most venerable institutions seem to be suffering a concerted attack all along the line. With crown and altar assaulted by Mr. Keir Hardie and Welsh Disestablishment, respectively, and the heroic wealth of hall and bower tilted at by death duties and the progressive income tax, it is no wonder that the pen should also be called upon to forfeit its ancient English dower. Wordsworth did not specifically state what is the ancient English dower of the pen, but if there is anything more ancient or more English than the three-volume novel, we should be glad to be told what it is. At any rate, it is nothing less than this peculiar glory of Great Britain that irreverent hands would now dim.

The trouble began with a notice sent out to publishers at the end of June by the two great circulating libraries—Mudie's and W. H. Smith & Son's. It was a polite intimation that, after December 31, 1894, the libraries must have their three-volume novels 20 per cent. cheaper than heretofore, and also that the publishers must undertake not to issue a cheaper edition within twelve months of publication. Far from being a blow at the sacred three-volume, this was intended further to hedge it about with dignity. It was on account of the "great and increasing demand for novels in sets of three volumes" that the libraries were forced to take the step. Subscribers would have their three volumes, full weight and specific gravity; and with all single-volume fiction rusting on their shelves, what could the proprietors do but demand cheaper raw material and a guarantee against competition by an edition in one volume? So they looked at it, in their blind worship of the three-volume novel, little dreaming that their action would shake literary England to its foundations and start a revolution which threatens to put an end to the very existence of three-volume fiction.

But so it was, tyranny overreaching itself in the proverbial fashion. Many of the three-volume publishers were cowed, as it is an extremely fine thing to have a library take an edition of 750 or 1,000 copies off your hands and thus eliminate all risk; and nothing seemed easier than to turn to the three-volume authors and say, "You see, our profits are to be cut down 30 per cent., and so must be your pay." But, to the unspeakable surprise and dismay of the publishers and the librarians, the book-worm has turned. The authors have thrown down their pens where they stood, and vowed that they will strike and starve before they will see their wages cut 30 per cent. Some of them have made the horrifying suggestion that, if the libraries must save 20 per cent. somewhere, they ought to increase their subscription price by that amount. The managing committee of the Authors' Society met on July 23 and resolved, after consulting "several prominent novelists and other members of the Society, and finding them almost unanimously opposed to the continuance of the three-volume system," that "the disadvantages of that system to authors and to the public far outweigh its advantages; that for the convenience of the public, as well as for the widest possible circulation of a novel, it is desirable that the artificial form of edition produced for a small body of readers be now abandoned."

It would seem as if sacrilege could no further go, but it did. The bold innovators began to question the authority of the three-volume novel, whether on the ground of antiquity or merit. That it was an old institution simply showed that it had its origin in the barbaric times when writers and readers were few, and paper and printing very costly; when the parson, the squire, and the doctor were the only readers in the parish, and required three volumes, so that each man might always have one, to read backwards or forwards as he chose. Awful things, too, before only whispered in dark corners, have been openly said about the quality of three-volume fiction. Such words as "rubbish" have reached the ears of the affrighted public, and a recipe which Mr. Zangwill long ago gave, in a furtive way, for the manufacture of a novel in three volumes, has been brought out into the light. It is as follows, and nothing could better mark the dissolute state of morals in England than its popularity:

> "One idea makes one paragraph.
> Two paragraphs make one page.
> Twenty pages make one chapter.
> Twelve chapters make one volume.
> Three volumes make one tired."

Growing bolder with their own audacity, the revolutionary authors have pointed out the fact that few of the great names of English fiction, past or contemporary, have been identified with three volumes. Scott usually published in two volumes. Dickens and Thackeray used monthly numbers. Indeed, how can a first-class novelist submit himself to the three-volume fetters? That means an edition of 750 copies to start with, slowly going the rounds of the British Isles. With no other edition possible for a twelvemonth, the book loses its vogue before it has a chance to get any, and when the cheap edition does come out, it has to encounter on

the book-stalls the worn three-volume copies which the libraries are by that time selling for a song. Both publisher and author would find a better profit in a cheap edition of 4,000 to begin with than an issue of 750 at three times the price and practically exhausting the market. The extra cost of manufacture in three volumes with thick paper and wide margins is in the face of the general law of the greatest possible economy of production, and is of itself enough to doom the system.

That it is doomed seems highly probable. It has been, in fact, for some years little more than a refuge for the mediocrity and stupidity of writers, and the laziness of publishers. The latter say that they will be much slower in accepting manuscripts with no library guaranteeing in advance to take the whole edition. They ought to be slower. They ought to know their business well enough to print only books which will sell themselves; and it is on such terms that the best literature best will thrive. The indiscriminate acceptance by the libraries of anything that has the requisite size and weight is fatal. One publisher meekly suggested that the libraries exercise a little more care in ordering novels, but was sternly told that he knew nothing about the business. With sixty thousand subscribers to whom anything is a novel, provided it comes from Mudie's or Smith's and is in three volumes, it would be the height of folly to look a novel too curiously in the mouth. But the signs of the times are pretty clear that the three volumes must go. To many in England such a conclusion will seem as unsettling as if the Graces or the Furies were no longer to be three, or as if all Gaul were no more to be divided into three parts.

## WHEAT-FARMERS IN MARYLAND.

FREDERICK, August 4, 1894.

"THE largest crop in twelve years, and the lowest price ever known," is the condition facing the wheat-farmers in central and western Maryland. Their case is fairly typical of all wheat-farmers on the Atlantic slope. With them wheat is the heart-blood of wealth, and its quotations are the pulse-beats of society. It is at once the standard and the basis of their life. In the heyday of the flush times after the civil war, these tillers of the soil in the fertile valleys between the ranges and spurs of the Appalachian chain raked in dollars by shovelfuls. The yellow cereal went at what now appear super-fancy figures. The old men longingly talk of those glorious days of enormous profits. One of them says: "I remember in 1854 the harvest was so large the barn couldn't hold it. I asked my father what to do with that left out. He said, 'Thresh it and sell it.' I did so and got $1.40 a bushel for it. In 1868, I sold 400 bushels at $3.05 per bushel. If I get fifty cents this season, I shall be lucky."

Wheat certainly does not pay for itself under present conditions. The most careful of rural bookkeepers say it costs more than fifty cents a bushel to grow it. If three or four dollars per acre go into fertilizer, and another dollar into seed, and a couple more for labor, threshing, and marketing, and a reasonable allowance be made for wear and tear on stock and machinery, fencing, buildings — what is left, unless the yield is over twenty bushels an acre, even for a land-owning family? While if three or four more dollars are added for rent, the tenant either scamps the life out of himself and family, or crops the land to death and then goes elsewhere. Commercial manure must be used; that from the barn brings fine straw, but seems to lack some constituent demanded by the grain. Every year or two lime must also be added.

With the bottom out of wheat, there seems no refuge in any product. Corn and oats are each less expensive than wheat to raise, and would pay much better now, as all three are selling at about the same price per bushel; but this is an exception, and another year farmers might lose heavily on them. Over a score of seasons ago corn was worth eight dollars a barrel, now less than three, and even then it was not cultivated as a money crop. Once lean cattle could be bought at three or three and a half cents a pound, and after being fattened be sold for five cents. Now the only profit in such a speculation is from the extra pounds put on, since one gets no more per pound for the fat steer than he paid for it when lean. Horses were once regularly raised for market, but the introduction of rapid transit in street railways has killed the business by diminishing the demand. Grades of these animals now go for less than a hundred that used to fetch three hundred dollars and upwards. There is no money in pork, and no pork is raised except for home consumption. Only a limited number of farms can be devoted to milk or trucking. All can gather up a little surplus on eggs and butter. Two vegetable canneries have been of great help for some few years. Sweet corn brought fifteen or twenty dollars an acre, but the factories overstocked the market and have had to curtail the output, and in consequence reduce the price of the raw material. Creameries also have aided in furnishing a steady outlet for milk all the year round. But all these smaller industries are by-products, and the ordinary farm could not be run on them. There must be some mainstay, and this has always been wheat; but it is certain it cannot remain so unless prices should go up or a new use be found for it. Wheat, in fact, is so low that, out of its very worthlessness, it may spring into fresh, glorious life. Farmers have discovered that it is highly valuable in making milk, beef, and pork. One has kept statistics, and declares it is worth at least a dollar a bushel to fatten hogs on. Years ago our astonishment was great when corn was burnt as fuel in the far West, but, with the "golden grain" fed to beastly swine, we shall be struck dumb.

With this steady sinking of prices it was inevitable that new social and industrial tendencies should appear. As a slight symptom the old people point out that the average table is not so laden with rich meats as in days of yore, nor, they declare, can the young men stow away the loads of food their fathers could. An elderly gentleman says it was common for him to sit down to a dinner of baked turkey, baked goose, baked ham, roast pig, roast beef, fried oysters, and often game; but nowadays he sadly notices much less variety of meats, and much more "trimmings." Another change has been wrought through the adoption of improved machinery, as sulky-ploughs, seeders, drillers, and binders. Men now ride wearing light carpet slippers instead of walking in thick cowhide boots. One man on the binder, another to drive, and three to shock, will harvest as many acres as thirty hands did when they reaped with the cradle. But the tendency the most far-reaching in its social effects is the proportionate increase in tenant farming. This is a general opinion among farmers, and the figures of the last two censuses would seem to indicate the same increase. Much of the land about here was once held in extensive tracts. The family of the historic Carroll of Carrollton once owned the large "manor" estate, some half-a-dozen miles south of Frederick, about as good soil as exists in this region. These wide holdings were gradually carved up and sold so that only a few farms now exceed two hundred acres. Credit was generously granted, and energetic young fellows had a smooth path before them. They cared nothing about mortgages, because, with an almost virgin soil and wheat three dollars a bushel, payment seemed easy, and was easy. But, as the market went down, the claims felt heavier and the annual instalments were harder to meet. Creditors became clamorous and foreclosed the mortgages, and a family considered as landowner was classed as tenant. While such an accession swelled the number of renters, all such were always tenants in fact.

In another way, farms that were once tilled by the owners are now cultivated by tenants. Through pitiless competition in American farming, prices have been forced so low that virtually all a farm-owning family makes here is a return for its labor, stock, and implements. Interest on capital invested in the farm is practically disregarded. Life has come down to "hard-pan," and gentleman farming has nearly disappeared. The average man who tries to hire all work done while he only oversees, will find himself slowly sinking in the mire of debt and failure. Only those succeed who can bear a strong hand themselves. A man of weak constitution, or one hampered with a helpless family, is fighting against fearful odds. Even an active young married couple often find the tasks too numerous for two pairs of arms, and many years must elapse before youngsters can be reared to divide the toil. In such instances it has been found the best course to rent out the place to greater bodily strength, and retire from the struggle, seeking lighter employment in neighboring towns and villages. Another recruit is then added to the ranks of tenants. Poor Richard's Almanac faithfully applies:

> "He that by the plow would thrive,
> Himself must either hold or drive."

Under such circumstances the renter can come into the race only by living on a lower level of comfort than his more favored brother. It is on this narrow margin of constrained self-sacrifice that a capitalist investor in land bases his expectation of profit, and it goes without saying that farms are no longer a popular form of investment. Under a gradual modification now going on, capital will be still shyer of seeking this field, because there can be no regular or fixed income. Low prices are driving out money rents for the share system, by which one side furnishes the land and half the fertilizer and half the seed, and the other side does everything else, and the gross yield is divided equally. There are advantages in this method for both parties The landlord can prevent barbarous "skinning" and reckless "overcropping," and can insist on a wise plan of rotation. The tenant is not at the mercy of sudden depressions in the market. There is certainly a wide avenue for lying and cheating, but farmers are usually honest, and, be-

sides, the foot of fraud would be seriously impeded by the mesh of checks in the shape of thresher figures, public-scales receipts, and way-bills.

Another social modification has been the actual or relative improvement of the hired labor class. All farm products have fallen two-thirds and more. Groceries, clothing, furniture, and implements have fallen 50 per cent. and upwards. The wages of ordinary unskilled labor have also fallen, but relatively not so much as the prices of commodities. The average day laborer, with his fifty cents a day, now can buy more than he could buy with his dollar a day twenty years ago. Perhaps this partly explains why it no longer pays to hire labor. Still, so alluring is city life that in many localities loud complaint is heard that labor is hard to get for the field and still harder for the house. Hired labor has gained, but debtors as a rule have suffered, since the majority of them borrowed on a basis of high prices. Mortgage statistics of the last census are not available, but the general opinion is that the greater number of these claims were entered into to satisfy the universal land-hunger of Americans for a home, and a few to make needed improvements. It is safe to say that these owners would usually prefer to have the homes with the burdens than to be without both.

With wheat "away down," and nothing else in sight, there seems justification for the farmers as a class considering the outlook gloomy. As symptoms of their declining condition they refer to the numerous mortgages, and point out that the farms are not so nicely kept up as formerly. They advance divers theories as to the causes of their trouble, but these may be all grouped under four heads: overproduction, extravagance of living, railroad rates, and unjust legislation. Since all commodities are down in price, the first may be dismissed, as there can be no such thing as general overproduction. The old men are the ones who generally believe that the farmers are going at too lively a gait in their style of living. They look back to early days of simplicity, when there was not much machinery and very little travelling, and now they point to the excursions, and summer trips, and the more fashionable cut of the farmers' clothes, the piles of papers, magazines, and books, and Southern melons, California fruits, and early vegetables. They are positive the farmers got into all this whirl and swim during the time of war prices, and assert that hard times have come from trying to live beyond their means. One old gentleman pointed out a special sign of this extravagance in the number of buggies now kept. Some large farm families seem to be running a livery stable, because every young fellow must have a buggy of his own, while years ago one such vehicle was thought enough in a large family, as the farm wagon could be used on special occasions for rides to church or neighborhood gatherings. But few old people like the present. Even admitting that the farmers are living more expensively, they are only following the general law of development of man's wants. It is clear enough they are not living in as much comfort as their city cousins of a corresponding class, else farmers would not be so willing to move to the cities, and so grimly determined to stay there even if they can hang on only by their teeth. But there is perhaps a grain of hard financial truth in this view of the conservative folks. Owing to the close communication in the channels of trade and finance through all parts of the Western world, it was impossible for us to maintain a level of prices so far above the normal level obtaining in all the main part. We were the smaller member and had to recede from our high-water mark.

There is an indefinite feeling among farmers, also, that the transportation companies get more than a fair share out of them, but there is not that unreasoning, silly opposition to railroad interests seen in South Carolina and Kansas. While an undoubted growth of sentiment in favor of Government ownership of railroads and telegraphs can be detected, the farmers do not yet clearly conceive in what their grievances consist. The same may be said of their belief that the law-makers have not treated them fairly. There is a strong feeling of uneasiness against legislative bodies for the tender solicitude shown to Trusts and monopolies, but these humors of indignation have not yet gathered themselves into a head so as to be felt in political action. On one point the mass of the farmers are decided as to the discrimination against them. The bulk of the white farmers here believe with all their souls that because of the high tariff they are made to pay extra prices for nearly all they buy. They hold that the prices of what they buy ought to fall in the same proportion as the prices of what they sell. As for fearing to meet the competition of the world in their own products, they do not dread that any more than they dread cold in winter or heat in summer.

In spite of the decline in prosperity, and in spite of the hard times and darkening future, they cling fast to old-established principles of finance, in striking contrast to many of their brethren down South and out West. Extensive inquiry failed to find a free-silverite, greenbacker, or pronounced Populist, though there are organizations of this party near Washington and Hagerstown. The general opinion was boldly voiced by a young fellow who asked: "What good would free silver do me? I have no silver mine. What is the use of more greenbacks? I can get all the money I want now when I have anything to get it with." This would doubtless seem pitifully poor and spiritless to the high-flown orators in South Carolina and Kansas, but this is the answer they would receive to their wind-bag speeches on finance if delivered here. It is very likely that these farmers learned a currency lesson some years ago, in the days of trade dollars, when, the value of that coin being about 95 cents, one month the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad and some other corporations here paid their employees in this depreciated coin. As the farmer is a fundamental factor in the economic problem, the loss eventually fell on him, and he no longer bites at cheap money.

C. Meriwether.

## THE CASTLE AT MILAN.

Alassio, July 17, 1894.

The great cities of Italy, like those of other countries, have increased in population during the last twenty-five years relatively more than either the smaller cities or the country as a whole. Rome, since it became the capital of the united kingdom, has doubled the number of its inhabitants, and Milan, without the stimulus of the extraordinary events that have favored the growth of Rome, has shown an even greater progress. According to the figures of the *Almanach de Gotha*, in the interval between December, 1871, and the end of 1892, the city of 200,000 souls became one of over 425,000. No other city in Italy has gone ahead in the same proportion. Naples, that had 450,000, has now 535,000, Turin, from 192,000, has 330,000, Palermo, from 185,000, has 275,000, and so on. In the same time Milan has added a new city to the old. Stretching beyond the walls in all directions are quarters of new streets, largely of the showy architecture that in Milan, Rome, or Vienna produces very much the same impression. It may be said by the way that in the streets outside the old walls and beyond the boundaries of the *dazio*, or tax levied by the city on all that the city eats and drinks and much that it otherwise needs, living is considerably cheaper than inside those limits. Hence families of moderate means have found that *fuori del dazio* they can afford a much finer and more commodious apartment than would be possible for them within, and the new quarters are favorites with this class.

It is in the centre of the city, however, and with the aid of the methods of the late Baron Haussmann, that still more striking results have been achieved. The space about the Duomo, narrow on the side of the Corso Vittorio Emanuele, has been widened so that a good view of the north flank of the great church is now to be had along its entire length. Then, from the end of the broad piazza in front of the Duomo, and opposite its western façade, a wide street has been cut straight through one of the most populous quarters of the old town to the Foro Bonaparte, a souvenir of the Cisalpine Republic and the Napoleonic kingdom of Italy. At this point, a huge semicircular space, the city has always ended, kept at a distance, just as a crowd is sometimes pushed back by the police, by the immense Castle opposite, meant by all governments, from that of the Visconti down to that of the Austrians of our day, to overawe Milan as much as to defend it. As a result of its vicissitudes, the later ones of which had all involved mutilation, it was a huge, shapeless, forbidding-looking mass—

"Monstrum horrendum, informe, ingens,"

and, up to the end of October of last year, served as quarters for troops. Behind it was the Piazza d'Armi, stretching away to the Arch of Peace, better known as the Arco del Sempione, as it was begun by the first Napoleon to mark the beginning of the road over the Simplon, but was finished by the Austrians, who also changed the name. All about it was a plain, boundless except on clear days, when the jagged blue and white barrier of the Alps filled the north and west.

The broad street pierced from the Piazza del Duomo to the Foro Bonaparte, called the Via Dante, was begun with warm faith in the future of Milan. It is lined on both sides with splendid buildings, and great numbers of enterprising tradespeople took the shops along it with the expectation of making a rapid fortune there. Instead of that, the success of the street was slow in coming—as in the case of the Avenue de l'Opéra in Paris; for awhile it did not "draw." Shop after shop shut up, and many a tradesman, prosperous hitherto, failed. But others came to take their places, and, if affairs are not even yet brilliant, they are at least in the way of improvement. Beyond the Via Dante blocks of splendid houses have, for a few years past, been springing up, gradually closing in upon the castle and the Piazza d'Armi. The monster had lost his terrors, and soon to the advancing city became a sort of King Log, an object of contempt and inviting encroachment. It was no place for a garrison and drill-ground—the space was wanted for

fine houses. The old, mutilated Castle was helpless as well as ugly, and was threatened with destruction. It had been built by tribute extorted from the people, its history was one of tyranny and wrong, its old age was sordid, and, moreover, its dead mass was a hindrance to the development of the city, just as formerly had been its repressions and exactions.

Fortunately, there was a voice raised in opposition. There had been good as well as bad in the old times of which the Castle was the relic. At any rate it was the expression of the history of Milan, and, if cleared of latter-day defacements and restored to something of its pristine state, was a monument of the past worthy to rank with the Cathedral and the Ospedale Maggiore. It ought to be a source of pride to the city and an object of its care, and might even be of use as well as an ornament. This opinion has prevailed. In October last the garrison gave up its quarters, and the work of restoration was begun. This was intrusted to the architect Luca Beltrami, a fortunate choice as well as almost a necessary one, not only because he was one of the foremost advocates of preservation, but also because of his special fitness for the task, with his general culture and his knowledge and skill as an architect. Of this last his design for the new façade of the Duomo—an admirable piece of adaptation—gave abundant evidence; his published writings answer for the rest.

Immediately after its evacuation by the troops, the restoration of the Castle as nearly as possible to what it was in the time of Lodovico il Moro was begun, and pushed so vigorously forward that the present aspect already justifies the undertaking. Hewing away the bricks and mortar about the square openings that did duty as windows showed that under them the original Gothic mouldings were still in great part intact, so that the restoration of the noble windows of early days was an easy matter. In many other cases it was necessary only to brush away the clumsy excrescences of modern times to bring to light some lovely vestige of the *quattrocento*. It was thus that an exquisite loggia of the time of Galeazzo Maria Sforza was disengaged from its filling of plaster, and that quantities of mouldings, sculptures, and frescoes have been uncovered. In face of these treasures it was pleasant to see the surprise of a friend of mine who had passed the period of his military service within these walls without suspecting what they hid. What has been found is of a quality to make one mourn for what has been lost. It is known that Bramante was employed upon the Castle, but of his work there is nothing of which one can now be sure. There is a charming covered bridge attributed to him on the strength of a certain resemblance to his style, and of the known fact that he did construct such a bridge; but that is the utmost that can be said. Perugino, Filarete, Borgognone, and Leonardo da Vinci were also among the artists who worked here. Of Leonardo, indeed, a number of designs for the general making-over of the old stronghold into a gorgeous palace of the Renaissance are still extant. Frescoes, too, attributed to him as well as to Borgognone have been discovered.

Moreover, something besides clearing away rubbish has been accomplished. The truncated towers have been carried up to their original height in their original forms. What these were is not doubtful, as representations of the Castle at all periods of its existence are not wanting. It is wonderful how they have transformed a mass that was barely saved by its immensity from being insignificant and was squat in spite of its height, into one that is imposing and picturesque. The Castle is again what it once was, as far as its outward aspect is concerned, and the Piazza d'Armi, a year ago an arid waste, is already a green garden, a worthy setting to the revived splendor of its architecture. No doubt the park is not much like that where the Sforza chased deer as well as smaller game; but as a park for the Milanese public its English landscape effects are appropriate enough, as they also are to the new uses of the Castle. This now belongs to the city and is destined to receive the municipal museum of archæology and art, the city archives, a school of art, and a museum of the *Risorgimento*, the history of the revolts against Austrian rule, and all that relates to the raising of Italy into an independent and united kingdom. One of the huge round towers, with walls nearly twenty-five feet thick, is turned to peaceful service as a distributing reservoir.

It is scarcely to be wondered at, however, that there should have been a strong feeling in favor of destroying the old pile. Certain of the ancient tyrants, Gian Galeazzo Visconti, Galeazzo Maria Sforza, and Lodovico il Moro, had indeed gathered about them there the greatest artists and men of letters of Italy, and their court was perhaps the most splendid of Europe; but for the Milanese the Castle had too many memories of oppression and exaction On the extinction of the Visconti dynasty, the city declared itself a republic—the Ambrosian republic—the first act of which was to tear down the stronghold of its despots. Within three years, however, Milan fell into the hands of Francesco Sforza, and was forced to build it up again. They had paid for its first building, and not only did they now pay for its rebuilding, but with every change of rule—and back and forth like a shuttlecock between Italians, French, Spaniards, and Austrians—the Castle suffered and had to be restored, and strengthened, and enlarged; and Milan always paid the bill. The people knew this so well that when, under the Cisalpine republic, the era of universal peace and liberty was opened, a petition to Napoleon to destroy the Castle could not gain sufficient subscribers to make it worth the presentation. The wiser heads were distrustful even of that period of boundless hope; and it is notorious that on this occasion the wise heads were not wrong. Napoleon blew up the outworks with which the Spaniards had surrounded the mediæval structure, but he preserved this as the centre of a costly system of embellishment, fortunately abandoned when scarcely begun, and leaving to the present generation merely the arch of the Simplon, the Arena, and the name, Foro Bonaparte. Then came the Austrians, and the Castle would, had it been destroyed, have had to be rebuilt—of course by the people who had torn it down.

This summer the courts and immediate surroundings are occupied by an exhibition of industries and arts—a better consecration of a new epoch than were the temples, arches, smoking-altars, columns, colossal statues, etc., with which Napoleon celebrated the triumph of the Cisalpine republic, built in sham Greek style, of sham stone and marble, in token of sham liberty and brotherhood. The Milanese paid for those, and on the present occasion they have again paid, but of their own free will, and presenting the spectacle—rare as the dodo in Italy, whatever it may be elsewhere—of an exhibition supported entirely by the city where it is held, without receiving, or even asking, any subvention from the Government, and even disdaining the usual lottery. The *Nuova Antologia* (May 15) very properly called attention to the dignified course of Milan; it is, however, doubtful if there be in Italy another city capable of such initiative, or even of imitating the example already given. Not for nothing is Milan known among the cities of the Peninsula as "la *grande*"; its truest title to the epithet is in the character of its people—the very élite of the country.

It would be pleasant to show chapter and verse for this assertion, but our present business is with the Castle. The veracious Baedeker has told tourists that this was "once the seat of the Visconti and the Sforza," and that "the corner towers and part of the wall connecting them on the S. W. side" (*i. e.*, the front toward the city) "are the sole remains of the original building." We know now that the present structure was never inhabited by the Visconti; all that remains of the Castle of their times being a few shapeless masses of brick and mortar, left standing as historical curiosities in the new gardens, and the foundations which Francesco Sforza retained and built upon. We also know that of *his* Castle much more is left than the façade toward the city; that, in fact, notwithstanding successive changes of all sorts, it is, in essentials, as it was at the death of Lodovico il Moro. When the restoration shall be finished, aided by the attractions of the collections within and the gardens without, the monument will resume its place among the ornaments and the sights of Milan.

Its rediscovered value has given occasion to a good number of publications. The most important is that of Luca Beltrami, 'Il Castello di Milano durante il Dominio dei Visconti e degli Sforza—1368–1535' (Milan, 1894), a handsome octavo volume drawn from original sources and abundantly illustrated. The edition is limited to 500 copies at 22.50 lire. This work is supplemented by another by Gen. Luchino Del Mayno, 'Vicende Militari del Castello di Milano dal 1706 al 1848, e cenni sulle Trasformazioni Edilizie del Castello dalla caduta degli Sforza ai nostri giorni, di Luca Beltrami' (Milan, 1894). The show of documents in these two volumes is calculated to repel the ordinary reader, and Signor Beltrami has kindly issued for his benefit a little handbook, 'Guida Storica del Castello di Milano, 1368–1894,' quite sufficiently and agreeably presenting the essential parts of both the larger works, together with the story of Spanish rule from 1536 to 1706. All three reflect credit not only on their authors, but also on the publishing house of Ulrico Hoepli, which has given them to us in such admirable conditions of paper, type, and illustrations. S. K.

## MONADNOCK AND BEN NEVIS.—II.

London, July, 1894.

The view from Ben Nevis, one of my chief desires in Scotland, was nearly lost by the cloudy and wet weather for which the western coast is notorious. One rainy day was spent very quietly at Fort William, the little town at the head of Loch Linnhe, strung, like its fellows, along the twenty-five-foot beach. The morning of the next day was not encouraging; but it was better to be wet on the mountain than remain another twenty-four hours pent up solitary in a little hotel, so I set forth under lowering clouds, caught several showers of rain and sleet on the mountain path, and reached the summit about eleven o'clock in a dense fog at a temperature close to freezing. This ben being the highest in Scotland, 4,406

feet, and only four miles distant from the sea-level station at Fort William, it was chosen over ten years ago as the site for a meteorological station by the Scottish Meteorological Society, and, largely through the perseverance of Dr. Buchan, funds were collected for making a good bridle-path up the mountain side and a substantial observatory on the summit. Two observers spend their time here, relieved at intervals by changing places with their fellows from the lower station. As the clouds hung low during most of my time on the mountain, I was fortunate in having from Dr. Buchan a letter to the chief observer, Mr. Omond, thus gaining a comfortable seat by his fire in the observatory, while a party of ten or more general visitors tramped about in the heavy snow outside. Although Ben Nevis is not high enough to reach the upper currents of the atmosphere, its records have contributed valuable material concerning the winds at middle levels, and the rate of vertical decrease of temperature in fair and stormy weather—a subject on which the meteorological world is at present divided in opinion. But the large number of days when the mountain is cloudy, about eight out of ten, makes it an exceptionally lonesome station for the observers.

In the middle of the afternoon the clouds fortunately lifted, and allowed an almost clear view on all sides for half an hour. The time was shorter than I could have wished, but it enabled me to scan the horizon carefully and compare its outlines with those more familiar at home. Here the striking contrast between our New England plateau and the Scotch Highlands was made evident. With us, the old lowland was in the first place generally worn so smooth, and in the second place, since its uplift the valleys of the newer cycle of erosion have consumed so small a share of the uplifted mass, that the sky-line of our hill views in southern New England is as a rule characterized by a notable simplicity and evenness. Residual Monadnocks may rise here and there to a greater or less height above the general level; the valleys of the newer cycle of denudation dissect the upland to a moderate degree, but they have not nearly demolished it. The even sky-line of the upland is the dominant feature of broad views in southern New England. In Scotland, on the other hand, the Highlands are comparatively uneven along their sky-line, as if they had never been worn very smooth; and the deep glens dissect the mass so thoroughly that only here and there do any significant stretches of fairly even upland remain. The even-topped Cairngorms, far to the northeast, were the best examples of still preserved uplands in the prospects from Ben Nevis, the altitude of their broad summits being between 3,500 and 4,000 feet. Yet, while the likeness between the two regions is in this respect rather remote, it is so easy to apprehend the essential features of one by its contrasts with those of the other that their differences only enhance the interest of their comparison.

It is manifest that the Highlands, when their whole mass stood much lower than now with respect to sea level, were not reduced to so even a surface as that of the ancient peneplain in southern New England. They were certainly heavily denuded, for their structural disorder is excessive, and they once possessed a much greater mass than now appears; but many small Monadnocks must have stubbornly remained, and an anthropoid traveller at that time would have thought of the region as a hilly district, with open lowland valleys among the hills. It is further manifest that since the elevation of the old hilly lowland into a highland, the carving of the mass by the excavation of the glens beneath the old valley lines has progressed much further than with us. The Highlands are thoroughly dissected; their form is as varied as it can be, and further denudation will tend not to complicate but rather to simplify the surface, by reducing the height of the hills without further increasing the number of the valleys. In New England there are many even uplands remaining, over which the roads may run with small variation of height for miles together. All of our old hill-towns, with their now abandoned farms, were upland settlements. In Scotland the roads are all in the glens, ascending a slope only when climbing to a pass. The little villages are all at the foot of the slopes. The Highlanders do not live *on* but *in* the Highlands; and the strong ridges between the glens kept the old clans apart, except when they gathered to march out to the Lowlands. In a few words, while both southern New England and the Scotch Highlands have suffered two cycles of denudation in the preparation of their present form, the duration of the cycles has been differently apportioned. In southern New England the earlier cycle was far advanced; the later or present cycle is only well entered upon. In Scotland the earlier cycle was somewhat less advanced, but the present cycle has reached its maturity.

An interesting question arises in connection with the dates at which the broad uplifts occurred in the two regions, separating their earlier and later cycles of denudation. It is by the determination of such dates that the age of topographical forms may be measured, and therein lies one of the most interesting advances of geographical study that have been made in recent years. For New England and for much of the Atlantic slope of the United States, it has been shown that the chief uplift, in consequence of which the present valleys have been etched in the elevated lowland, occurred somewhere in the Tertiary division of geological chronology; that is, somewhere in one of the latest chapters of geological time. All the eminences that rise above the upland in which our valleys are sunk are greater or lesser Monadnocks, remnants of the pre-Tertiary cycle of erosion. The deep gorge of the Hudson, for example, in the Highlands of southeastern New York, is thus rationally defined in its relationships. It is a deep and narrow valley of Tertiary erosion in the strongly uplifted, hard-rocked peneplain of pre-Tertiary denudation. The Connecticut valley, already referred to, is of the same date, but it is a broad open valley, a valley lowland, a peneplain of the second generation, because it follows a belt of relatively weak rocks.

The Scotch geologists have determined the age of their glens by an ingenious train of reasoning. The great lava sheets of Mull and the smaller volcanic islands of the western coast are associated with interbedded deposits containing Tertiary fossils. The lava sheets are also associated with a system of numerous dikes that traverse the Highlands for many miles. The dikes run alike over bens and across glens, with no more indication of overflowing their enclosing walls in the valley bottoms than on the mountain tops. Hence the excavation of the glens must be subsequent to the eruption of the lava sheets of Mull; that is, the vast work of the mature dissection of the Highlands is limited to only a part of Tertiary time. To students at home, who are accustomed to measuring Tertiary time by the relatively small deposits of gravels and sands along our Atlantic border, this measure of the Tertiary by the erosion that it has witnessed comes as a surprise. It is indeed difficult on looking at the great gorge of the Hudson or at the numerous glens of the Highlands to believe that even a part of the latest chapter of geological history was long enough for their excavation.

From Ben Nevis, stage and railway carried me northward to a region of the upper western coast that has in recent years attracted much attention from geologists by reason of the new interpretation given to its extraordinary structure. The older views of Murchison, inherited and maintained by the official Survey, were slowly displaced by independent students, of whom the most successful was Lapworth, then a school-teacher in Scotland, now professor of geology at Mason College, Birmingham. It was chiefly from his patient observations that the Government geologists were at last forced to admit the existence of great overthrusts and overturns among the rocks, whereby what should be at the bottom was placed on the top, and the normal sequence of deposits was too often displayed upside-down, or almost inside-out. When the "secret of the Highlands" was thus at last disclosed, and the official Survey was compelled to accept the newer views, a frank avowal of the change was made by the director-general, Sir Archibald Geikie, in an article in *Nature;* and several of the Government geologists have since then been studying out and mapping the region in a most minute manner. Best known of these are Messrs. Peach and Horne, with whom I was so fortunate as to spend two delightful days and nights in the neighborhood of Kinlochewe at the head of Loch Maree; my generous escort being Mr. Cadell, whose experiments at Bo'ness in imitation of the Highland mountain structure have done much to secure acceptance and understanding of the results gained by his colleagues and himself in the field. The weather here was exceptionally clear, and the views from low and high levels were most impressive. Here were old mountains of fundamental gneiss buried in thousands of feet of Torridon sandstones, but now clearly revealed again by the deep excavation of the valleys through the compound mass. Here the old gneiss is clearly seen overriding the Cambrian quartzites, the gently ascending surface up which it was overthrust being clearly displayed in the little ravines that cut across it. Now that the mystery of the structure is solved, any one can understand it, particularly when guided by masters as enthusiastic in explanation as those whom I found.

The account of all this region given by Sir Archibald Geikie, in his excellent book on the 'Scenery in Scotland,' will be found entertaining reading in preparation for a tour through Lowlands and Highlands; but there is one conclusion in the book with which I cannot agree. The denudation which produced the hilly lowland in which the glens have since been eroded, is regarded as having been essentially completed before and during the deposition of the Old Red Sandstone made famous by Hugh Miller's studies in Cromarty Firth and elsewhere. It is manifest that a great denudation of the Highland crystalline rocks took place before and during the deposition of the Old Red, for its beds lie unconformably on the eroded crystallines, and are composed largely or entirely of their fragments. It may well be that the close of Old Red times left the region of the Highlands in the form of a well-denuded peneplain, of small relief, and lying close to the sea level; but inasmuch as the Old Reds have since then been tilted and faulted,

there is every probability that the adjoining peneplain was also deformed. Some later date must therefore be sought for the denudation by which the deformed peneplain of Old Red times was reduced to the hilly lowland in which the glens have at last been cut out.

Returning to the comparison with New England, brief mention may be made of the depression of the dissected Highlands, whereby the lower parts of the glens were drowned, forming the sea-lochs; these being perfectly comparable in kind with many of the indentations of the New England coast, but differing from our examples in intensity of expression. Few places in the world present so bold a combination of land and water as is found northward from Glasgow; yet in spite of the excellent harbors thus developed, there are no cities, not even any large towns, on the western coast of the Highlands—the interior is too poor to support them. The chief places are summer resorts, like Oban. For scenic effect, the region is superb; for ordinary human uses, it is too severe. The gentler modulation of the New England coast, the margin of a habitable interior, is better suited for settlement.

Like the uplift, the dissection, and the depression of the Highlands, its glaciation was of an intense quality. The glens were filled, the summits were overflowed with ice. The rock basins, now holding lakes and ascribed to glacial scouring, are larger than ours. They lie in the troughs of the glens, both above and below present sea level; they add to the interior of the Highlands something of the charm that is given to the border by the long-entering arms of the sea. The moraines or terminal deposits left in the valleys during the later phases of the glacial period are of great distinctness—much more emphatic than any in New England, unless it may be in the White Mountains. Lakes often occur up stream from the moraines, as if due in part at least to the deposit of these barriers; thus Loch Duall is separated from Loch Carron, that enters the main valley from a side glen. All the lakes are more or less encroached upon by the growth of deltas where streams run in from the mountains; the smaller lakes are converted into meadows in this way. It is chiefly on these deltas and meadows, or straths, that the Highlanders built their villages; many of the Gaelic names, like Strath Carron and Achnasheen, show an appreciation of these facts, however little understanding there may have been of the control of the facts. Where the valleys are obstructed by moraines or other drift deposits, the streams are often diverted from their old courses and are now cutting narrow rocky gorges. In New England we have such by the hundred, and nearly every one has determined the site of a mill or a village; but in the Highlands the water-power in the gorges runs to waste.

There is a final comparison that deserves a paragraph. The western or Berkshire plateau, the Connecticut valley lowlands, and the eastern or central plateau of southern New England may with much justice be paralleled with the Highlands, the Lowlands, and the Southern Uplands of Scotland. In both cases the Lowlands are low not because their district was not elevated with the rest of the regions at the time of the general plateau-uplift; they are low because their rocks are weak, and they have almost entirely lost the altitude which the harder rocks on either side so well retain. They are reduced almost to new peneplains. It is on these peneplains that the larger cities are built—New Haven, Meriden, Hartford, Springfield, Holyoke, Northampton, with us; Greenock, Glasgow, Edinburgh, Stirling, Perth, Dundee, in the Scotch Lowlands. In both cases the transition from the rugged country of the Uplands to the open fields of the Lowlands is abrupt, especially on the side of the greater Uplands. When passing across the boundary by rail, the prospect changes like the rapid shifting of scenes on the stage. In both regions the Lowlands are interrupted by resistant lava sheets, now standing up as ridges and retaining much of the height that the Lowlands have lost. Such are the Ochils of Scotland and the Hanging Hills and the other trap ranges of the Connecticut valley. They are Monadnocks of a second generation. In order to enforce the comparison of the two, and at the same time to promote the international exchange of geographical terms, I propose to use Ochils as a generic term for hills of this second class. Let any one ascend Mt. Tom, a strong Ochil, near Northampton, on the Connecticut, and look at the even sky line of the eastern and western plateaus, overtopped by occasional Monadnocks, and separated by the fertile and populous lowlands of the valley. Let him then include in his Scotch tour an ascent of one of the dominating Ochils east of Stirling, and identify in the broad prospect around and beneath him the analogue of every member of his home view; in so doing he will make a good advancing step in comparative physical geography. W. M. D.

# Correspondence.

## DESTRUCTION OF PROPERTY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I take it that no country-loving citizen will disagree with the statement of the law as to what constitutes violence in strikes, as laid down by Judge Baker. I as firmly believe that we as liberty-loving people must insist upon the application of the principle of law, not only to labor organizations, but to the transactions of moneyed corporations as well.

We must waken to the fact that it is just as criminal for corporations to destroy capital by wrecking business as it is for the anarchist to do the same thing by applying the torch. To illustrate the point: A man is running an oil refinery. The Standard Oil Company cuts prices so as to lose large sums of money in the territory in which the man who owns the small refinery is selling his product. World-wide markets permit the Standard to make up its loss in that territory by raising the price in localities where there is no competition. The Standard has taxed the people to pay the loss which it sustained in destroying the property of the small refiner. We must, as liberty-loving people, demand that Judge Baker's principles of law be applied to Mr. Rockefeller, and that Mr. Rockefeller be confronted, if need be, by United States bayonets.

It will not do for us to condone the crime of the Standard by saying that such is legitimate competition. There is no competition which is legitimate that does other than as it would be done by. If a law is a just law, it is capable of universal application, and a law to command respect must be impartially enforced.

We shoot the man, and justly, who burns the freight-cars, and pay the loss to the company out of the public treasury. The small refinery is destroyed, and the people pay, not the man for the refinery, but the Standard Oil Company for destroying it, and, to our shame, sing praises to Mr. Rockefeller.

J. S. Stacy.

## FIDELITY REWARDED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of your editorial in No. 1519 ("Praise to Whom Praise is Due"), in which you expressed the opinion that the managers of the Illinois Central Railroad might well "add to a 'vote of thanks' some more substantial recognition of faithful service," permit me to call your attention to the following paragraph from the Richmond *Times* of August 10. W. H. B.

A CORPORATION WITH A SOUL.

Frostburg, Md., August 9.—The Consolidated Coal Company has notified all the miners who stuck to their posts during the recent protracted strike that they will each receive nine months' rent and fuel free.

## THE WORKINGMAN'S LOVE OF HOME.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Among the benefits arising from the recent railroad strike, I have been especially impressed that it has had a decided tendency to awaken the serious, thinking portion of our people to a realization of their responsibility in the conduct of our government, and to lead them to brush aside many so-called modern ideas, for the time being, and revert to fundamental principles. Your correspondent in the *Nation* of July 26, under the caption of "Pullman and its Inhabitants," uses the following language:

"After years of intimate association with the American workingman, I am convinced that one of the strongest sentiments in his breast is the love of home. When, at the close of a day's toil, he can put on his coat and hat, leave the shop behind him, go home, 'wash up,' and eat supper, smoke his pipe and read the paper or watch the children play or play with them while his wife is 'doing up the dishes'; when he feels that he owns everything about him in fee simple, that he is the boss and master in his own house—that man is happy. When his wife in the back kitchen hums 'Home, Sweet Home,' it is full of kindly meaning to him. Mr. Pullman, in his scheme for a model community for American workingmen, overlooked this peculiar American characteristic."

While this is decidedly to the point in the connection in which it is advanced, it seems to me that, as an argument against the theories of Henry George on Government ownership of land, one more nearly unanswerable would be difficult to find. O. C. B.

San Antonio, Texas, August 4, 1894.

## EARLY AMERICAN POST-OFFICE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I should be glad to be informed of any allusion to our American postal service prior to 1775. The official records are nearly all lost. Even the Franklin period is obscure. Yet the subject is interesting, as the history of the post-office is the history of trade and traffic condensed. The early American post-office was among the greatest of all our pioneers. It seems right that the fragments of the early postal service should be gathered. In 1775 we had but four mail routes: the great route along the Atlantic from Portland to Savannah; the route from New York, via Albany and Montreal, to Quebec; the inception of the route from Philadelphia to Pittsburgh; and the ocean route from New York to Falmouth, England. The names of postmasters and

mail-riders or mail-boats, copies of postmarks, and, in fact, the pettiest postal allusion, will be appreciated. C. W. ERNST.

BACK BAY, BOSTON, MASS., August 11, 1894.

M. REINACH AND MR. WALDSTEIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Waldstein has made two fresh discoveries: first, that I have suspected his *bona fides*, and, second, that, in doing so, my own *fides* has become suspicious. Neither of these discoveries can stand the test of the most lenient criticism.

I *never* contended that Mr. Waldstein had not been the first to publish an observation on the head in the Louvre as belonging to a metope of the Parthenon. I *never* wrote, nor insinuated, that in publishing the aforesaid observation he had any knowledge of his having been anticipated by an unedited *procès-verbal*. It is really trying to my patience that I should be obliged to repeat this. But I wrote in 1886, and I write again, that when M. Waldstein, in 1885, published his 'Essays,' and reprinted therein his paper issued in 1882, he ought to have added a footnote mentioning the following statement of M. Héron de Villefosse, printed in the *Bulletin de la Société des Antiquaires*, 1882, p. 306 (sitting of November 15, 1882):

"En lisant la communication de notre confrère, on pourrait croire que les conservateurs du Louvre n'avaient pas soupçonné l'importance du morceau de sculpture antique dont la place a été déterminée par M. Waldstein. C'est pour faire disparaître toute équivoque à cet égard que je demande à mettre sous les yeux de la Compagnie un extrait du procès-verbal de la séance du comité consultatif. Cette séance est du 22 juillet, 1880, c'est-à-dire antérieure de deux années à la découverte de M. Waldstein. . . . *Une tête d'homme, style des métopes du Parthénon.* . . . Notre confrère M. Heuzey avait été chargé de l'acquisition des marbres grecs dont je viens de donner l'énumération. Le mérite d'une telle œuvre ne pouvait lui échapper: il soupçonne immédiatement que cette tête provenait d'une des métopes du Parthénon."

Now, Mr. Waldstein could have answered, as early as 1886, that the *Bulletin de la Société des Antiquaires* had escaped his notice, and a critic would have proved very pedantic in insisting on so slight a neglect. Instead of that, he began by assuming that I accused him of plagiarism, and called on poor M. de Villefosse to proclaim his innocence, which was questioned by nobody. And now he says that his paper was reprinted before the *Bulletin* had appeared, which seems impossible, the *Bulletin* having reached the libraries in 1883, while the 'Essays' are dated 1885.

If any cool-blooded man will test the facts, he must acknowledge, (1) that I had a right to remind Mr. Waldstein of a point he had neglected to state; (2) that I did so *sine ira*, without throwing the slightest suspicion on Mr. Waldstein's good faith; (3) that Mr. Waldstein flew into a passion about an incidental remark, and now, after eight years, tries to revive a discussion which, in the eye of any reasonable person, bears on a non-existent difficulty.

Mr. Waldstein's first letter concerned the terracotta plaques, which are a serious subject. He there used hard words to qualify the article which I wrote on his 'Essays' in 1885. I felt compelled to show again that what he termed an "unjustifiable attack" was neither an attack nor an unjustified criticism. Whereupon he quite forgets the plaques, and, by inaccurately restating the facts about the head in the Louvre, tries to induce his readers to suspect my scientific honesty.

This is more than enough. I hope Mr. Waldstein will continue to be a felicitous digger, and that I shall have occasion to deal with his discoveries; but, whatever he may say or write about my own doings, I shall abstain, in the future, from entering into any controversy with him. *Fœnum habet in cornu.*

Truly yours, SALOMON REINACH.

MUSÉE DE ST. GERMAIN-EN-LAYE, July 29, 1894.

# Notes.

JOHN FISKE'S 'History of the United States,' for schools, is on the point of issuing from the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. It will be remarkable for its bibliographical equipment.

G. P. Putnam's Sons announce, in five volumes, 'The Life and Correspondence of Rufus King,' edited by his grandson, Dr. Charles R. King; 'Cicero and the Fall of the Roman Republic,' by J. L. Strachan Davidson; 'The Story of Venice,' by Alethea Wiel; 'The Flute-Player, and Other Poems,' by Francis Howard Williams; 'Miss Hurd: An Enigma,' by Anna Katharine Green; and 'Found and Lost,' by Mary Putnam-Jacobi.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have in press 'The Marquis de La Fayette in the War of the Revolution,' with some account of the attitude of France towards the War of Independence, by Charlemagne Tower, jr.; 'Henry IV. and the Religious Wars,' by Edward T. Blair; 'Pediatrics: the Hygiene and Medical Treatment of Children,' by Thomas Morgan Rotch, M.D.; 'My First Book,' the experiences of Walter Besant, James Payn and twenty other well-known novelists, edited by Jerome K. Jerome and profusely illustrated; and 'Madonna, and Other Verses,' by Harrison S. Morris.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. will issue in the autumn 'Some Famous Leaders among Men,' by Mrs. Sarah K. Bolton, along with Dumas's 'Monte Cristo,' in two volumes, illustrated by Frank T. Merrill, and 'The Three Musketeers,' illustrated by Maurice Leloir.

Ward, Lock & Bowden will copyright here 'Seven Little Australians,' with illustrations by A. J. Johnson.

Dyrsen & Pfeiffer send us a prospectus of 'L'Art de l'Imprimerie pendant la Renaissance Italienne,' which is to be issued in sumptuous fashion by Ferd. Ongania, Venice. The division will be chronologically by cities, from Rome 1465 to Forli 1495, each city having a volume to itself. There will be in each 96 pages of facsimiles of printers' marks, type, ornaments, bindings, etc., calculated to serve as models of taste to our modern printers and bookmakers. The subscription price per series is 10 francs, or 140 for the whole.

Barras's Memoirs, hitherto unpublished, are to swell the Napoleonic revival in France. They will make four volumes, and will be free from the suspicion of doctoring under which Talleyrand's Memoirs labor.

Since we noticed the first edition of Prof. Edwin J. Houston's 'Dictionary of Electrical Words, Terms and Phrases' (New York: W. J. Johnston Co.), upwards of three years ago, the work has been thoroughly overhauled and much enlarged for a second edition, and now a third is before us, with the new matter added as an appendix. The fourth, the editor assures us, will witness an incorporation of the appendix with the general alphabet. It is gratifying to see such solicitude to perfect a work of reference, and one can but be struck by the extraordinary growth in the terminology of electric science and industry which makes such revision and expansion necessary at such brief intervals. The appendix, like the main text, is helpfully illustrated.

Percy Russell's 'Guide to British and American Novels: being a comprehensive manual of all forms of popular fiction in Great Britain, Australasia, and America from its commencement down to 1893' (London) sadly belies its promising title. It is difficult to prove the hopeless incapacity of the writer without giving the absurd volume more space than it deserves; but perhaps it will suffice to note that in the chapter on "American Novels" there is no mention of Mr. Howells, Mr. Cable, Mr. Crawford, Mrs. Deland, or Miss Wilkins, although in a chapter on "Some Living Novelists, British and American," there is to be discovered this delicious paragraph: "Mr. William Dean Howells (1837) is an American writer, and has published much excellent verse. He is the author of several good fictions."

To the nineteenth volume of MM. Noël and Stoullig's invaluable 'Annales du Théâtre et de la Musique' (Paris: Charpentier; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer), M. Ferdinand Brunetière contributes a preface in which, with his usual precision and acumen, he sets forth briefly his view of the essential element of the drama as distinguished from other forms of literature—the novel, for example, and the epic. This essential quality he finds to be a struggle, a strife between contending elements, an effort of man to free himself from fate, or a rivalry between two opposing men.

M. H. Lafontaine is an excellent actor, and has earned a reputation in his profession which makes his literary efforts interesting. He has tried his hand at novel-writing and on the drama, and in neither line has he yet attained particular success. Although an actor, he does not possess the secret of writing a really strong or live play; as a novelist he is not exactly weak, but mediocre. His last book, 'La jolie Paimpolaise' (Paris: Calmann Lévy), is a proof of this. There is absolutely no point to the story, and when one has finished it one wonders what it is all about. The descriptions of theatrical life are commonplace and uninteresting, although it is in these that M. Lafontaine is most at home. One or two shorter sketches are somewhat better, though still quite third-rate.

M. Adolphe Brisson's 'Portraits Intimes' (Paris: Colin & Cie.) is proof additional of Sarcey's common-sense view of the republication of newspaper articles in book form. The essentially transitory character of such productions militates against their preservation; few newspaper men, writing for next day's issue, can produce articles solid enough to be worth collecting and republishing. M. Brisson's very light sketches do not come within that class, and while there are two or three—on Mounet-Sully, on Irving, on Lemaître—which are interesting, the bulk of the volume is disappointing.

Not so with J.-J. Weiss's 'Le Drame historique et le Drame passionnel' (Paris: Calmann Lévy). His review of the Romantic and realistic plays is thoroughly enjoyable and instructive; his criticisms are keen and to the point; there is solidity in this work and consequent satisfaction for the reader. Very savory is the article on "Ruy Blas," which will be appreciated by every one who saw Mounet-Sully in the title rôle, and who, even under the spell of such splendid acting, could not but be struck by the manifold weaknesses of the play. Every page of Weiss's book more than repays the reading of it.

"Jean Dornis," the authoress of the novel 'La Voie douloureuse,' recently noticed in these columns, turns out to be the pseudonym of Mme. Guillaume Beer, the wife of the counsellor-general of Seine-et-Oise, in whose house Leconte de Lisle recently died.

L. Bernardini's 'La Littérature Scandinave' (Paris: Plon) is chiefly interesting for its accounts of George Brandes, the eminent critic, Strindberg, and Jonas Lie; the article on Brandes being sympathetic and full of information. Those on Björnson and Ibsen are not equal to much else that has already been published about these writers.

Five years ago the prize offered by the united Thierschutzvereine of Germany for the best essay on the rights of animals in their moral and legal relations to man was won by Ignaz Bregenzer, a lawyer of Tübingen, who, instead of printing his dissertation in its original form, subjected it to a thorough revision, and finally expanded it into a volume entitled 'Thier-Ethik' (Bamberg: Buchner). The work, as now issued, is quite exhaustive, and discusses the origin and ethical significance of animal worship and the survivals of this primitive cult in popular superstitions of the present day, animism, monism, metempsychosis, totemism; the teachings of Brahminism, Buddhism, Judaism, Christianity, and Mohammedanism concerning the lower animals; animals in poetry and art and jurisprudence, the influence of the doctrine of evolution upon the treatment of animals, and the rapidly increasing tendency of legislation to recognize them, in both their wild and domestic state, as creatures possessing certain rights and entitled to legal protection in the enjoyment of the same. Vegetarianism Herr Bregenzer regards as "a psychological-pathological outgrowth of modern hyperculture," but goes rather far afield in connecting it historically and genetically with primitive zoolatry and the theory of the transmigration of souls. The vexed question of vivisection is treated dispassionately. Herr Bregenzer thinks that the value of such experiments in promoting the advancement of science, even in the special branch of physiology, has been greatly overestimated, and demands that they should be placed under very strict control. In fact, he would permit such demonstrations only as means of instruction for medical students.

A recent issue (No. 195) of the "Sammlung gemeinverständlicher wissenschaftlicher Vorträge," edited by Virchow and Wattenbach (Hamburg: Richter) is an address 'Über die Zulassung der Frauen zum Studium der Medicin,' by Dr. P. Müller, Professor of Gynecology in the University of Berne, Switzerland, who affirms that for the past twenty years co-education has been practised in all Swiss universities except Bâle, and that, as the result of this experience, he is strongly in favor of the system in its widest application. He declares that the relations of the sexes in these institutions have always been quite as proper as in any other place where men and women are wont to associate, and that the young women have proved to be the peers of the young men in every branch of study, notwithstanding the disadvantages arising from the lack of gymnasia and other secondary schools for their suitable preparation. There are no medical lectures, he thinks, that may not be attended by men and women together with perfect propriety; no medical subject that cannot be investigated thoroughly and delicately in a lady's presence. If some professors are thereby prevented from indulging in equivocal jokes, which are of questionable taste under any circumstances, he does not regret the omission, but deems it highly desirable. What is now most needed is the establishment of fully equipped Mädchen-Gymnasia by private enterprise, unless the State can be compelled to do its duty in this respect.

In a recent number we noticed the first volume of the lectures delivered at Florence in 1893. The second volume has just appeared, 'La Vita Italiana nel Cinquecento: Letteratura' (Milan: Treves), and contains, besides articles by Paoli and Manzoni on the political writers and on the lyric of the sixteenth century, a chapter by Carducci on the 'Orlando Furioso,' interpretative, illuminating, and full of such happy phrases as "Dante remaining to the mass of the people *majestically obscure*," and "Pulci not losing more by his irregularity than an old palace for not having its windows in a line." Add a lecture by Nencioni on Torquato Tasso, more brilliant than profound. Signor Nencioni's remarks on the Reformation are to be described only as "unregenerate," and the Anglo-Saxon reader can but smile at the naming in the same breath of admiration of works like 'Don Juan,' 'The Idylls of the King,' and 'The Ring and the Book.'

After Florence, Venice, Rome, and Milan it would be hard to mention an Italian town where the student of the history of painting can learn so much as at Bergamo. Cariani and Previtali can be studied there alone, and no other one place in the world is so rich in Lottos and Moronis. Besides these masters whose works abound, other artists are represented by at least one authentic specimen, and among these we find of Venetians such names as Giovanni Bellini, Antonello da Messina, Jacopo di Barbari, Mantegna, Crivelli, Bonsignori, Montagna, Basaiti, Catena, Pisanello, Fr. Morone, Caroto, Romanino, and Moretto; of Lombards such as Foppa, Borgognone, Bernardino da Conti, and Gaudenzio Ferrari; of Ferrara-Bolognese such as Cosimo Tura, the Francias, Dosso Dossi, and Garofalo; and of Central Italians such as Pesellino, Botticelli, and Raphael. We are happy to announce that, excepting the Pisanello, the Pesellinos, and the Botticellis, which form part of the Morelli legacy, and have already been photographed by Marcozzi of Milan, all the works at Bergamo of the masters mentioned have just been photographed by R. Lotze of Verona (10 Via Disciplina). The same photographer, by the way, has also done most of the paintings at Verona.

The United Typothetæ of America will hold their eighth annual convention on September 18. *Paper and Press*, Philadelphia, proposes a souvenir number rich in historical matter relating to the printer's art in this country and especially to the recent development of processes of illustrations.

The latest number of Sybel's *Historische Zeitschrift* contains a review of Dr. Quidde's 'Caligula,' by Elimar Klebs of Berlin, who denies that the pamphlet has any value as an historical study, and ascribes its sensational success solely to the covert side-glances cast upon the political conditions of the present day. He accuses Dr. Quidde of having given an imperfect portraiture of Caligula by imparting a modern and therefore false coloring to the statements of Dio Cassius and Suetonius, and by ignoring entirely such important authorities as Philo-Judæus and Josephus, simply because their accounts of the Roman Emperor did not furnish any characteristics suitable to the semi-fictitious personage whom he wished to describe and to present as a warning example to the German people. The critic refers to the recently discovered form of neurasthenia known as "railway-spine," to which conductors, brakemen, and other railroad employees are said to be subject in consequence of exposure to accidents and other constant excitements incident to their occupation. In like manner Dr. Quidde would maintain that sovereigns are peculiarly liable to "paranoia monarchica," a form of insanity induced by their exalted and isolated position, in which they are treated with the reverence due to superior beings, and debarred from all free and natural intercourse with their fellow-men by the rigid constraints of court etiquette. The more absolute the monarch, the more virulent the disease, which has been considerably ameliorated in modern times by the introduction of constitutional limitations to autocratic authority. Whether Dr. Quidde's diagnosis is entitled to any consideration, Herr Klebs will not attempt to decide, but leaves this question to the neuropathologist.

The many friends and pupils of the distinguished archæologist Heinrich Brunn of the University of Munich will learn with regret of his death, which occurred at Josephsthal, near Schliersee, in the Bavarian Highlands, on July 23, after a long illness caused by overwork. He was the son of a clergyman and born at Wörlitz, Anhalt, January 23, 1822. After finishing his studies at Bonn he went to Italy for the purpose of collecting inscriptions for Mommsen and Ritschl, and was secretary of the Prussian Archæological Institute in Rome from 1856 to 1865. He was then appointed to a professorship in the University of Munich, with which he subsequently combined the office of curator of the Glyptothek, or Gallery of Sculpture, in that city. Brunn was generally recognized as one of the greatest authorities in the department of classical archæology. A year ago, as our readers will remember, the fiftieth anniversary of his doctorate was commemorated by American scholars by a gold medal and a Latin address.

—A sense of proportion compels us to confine within a few lines notice of an interesting paper read last year before the Royal Irish Academy and published in vol. iii., third series, of its Proceedings—Capitan Cuellar's 'Narrative of his Adventures in Ireland after the Wreck of the Spanish Armada,' translated and noted by Prof. J. P. O'Reilly. Cuellar was captain of the *Don Pedro*, which, with some twenty other vessels of the Armada, was wrecked on the coast of Ireland in September, 1588. First stripped of everything by the "salvages," he was, like the rest of his companions who escaped the waves and the swords of the British garrisons on the coast, sheltered by the native chieftains. He passed some six months in the island, and eventually by way of Scotland reached Antwerp. Thence, in October of the following year, he indited his narrative to a friend in Spain. "Thinking that, betimes, when you are resting after your meal, you may, for distraction's sake, take to reading this letter, which seems as if it were copied from some book of chivalry; I have, on that account, gone into particulars, in order that you may learn what adventures and trials I had to pass through and undergo." It is the most thrilling narrative of personal adventures of the time in Ireland we remember to have read. The style reminds us of DeFoe. The twenty-five pages are so full of incident it would be difficult to make extracts. The pitiful spectacles connected with the wrecks—the hundreds of brave men in the boiling surf—the

crowds of "dancing and jumping" "salvages" despoiling those who reached land—the putting to the sword of hundreds by the "English Lutherans"—are vividly depicted. We are not likely soon to forget passages such as his finding the bodies of twelve of his countrymen hanging in a ruined chapel where he sought refuge; or those which relate how he and others were glad to cover their nakedness with straw and fern fronds, and how he was made prisoner by a smith and compelled to blow his bellows for several days; or the story of his defence of a castle for a native chief who himself meanwhile retired to the mountains with his flocks and herds. When, after the first few days, nothing further was left upon him to take, he was for the most part treated with kindness. The beauty of the young women "salvages" is often noticed, and the dress and manners and customs of the inhabitants described. Prof. O'Reilly has illustrated the narrative with the suggested identification of persons and localities.

—The rigid tests now applied to the conscripts for the Japanese army have incidentally thrown light upon the ethnology of the island empire. The national habit, continued through ages, of sitting for hours upon the hams and heels has had the curious effect of shortening the legs disproportionately. The average Japanese (man or woman) is normal in the proportions of the upper half of the body. Relatively he is, in the lower half, from a half-inch to an inch and a half too short. It is believed that a more nourishing diet, more exercise, and the use of chairs or some other apparatus which will allow a better circulation of the blood during sedentary attitudes, will in time add to the Japanese stature. Five years' examination of recruits enrolled at the age of twenty shows the following averages: height, 5 ft. 4½ in.; weight, 126.57 lbs.; chest measurement, 32.99 in.; cubic capacity of lungs, 3.531 centimetres. About one-half of the young men rejected on account of disability or deformity suffer from defective vision, hernia, or weak joints. The average rejections per 1,000 are but 41.83, as against 397.43 per 1,000 in England; from which it is argued that the examination is less strict in Japan. Only one conscript in ten is taken, for although fully 200,000 are physically qualified, only 20,000 are enrolled annually for service with the colors. The flower of the population is in the army. Some light seems to be cast by these figures upon Japanese origins. Only 10.46 adult males out of every thousand in the empire attain the maximum height for an infantry recruit. This maximum is 59 5 inches, as against 64 inches in England, 61.6 in Germany, and 60.06 in France. The Coreans are notably taller than the Japanese, and it is on the islands of Tsushima and Iki, in which Corean blood predominates, that the height of the men averages one inch more than on the main island, Hondo. In the regions surrounding the great bays of Yedo and Osaka, as well as in the provinces lining the northwest coast, the people are conspicuously below the requisite standard. The cities as a rule are very deficient in the ratio of height, while the agricultural districts furnish over one-half of the conscripts. It is more than probable that, with the increasing data furnished by the army and navy surgeons, and by life-insurance companies, marked progress may be made towards the solution of the problem of the origins of the mixed people of Japan.

—"Pithecanthropus europæus alalus" is the title of a painting, by Gabriel Max, now exhibited in the International Art Exposition of the Crystal Palace at Munich, Bavaria. It represents the "missing link" and his family, or the domestic life of the primitive semi-human European, not yet endowed with articulate speech, as he may have existed in the pliocene period of the tertiary epoch. Prof. Max is not only an exceedingly clever artist, a genial "soul-painter," as the Germans would call him, gifted with a rare power of portraying on canvas intense emotions of the mind—grief, enthusiasm, the ecstasy of saints and the heroic resignation of martyrs, especially as expressed in the features of women—but he is also well versed in anthropology and comparative anatomy, and perfectly familiar with the results of the latest researches in these branches of science. Among the recent productions of his pencil are several remarkable studies of the anthropoid race, the most striking of which is perhaps the semi-satirical group of Apes as art critics, now in the New Pinakothek at Munich. Unlike these works, the present picture is not a study from nature, but a fancy sketch based upon scientific deductions from the doctrine of evolution. The hands of these pithecoid progenitors of mankind show a marked advance towards humanity in the differentiation from the feet, and the same process of development is perceptible in the growth of the hair on the body and on the head, as well as in the formation of the limbs and the face, which are more rotund in consequence of the increased deposit of adipose tissue. The skull encloses a bigger and better brain, and this variation in the direction of intellectuality is clearly reflected in the thoughtful countenance and the peculiarly sad expression of the eyes. This is especially true of the female, who is seated at the foot of a tree in the virgin forest nursing her infant. A single tear falling upon her left cheek indicates sensibility, and seems prophetic of the fate of her descendants, born to "weep each other's woes." The male, who is standing near, has a mingled look of paternal pride and anxiety for the future. Evidently they are already creatures that "look before and after"; and the appearance of the child gives promise of progressiveness in the next generation. The picture is not for sale, but was presented by the artist to Prof. Ernst Haeckel of Jena, February 16, 1894, on his sixtieth birthday.

—Dr. Luigi Leynardi's 'La Psicologia dell' Arte nella Divina Commedia' (Turin: Loescher) is a diffuse, somewhat superficial, and not particularly original treatise on that most dangerous quicksand of literary criticism, the relation between the mind of the artist and his work. From Dr. Leynardi's elaborate and confusing classification of all Dante's recorded sensations and ideas we gather very little that is positive, though it is by no means certain that a trained investigator would not obtain interesting results from the same field. Two or three points in the book, however, are worth stating, as showing how scientific searchings of this sort sometimes come down at last to the same thesis which the scorned untechnical reader had long held without giving it a basis of statistical proof. Dante affirmed in the most solemn manner the truth of his fantastic journey through the centre of the earth, up the enormous mountain on the other side, and through the heavenly spheres, and many readers have been compelled to admit the paradox that this wholly irrational phantasy makes upon them the exact impression of a true narrative. After several readings of the 'Divine Comedy' it would be easier to convince the imagination that Stanley never saw Africa than that Dante never beheld with his own eyes the City of Dis. The reason, of course, is that Dante's great poem, like most great poems, owes its success to the fact that Dante's expression of what could not have been true was always in terms of what had been his actual sensations. Dante's cavernous underworld seems real, not because it is possible, but because it does not depart from a metamorphosed record of Dante's own precise sensations on the surface of the earth. Dr. Leynardi also appropriately calls attention to Dante's continued unwillingness to attempt the expression of situations or sensations that he thought beyond the range of normal human feeling, evading them by swooning or by some other clever subterfuge. It will be noticed that such occasions increase in number as the poem progresses.

—It is characteristic of the methods and life of to-day that histories of literature conceived on a large scale are usually broken off by the death of the author long before they are completed. Ten Brink and Morley both died at the moment when their self-imposed tasks grew most interesting and most important. The fate of the two great historians of Italian literature has been almost precisely similar. Gaspary, who much resembled Ten Brink in the character and composition of his work, died not long before Ten Brink, and, in the year of Morley's loss, the Italian journals lament the death, on May 16, at Genoa, of Prof. Adolfo Bartoli, who had published seven interesting volumes in his history of Italian literature, bringing the narrative down to Boccaccio. Bartoli was born in 1833, and, though educated as a lawyer, has been for forty years not only deeply engaged in historical and literary studies, but one of the foremost of Italian scholars. Since 1874 he has been professor of the history of Italian literature in the Istituto Superiore at Florence. Bartoli's style was somewhat diffuse, but it was sympathetic and individual, frequently brilliant, and always pleasantly unGermanic in tone and method. His treatment of Dante's life and work was especially interesting, both on account of his wide knowledge of contemporary biography and history, and through the pugnacious and acute scepticism that he brought to bear upon the tangled mass of gossip and information to which scholars had so often given a full and ready credence.

## MR. CONWAY IN THE HIMALAYAS.

*Climbing and Exploration in the Karakoram-Himalayas.* By William Martin Conway. Illustrated by A. D. McCormick. D. Appleton & Co. Pp. 709.

One of the most noteworthy books of the day, which at once attains the dignity of a classic in Alpine literature, is this of Mr. Conway's. The exploration was undertaken during the summer of 1892, at the expense of three English scientific associations—the Royal Geographical Society, the Royal Society, and the British Association. The region traversed by Mr. Conway is within the kingdom of Cashmere, the most northern of the British possessions in India; the Karakoram Mountains lying near or on the boundary between India and the Chinese Empire at this place. The mountain peaks range from 23,000 to 28,000 feet in height, maintaining glaciers of exceedingly great length. The valleys, which have an altitude of from 5,000 to 9,000 feet, support villages some of which are now army stations or forts. But two explorers preceded Mr. Con-

way in this region, the ever active soldier-naturalist, Col. Godwin-Austen, whose researches in zoölogy have made his name a household word among naturalists, and Capt. Younghusband. Neither of these surveys, however, is comparable with that of Mr. Conway in extent or in the value of the results. Of these results, the present volume sets forth the popular portion in the form of a journal of the expedition. The other material, including the natural-history collections, will be discussed by specialists, while the map, for which Mr. Conway made many surveys, will be cared for by the Royal Geographical Society.

The volume before us is the day-by-day record of the expedition, written up each evening from notes made during the day, and is delightful in each of many ways. Mr. Conway is a born explorer, a bright observer with a keen eye for the picturesque, a good naturalist, and he possesses the happy faculty of presenting the interesting phase of his observations. He is a mountaineer acquainted with the Alps and other mountain resorts of Europe, and by many references to these comparatively familiar scenes he is able to convey a very vivid idea of the magnificence of the Himalayas, where, to use his own expression, one is "jaded with appalling splendors of scenery." With the example of Whymper in the Andes as a model, he has had the highest incentive to strong and conscientious work, and of this his volume speaks for itself. The country which he describes is a remarkable one.

"A man coming into a land so new and strange," he says, "is s ricken and overpowered by the impression of the whole. He has no time to contemplate details with the lingering attention that makes the attainment of this or the other point seem desirable. Here was Nature working out her own will unhindered and unhelped by man. The naked skeleton of the world stood forth, with every stratum displayed and every mark of the sculpturing chisel undisguised."

Mr. Conway found himself in the midst of a strange people habitually subservient to their superiors. Did he encounter a group of peasants by the way, they ceased their work, and, with the local salutation, asked what were his commands. If there were none, they begged to be permitted to resume their labor. While they did possess some strong characteristics, personal responsibility and independent opinion were not among them. This is shown by many an amusing incident. When almost in sight of Gilgit, for instance, after inquiry of a native, they realized that he had never seen the fort nor the "Sahib." A second native was met. "Where does the Colonel Sahib live?" "That way." "How far off?" "Not far. A little way." "A mile?" "Yes, a mile." "Perhaps two miles?" "Yes, two miles." "Out with it, man! How many miles?" "As many as the Sahib pleases." Much of the way is through a region of little travel where the high road between the towns is a footpath, and the information about a mountain pass a few miles away is a mere, and misty, tradition. On some of the roads, however, in the compara tively low regions, the party found itself furnished with the local equipage, the "ekka." This is a two-wheeled cart with a flooring about on a level with the tops of the wheels, upon which the traveller squats, being protected from the sun by a sort of dome overhead. The driver has no seat provided for him, but perches wherever he can find room.

"Ekkas are never new, nor is the harness new. The thing seems tied together with string at all points; the strings are always coming loose, and the driver spends most of his time in tying them up. When the wheels come off they have to be tied on with strings wound about the end of the axle. The tires are fastened round the wheels with wooden wedges, which must be kept wet. If they dry, the tire comes off. An ekka horse is a mere anatomy. He is born very old, but he will jog along for ever."

Soon, however, the "ekka" could no longer aid them, and their journey lay along strange pathways, up steep slopes, across rugged glacial moraines, with an occasional rope bridge so tenuous and so "scary" that the travellers were forced on some of them to use the rope as if for ice-work.

Mr. Conway's story of the real ice-work, which forms naturally a very large portion of his volume, will fire the active Alpinist with enthusiasm and make him long to visit this wonderful land of snowy mountains. The trip included eighty-four days spent on snow and ice, the party traversing for the first time from end to end the three longest glaciers in the world outside the Polar regions. These glaciers, the Hispar, the Biafo, and the Baltoro, presented together nearly one hundred and twenty miles of almost continuous ice travel, incidental to which were the different ascents of the higher peaks that overlook the glaciers, and down whose steep ravines come the many tributaries to these great ice rivers. The story is full of charm and interest, but it is related in so modest a manner that, without at least a little experience above the snow-line, one can hardly arrive at a true estimate of the difficulties which were encountered. Mr. Conway must possess remarkable executive ability to have taken so large a party, including many native porters unused to the work and ill-prepared to withstand the rigors of the climate, and with them to have surmounted so successfully the obstacles which he met. For weeks at a time he remained at above 10,000 feet, making frequent dashes with his light party of experienced mountaineers into the higher regions of snow and ice, attaining at one time the summit of Crystal Peak, 19,400, and at another—his crowning achievement—the top of Pioneer Peak at an altitude of very nearly 23,000 feet. On all of these points, the plane-table and the camera were busily at work, and much valuable labor was accomplished which must have been exceedingly irksome at that great height, with the rarefied air and the exhaustion incident to so momentous a climb.

In whatever special matter relating to high ascents the reader may wish information, he will find that Mr. Conway has conscientiously recorded the facts which he has encountered, whether with reference to the nature of the snow and ice, the geological aspect of the country, the fauna and flora, the effects on the climbers of the rarefied air, the best form of portable cooking-stove, the most efficient kind of food, or the most serviceable sort of boots; not neglecting at the same time to note the many charming prospects from the many lofty viewpoints. Nor has his observation been limited to those matters pertaining strictly to the mountains, for he realizes that he is in a country new to the world in general, and he has made his story the more valuable and the more popular by consideration of many other matters of interest, including the architecture of the dwellings and temples, which he views with critical eye, the amusements and occupations of the people, which he lightens with many a quaint bit of conversation, and of course their manners, customs, and costumes and the prominent traits of their character. He picks up in this out-of-the-way place the germ of the "deserted farms" difficulty, which is now attracting so much attention in New England. "Now I want to know," he says, "about your valley. Why are so many fields waste and uncultivated?" "It is because we have so much else to do, carrying wood and things to Gilgit." Truly the elementary principle of concentration of business in cities!

Another bit of political economy comes to us in Mr. Conway's consideration of the valley of Hunza. Through a marvellous system of retaining walls of unpointed, Cyclopean masonry, the steep slope of the valley was centuries ago levelled off into little fields, perhaps a score of them to the acre, the whole tract covering some twenty-five square miles. For the irrigation of this, a canal was led across the face of a precipice, a work which even to the Swiss guide Zurbriggen was a wonder, surpassing in boldness of conception any *Wasserleitung* which he had ever seen. This is the more wonderful since it must have been all constructed by a people who were practically toolless. As a result of this excellent system, the country was well cultivated, "and the population increased to the extreme limits which the land could support. The smallest shrinkage in the food supply brought on famine, and then the only resource was war for the sake of plunder. Hence the Hunzakuts were forced to become a robber tribe. Their very virtues compelled them to it."

A description of the meals at Storage Camp, at a height of 14,210 feet, will be of interest to those who have ever had occasion to lunch or dine in a region of perpetual snow.

"It seemed to be a point of honor with Rahim Ali to feed us best when we were in the worst places. On the 14th of August it snowed all day, so he kept serving us with hot meals and continual supplies of soup or tea at intervals to fill up the time. Where the fresh milk came from I could not discover, unless he had a goat up his sleeve, and the fresh eggs were even more of a mystery. He gave us hot fresh herrings for breakfast, chops and a sweet omelette for lunch, soup, a joint, and scrambled eggs for dinner. He produced each dish with a grin like a conjurer."

But the party was not always blessed with such abundance, for in making the higher passes, with a less numerous retinue, they could not carry such stores, and they found that the bases of supplies upon which they depended were often themselves but badly stocked. On coming down into the camp at Mir, famine nearly overtook them.

"Flour was giving out, and the Raja of Nagyr sent a letter saying that there was none to be had there. The bottom of the tin was visible through our last spoonful of salt. We had at the outside sugar enough for two days, and but six pipes of tobacco. Such was our condition when a *dâk wala* was seen approaching with a box on his back. 'Stores from Gilgit!' was the immediate cry; nor were we disappointed. We prised the box open, and found untold treasures sent to us by that admirable Roberts, whom we fell to blessing in all the languages. Salt, lots of it—sugar, a whole bag—tobacco, and, great Scott! jam!"

Such is Mr. Conway's book, the story of remarkable achievements in mountain-climbing, charmingly presented and of excellent scientific work, clearly stated, with interesting relations of the many novelties which in this strange country impressed themselves upon the traveller. There runs throughout the volume the strong thread of the daily camp-life, with its many incidents and its many bright sketches of the chief members of the party, without a notice of which it would be unjust to dismiss the book. No little interest attaches to the sturdy Bruce, a true English-

man, stout and clear-headed, ever ready in an emergency with his lion's strength and his undaunted courage. To him the fording of a waist-deep raging mountain torrent seemed but a pastime, while the skipping back through a half day's progression for a forgotten tobacco-pouch or some knicknack was but an hour or two of healthful exercise. The excellent Swiss guide, Zurbriggen, mountaineer, philosopher, and jack-of-all-trades, with his quaint phrases and musings, is a strongly drawn character-study, and hardly less interesting are Harkbir, the best of the natives, Rahim Ali, the steward, and the other campers, not forgetting Pristi, the dog. As a character in the story, Mr. McCormick, the artist, bears no small part, but this is absolutely dwarfed by the consideration due him as the illustrator of the book—a place almost as creditable as that of Mr. Conway himself. His sketches add the touch needed to make the story of the Himalayas the more complete, suggesting here the Alps or the Dolomites and there the sharp slopes of the Caucasus, while in their artistic merit they form a fitting counterpart to their literary setting.

## HITTELL'S MENTAL GROWTH OF MANKIND.—II.

*A History of the Mental Growth of Mankind in Ancient Times.* By John S. Hittell. 4 vols. Henry Holt & Co. 1893.

THE chapter on the Ancient Jews, with which the third volume begins, is a curious production. What one expects is a statement, free from animus or *Tendenz*, of the moral, social, and political condition of the Hebrews, as well as a sketch of the development of their religion. The latter would necessitate some words on the latest results of Old Testament criticism, and a definition of the author's position with regard to those results. The scientific historian of culture would discuss these matters as calmly as he would discuss the discovery of logarithms. But Mr. Hittell loses his equanimity as soon as he gets well into any subject which concerns the Christian religion. He has two ends in view in writing the present chapter: one is his proper business, as just defined; the other is, to assail the Hebrew Scriptures. The latter object soon gets complete control of him, and, instead of a scientific appreciation of what the Hebrews have done for civilization, we have a rather violent pamphlet attempting to prove that the Jewish Bible "is a production of natural evolution," and that the Hebrews "never were the exclusive favorites of Heaven by an unjust and insulting preference over other peoples." We cannot conceive why these two propositions should concoct the author's spirits to so fervent a heat, or why he should step aside from his subject to demonstrate their truth. Nobody would have been astonished if he had simply postulated them, leaving argument to those whose vocation it is to deal with Biblical criticism.

The rest, or more than three-fourths, of this third volume is devoted to Greece. In his opening remarks on Early Greece (40 pages) Mr. Hittell holds that in industry, commerce, the practical arts, and originality of religious and scientific systems the Greeks were inferior to other nations, and that their superior political and military institutions formed their contributions to culture. The lack of any hint here at superiority in literature or in natural or educated intelligence is one of the strange omissions constantly to be noted when the author is generalizing. On the latter topic we find little or nothing anywhere, but as regards literature amends are made, so far as one can make them who has not read the original writers, in the special chapter on that subject (40 pages).

Prehistoric Greece and Greek ethnology are very scantily treated. The bibliography appended to the volume does not show that Mr. Hittell has ever read a single one of the many books or articles on excavations in Greek lands, whether on prehistoric or historic sites. He does not seem to set a high enough value on Homer as a document for the early period. To take up a small matter as an example: the first book of the 'Iliad' would have shown him that the king in heroic times was not the interpreter of omens, and that the priest was not always his subordinate. We cannot learn from the bibliography what translation of the epics he used (for, as we have hinted above, Mr. Hittell knows the classics only at second hand), and his reference to the Homeric question makes one doubt whether he really knows what that question is. But the chief fault in this part of the work is the utter absence of the modern comparative method in dealing with the early history of a race. There is hardly a hint that the early Greeks in their manners and customs resembled any other people in the world.

In the first of the Greek chapters the political and military establishments of Sparta are treated, and in the next two (100 pages) those of Athens, Thebes, and Macedon. Here Mr. Hittell is at his best, and gives a plain, succinct, and remarkably accurate account of these departments. But when we come to the Greek religion, we find sad deficiencies again. Out of the thirty pages devoted to this subject one-third are given up to a collection of those famous responses of oracles which "every school-boy knows." This is nearly all beside the subject, and betrays an utter lack of a sense of proportion. There is a fair account of the ordinary practice of religion by private individuals, but next to no attempt to point out the connection between the religious customs of the Greeks and those of earlier nations, and not a word about any influence which they have had upon the religions of later times. No satisfactory treatment is there of the survivals of older and barbarous rites. It is true that Mr. Hittell mentions in passing the occurrence of human sacrifice, but he believes that its occasional appearance was due less to the preservation of an Aryan custom than to the imitation of the rites of contemporary Phœnicians. On the significant "dummy" human sacrifices he has nothing. Ethics, too, is dismissed in a cavalier style, and the author does not seem to be acquainted with Schmidt's great work. The volume ends with short chapters on Industry and on Society.

Without any proper summing up we are hurried in the fourth volume from Greece to Rome. The introduction to the Roman chapters gives three pages to defining the "place" of Rome in the culture of mankind, right enough so far as they go. The greatest part of what follows is naturally devoted to military and legal institutions; for the rest, the method of treatment resembles that employed in the case of Greece. At the end of these chapters, if anywhere, we have a right to expect some general remarks—something about the relations of the Romans to the Etruscans and the Greeks on the one hand, and to the Germans and Celts and other subjugated barbarians on the other—some more elaborate estimate of the value and character of the contribution made by Rome to the "mental growth of mankind." But there is nothing of the sort. The chapter on Roman Society ends with the remark that "Comedians expected to derive more profit from lessons in elocution than from pay given directly for their services on the stage." The next chapter is on Early Christianity, and there is no transition.

This chapter, which closes the book, would be a surprise if the author had not already shown his teeth in the Old Testament diatribe. It opens with a tribute to the civilizing power of Christianity, but soon gets at work on what one is tempted to suspect is, after all, the main purpose of Mr. Hittell's whole book—a violent attack on Christian Evidences. This subject is his King Charles's head, and he cannot keep it out. We have neither time nor patience to follow him through this ill-arranged discussion, much of which is quite impertinent to the purposes of a history of culture. Mr. Hittell believes that Jesus was not a religious teacher, but the leader of a revolt against the Roman Empire which was nipped in the bud. "The theory that Jesus was not a religious teacher, and that, if he delivered any religious discourses, he used them merely as a pretext to conceal his political purpose," Mr. Hittell remarks, "is original with me, and is now published for the first time." This particular blast of the trumpet was not needed. We cannot congratulate Mr. Hittell upon his theory as a theory, nor have we much respect for the logical processes by which he undertakes to establish it. We dare say, however, that his views on Christianity would make an interesting brochure. Our objection to the present chapter lies in the obvious fact that the author has not merely lost sight of the proper purpose of a chapter on early Christianity in a history of culture, but that he has actually forgotten that he is writing such a work. At least, we can find no end to the book *qua* history. This controversial chapter comes to two conclusions, but neither of them can be the proper ending of an historical discourse "on the mental growth of mankind." Indeed, the last sentence of the work rather supports the suspicion that will occur to many, that Mr. Hittell's purpose in writing this book is chiefly to attack supernatural religion. We cannot ourselves make up our minds whether this suspicion is just; but we are inclined to think not. We should rather ascribe the facts that make for it to the author's lack of constructive literary skill.

We have criticised Mr. Hittell's book chiefly with regard to its sufficiency as a general history of culture in ancient times. We have no space to examine the accuracy of the infinity of details which the book necessarily includes. Many of them are drawn, with due credit, from standard works, and are therefore in the main correct, though there is sometimes an uncritical following of the vagaries of an accredited author, and not seldom a failure to check the statements of general treatises by the use of monographs. There are, however, many errors (some of them very gross) in the book, which would seriously interfere with its usefulness even if it were in general well constructed and clear.

On the whole, then, the specialist will not care for Mr. Hittell's lucubrations, and we cannot recommend them to the general reader. The author has considerable ability, and has acquired a respectable stock of miscellaneous information; but he is not qualified in learning, in breadth of mind, or in constructive power to write a satisfactory history of the mental growth of mankind.

*Verona, and Other Lectures.* By John Ruskin, D.C.L., LL.D., with illustrations from drawings by the author. Macmillan & Co. 1894.

It is fortunate that most men's minds are made up about the value of Mr. Ruskin's writings, but it might be matter for curious speculation what would be the effect of the present work upon one who had never read 'Modern Painters' or the 'Stones of Venice,' and knew nothing of their author. It is to be feared that such a reader would be much puzzled as to what to think of such a mixture of qualities and defects. He would not be swept away on a wave of enthusiasm, as so many of us were in the old days of the fifties and sixties. The performance is too slight a one for that; and the conviction all aflame which, in the earlier works, kindled those also who approached it is wanting here—a gentle schoolmasterly dogmatism by no means filling its place. Besides, the times are quite other; the Gothic revival and the Pre-Raphaelite movement are no more, and Carlyle is dead and has been sat upon in judgment. Nevertheless, if the ferment of those years be subsided, it has left some enduring traces on the consensus of educated opinion—some, too (such as the rise in esteem of the painters of the *quattrocento*), calculated to render the reader's disposition towards Mr. Ruskin more favorable. He would otherwise find plenty to admire. The sentences still follow one another in harmonious flow, and their charm is even enhanced by a sobriety that was often lacking in the former dithyrambic pages. Scarlet and amethyst and gold are no longer lavished on the canvas, but the pictures in more delicate tones are not less pleasing than the old splendors.

The book opens with a description of a drive up the hills above Verona that is very beautiful, and no doubt the more so for the reserve that has taken the place of the ancient striving to put into words the inexpressible. A similar change has taken place in the author's opinions. These have lost nothing in force from an increase in temperance that marks them, while his manners, from the same cause, show a decided improvement. The change, in places, amounts to a revolution. The following passage is perhaps the most striking example of what we mean:

"For other pictures of this class, there were two exquisite ones in the Winter Academy—a little Narcissus by Luini, and the Peter Martyr by John Bellini; the last very valuable, because you saw in a moment the main characteristic of the school—that it mattered not in the least to John, and that he doesn't expect it to matter to you, whether people are martyred or not, so long as one can make a pretty gray of their gowns, and a nice white of their sleeves, and infinite decoration of forest leaves behind, and a divine picture at last out of all. Everything in the world was done and made only that it might be rightly painted—that is the true master's creed.

"I used to think all this very wrong once, and that it meant general falseness and hardness of heart, and so on. It means nothing of the kind. It means only that one's whole soul is put into one's work; and that the entire soul so spent is healthy and happy, and cannot vex itself with questions, cares, or pains."

Now that takes all the meaning out of many pages of eloquent denunciation in the writer's former works, but nobody is the worse off for that; and to the new reader there is a decided gain in serenity of view—whatever may be his intimate persuasion with regard to the question of "art for art's sake." But he will be perplexed to reconcile the good things that he finds here and there with their surroundings, or to understand what manner of oracle this is that one moment rises to Delphic heights and the next sinks to the level of a Rosicrucian philosopher. Some of the lectures, as, *e. g.*, that entitled "The Tortoise of Aegina," are entirely of the latter order; but, in general, the main feature is what the French call the *décousu*. The lecturer says just what comes into his head, and, after a half-hour about "Shakspere and the musical glasses," finishes sometimes without even mentioning the subject announced at the beginning. Usually, however, he is not quite so forgetful. In the first lecture, which gives the title to the volume, "Verona and its Rivers," there is, indeed, something about Verona, as well as something about rivers, and—as well as about various other things; involving by the way the confession that Verona has but one river. "Nevertheless, Dante connects its name with that of the Po, when he says," etc., and that is enough for Mr. Ruskin, who immediately proceeds to connect it not only with that of the Po, but also with those of the Adda, the Ticino, the Rhone; and the rest of the lecture is about inundations.

In short, the unsophisticated reader whom we have imagined as taking up the book, would be in doubt twenty times within an hour as to whether the author were a sage or a "crank," but he would always find his pages pleasant reading, and sometimes even good reading. He would thus be in the state of mind in which many of the rest of us are plunged whenever we open a new work of Mr. Ruskin. The volume is illustrated with a number of drawings by the author, two of which are charming, and is furnished by its editor with a preface which is a real aid towards the reading of the subsequent pages, and an index which, for once in a way, seems an absurd luxury.

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*A Champion of the Cross:* Being the Life of John Henry Hopkins, S.T.D., including extracts from his sermons and writings. By Rev. Charles F. Sweet. James Pott & Co. 1894.

It seems to be the rule of late that biographies shall not be written by those to whom they are at first assigned. Thus, Dr. Hopkins's biography was at first given to his brother, who passed it over to Mr. Sweet because he had undertaken to complete Dr. Hopkins's work on "the history and true meaning of the Seventh General Council." The rational sequence is not evident, and the biographer's fitness for his task is not made so by the event. "I have," he says, "no apologies to make for the carelessness and scrappiness of the work, for I did as well as I could under the circumstances." He could hardly have done worse. The carelessness and scrappiness are such as to make any definite impression, or any appreciation of the sequence of events, almost impossible. Frequently, however, the biographer in his own person is more interesting than the subject of his biography. This is particularly so in his account of the relations of the Episcopal Church to the anti-slavery contest and the civil war. The sternest critics of that church in these relations have never asserted anything more damaging than Mr. Sweet confesses with naïve and generous pride. "Before the war," he says, "slavery issues were easily avoided, because the Low Church minority could not afford to divide its forces, and Massachusetts, South Carolina, Virginia, and Ohio were all in that minority together." "The Church was indeed," he says, "a haven of peace in those days," and in proof of this we have the following paragraph:

"The General Convention met at Richmond in 1859, in the midst of the excitement caused by the John Brown raid at Harper's Ferry, and it was like the rising of a rainbow from the angry storm-clouds menacing the nation, to see one great body of Christians, many of whose laymen were in high places in the State, meeting in the centre of disturbance, and not so much as a word spoken in convention that mentioned the obscene tumult raging all around."

In the same connection we have the history of the resolutions passed by the General Convention in 1862, "a series of resolutions which meant next to nothing," but intended to express the loyalty of the Church to the nation in its darkest hour. "This was the highest political movement that rose in the Church." As editor of the *Church Journal*, Dr. Hopkins took a leading part in opposing this action and all movements which attempted to commit the Church to one side or the other. She must be "neither for God nor for his enemies."

The editor again makes himself prominent and interesting in the concluding pages, where it is narrated that from his dying-bed Dr. Hopkins lifted up his voice in favor of Phillips Brooks's confirmation. What he said is not given, but we have instead an elaborate justification of the course of those who were opposed to Dr. Brooks's elevation to the bishopric. "The growth of the dishonest Broad Church party has," we are told, "become sturdy and vigorous. That they must be cast out of the church which they aim to overturn is evident. It was his known friendship for members of this revolutionary faction and the unmistakable drift of his teachings which caused the opposition to the election of Dr. Brooks to the episcopate." Mr. Sweet "cannot believe that Dr. Brooks was in heart disloyal to the faith notwithstanding his words." "But the episcopate is for the Church, and the evils dreaded have already made their appearance in the increasing vigor of liberalism in the Church." Dr. Hopkins's word for Dr. Brooks entailed the loss of "those monthly intercessions of a society which prays for the souls of clergymen who die in the faith."

The last act of Dr. Hopkins's life was not in harmony with its general course. He was never a Broad Churchman, but a leader of the so-called Catholic party, opposing himself on the one hand to the Low Churchmen, and on the other to the "High and Dry." The Oxford Movement, and later the Ritualistic, found in him the warmest sympathy and an advocacy that did not mince its words. Delighting in controversy, he used the strongest language he could find to express his contempt for his opponents. At the same time he had a warm and generous heart, and he did not understand why those whom he opposed should object to his classification of them with knaves and fools. They objected seriously, and at a critical moment of his life they took their revenge—preventing his confirmation to a lectureship in the General Theological Seminary, to accept which he had given up his rectorship in Pennsylvania. This hurt him more than the Broadway horse-car which knocked him down and caused his death after a long period of suffering.

He was the eldest son of Bishop Hopkins of Vermont, to write whose Life he gave up the *Church Journal*, which he edited from 1853 to 1872. He was extremely versatile: a poet of some merit, a writer of hymns and church music, including a famous carol, "Three Kings of Orient"; a maker of ecclesiastical

symbols and vestments; a designer of church plate and ornament; an authority on church architecture. Ordained a deacon in 1850, he was not made a priest till 1874. Controversy was his meat and drink, and from his biography one learns how sweet and pleasant it is for brethren to dwell together in unity by the spectacle at every turn of quite the opposite development of mutual regards.

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*Scottish Gypsies under the Stewarts.* By David Macritchie. Edinburgh: David Douglas.

BORROW'S fascinating books were the first to awaken popular interest of a friendly kind in the gypsies, which has resulted lately in the establishment of a "Gypsy Lore Society," regularly issuing in Edinburgh a high-class journal devoted to the enlightenment of the public as to this remarkable race. Mr. Macritchie is one of the editors of this journal, and it is quite apposite that from Scotland, which exceeded other countries in its bitter persecutions of the gypsies, should come in later days the most accurate and broad information as to their true character and the conditions under which they lived.

Although gypsies were known to exist in Scotland much earlier, the first band distinctly visible was in 1505, and the famous family of Faa or Faw was made the subject of a decree banishing George and John Faw and their company from Aberdeen in 1540. It is curious that, only four days before the date of this decree of the bailies of Aberdeen, King James the Fifth, who seemed more friendly to the gypsies than his predecessors, signed a writ in the Privy Council of Scotland relating to John Faw, in which he was treated with partiality and given evidence of the King's friendship. This writ is quoted by Mr. Crockett in his recent delightful book 'The Raiders,' of which John Faw is the hero; and it is also a fact that John Faw was actually in possession of letters under the great seal of Scotland commanding all officers of justice to assist him "in execution of justice upon his company and folk conform to the laws of Egypt and in punishment of all those that rebel against him." The Faa family is still extant.

There have been in Scotland during the last century some gypsy families of light complexion and hair, with light eyes. It is very doubtful if these were true gypsies, as the real Romany blood has almost always proved so strong that even a small admixture of it gives the eyes, features, and complexion of the old and pure race, the same influence that generations of unmixed blood on one side is found to have in crossing the lower animals. One of the most remarkable features of this curious people is that it has preserved for so many centuries, and under such different and often unfavorable conditions, the ancient physical and moral types, as well as the language; so that the gypsy of Spain and Hungary resembles unmistakably his British brother and has a language substantially the same.

The Scottish gypsies, perhaps encouraged by the royal countenance in the writ of 1540, made themselves so obnoxious by their thefts and pillaging that the following year another proclamation was issued against "Jhone Faw and his brether, and Sebastiane Lowlaw Egyptianis," that they "with thair wifis, barnis and companeis," should depart from the realm within thirty days under the pain of death. While this caused the Faws to cross the border temporarily into England, they returned in a few years, and in 1553 "John Faw Lord and Earl of Little Egypt" appears to have been in favor, though his former protector James V. was dead and the country under a regency. At this period and for some time after, the law did not take cognizance of crimes committed by gypsies upon each other, leaving the administration of justice on such offenders to the gypsies themselves. Various interesting instances growing out of this state of affairs are given by Mr. Macritchie, who also tells of a trial in 1612 of several members of the Faw family for different offences. One of them, Katharine by name, pleaded guilty to having slain her husband with a knife, and for this she was sentenced to be "drowned to death in the sea." Her counsel pleaded that "it was not usual to take cognisance of murder among the Egyptians." Up to the present day the right of a gypsy to beat his wife is unquestioned by gypsy women, and is spoken of by them, married and single, as something perfectly proper of infliction for cause. The Scottish gypsies in the sixteenth century also appear to have taken up the profession of strolling players and mountebanks, and in the latter half of it produced several plays at Roslin Castle, one of them being the play of Robin Hood.

A great many enactments were made against the gypsies as such and as thieves and murderers and strong, masterful beggars, and against those who sustained and countenanced them. In 1576 especially an edict was issued, commanding all Egyptians to present themselves at the Tolbooth in Edinburgh to suffer trial and judgment for such crimes as they might be suspected of; such as did not come being considered as thieves and murderers. A trial is recorded wherein one gypsy thief named Alexander Stuart was sentenced to death at Perth in 1701, but his sentence was commuted to perpetual servitude, and he was given as "perpetual servant to Sir John Areskine of Alva." Many fled the kingdom, many were deported to the British plantations in Virginia, Jamaica, and Barbados; many suffered death, and in the records of the Tolbooth, under date of July 10, 1657, "seven Egyptians, men and women, were scourged through Edinburgh and banished the nation," with "certification" given that if they returned, they should be executed. In spite of all these persecutions and punishments, the gypsies continued to survive, becoming somewhat more amenable to the law, but still, up to 1714, the end of the period which the volume covers, harried and pursued by the authorities.

Mr. Macritchie's book is as full of interest and incident as of the results of careful historical research, and it is to be hoped he will continue to publish his investigations of the same subject, bringing them down to the present day.

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*L'Autriche Contemporaine.* Par Raoul Chélard. [Les Grandes Puissances à la fin du XIXe Siècle.] Paris: Léon Chailley. 1894.

THIS is the first of a series of special treatises on the principal European countries, and deals with Cisleithania only, Hungary being reserved for a separate volume. The author spent more than two years in Austria, and gathered a large amount of varied information, much of it from good sources, concerning the history, geography, political, economic and social condition of the various races of the empire. He has, however, not succeeded in producing an interesting book. The matter is ill-arranged and the treatment often dry. The historical portion predominates to an unconscionable extent, in a work designed to be primarily of contemporaneous interest. Topics relating to France are dwelt upon at great length. Thus, there are thirty pages on the occupation of Vienna by the French in 1805 and 1809, and there is much learned genealogical talk about Austrian noblemen of French descent and the French colony of Vienna, although there are barely 2,500 Frenchmen, all told, in Austria. This want of perspective becomes all the more glaring when we find entire provinces, like Styria and Carinthia, relegated to a footnote, because the author fears to tire his readers with a description of their geographical features. Twenty-two pages are devoted to the struggles of the Czechs against the aggressions of the Germans—as the author views the matter—prior to Maria Theresa, while only a page is given to all the subsequent history of Bohemia, culminating in the erection of the National Theatre at Prague, which called forth "un délire patriotique, une extase, un triomphe, une fièvre, une manifestation du patriotisme comme la France seule en a offert des exemples." Twenty pages are required for "Viennese music," half of that space being taken up with Mozart, possibly because "il est hors de doute que les ancêtres de Mozart étaient d'origine française"; but nineteen lines suffice for a summary of Viennese science, which is rendered all the more grotesque by an attempt to characterize the achievements of the few scientists mentioned: "Meynert, le fondateur de l'anatomie du cerveau"; "Édouard Suess, . . . dont les theories sur la formation des montagnes sont les plus répandues," etc.

Literature in Vienna fares somewhat better, and the sketch of Grillparzer is quite readable, although there is an implied grossness not borne out by the facts in the statement, "Vivant maritalement avec une demoiselle Catherine Froelich, femme d'une grande beauté, et avec laquelle il était officiellement fiancé, et bien que l'aimant tendrement et n'ayant rien à lui reprocher, il ne l'a cependant jamais épousée." But also, in speaking of literary men, the author betrays the irritating pretentiousness of second-hand knowledge. No one who had read a line of Lenau, for instance, could have failed to notice that strain of melancholy which is inseparably connected with his name. But all that M. Chélard has to say of him is: "Quant à son lyrisme, il est plus monotone que celui de Heine, par exemple, mais, par contre, d'un caractère beaucoup plus doux." Occasionally exaggerated statements like "Un Bavarois et un Viennois se comprendront en effet aisément, tandis qu'un Berlinois ne comprendra pas plus un Viennois qu'un Chinois"; or an awkward phrase like "Nous faisons figurer les juifs en tête des races diverses, parce que leur présence en Autriche remonte au temps de Jésus-Christ," show a carelessness unusual in French writers; but, on the other hand, there are fewer misprints than might have been expected in a work of this kind. A number of illustrations, mostly borrowed from Crown Prince Rudolph's work on 'Die Oesterreichisch-Ungarische Monarchie in Wort und Bild,' constitute an attractive feature of the work, which, while not distinguished by the philosophic grasp of a Leroy-Beaulieu or the minute accuracy of a Baedeker, will be found useful by the general reader.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Blum, Dr. Hans. Fürst Bismarck und seine Zeit. Zweiter Abdruck. Munich: Oskar Beck; New York: Westermann.

Bormann, Edwin. Das Shakespeare-Geheimniss. Leipzig. New York: G. E. Stechert; B. Westermann.

Brady, Prof. J. E. Women in Roman Literature. Northampton, Mass.: The Author.
Brine, Vice-Admiral Lindesay. Travels amongst American Indians. London: Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Scribners. $5.
Brisson, Adolphe. Portraits Intimes. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie
Browne, Walter. "2894"; or, the Fossil Man. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Buchheim, Prof. C. A. Halm's Griseldis. Oxford: Clarendon Press: New York: Macmillan.
Burke, Sarah J. Fairy Tales for Little Readers. London: Walter Scott; New York; A. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
Burnham, Hampden. Adeline Gray: A Tale. Wynkoop & Hallenbeck. 25 cents.
Carmina Principia: The University Song Book. Newark, N. J.: M. R. Dennis & Co.
Caro, Madame E. L'Idole. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Charles Eitel.
Chester, Evelyn. Miss Derrick. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Christian, Sydney. Sarah: A Survival. Harpers. 50 cents.
Clegg, T. T. David's Loom: A Story of Rochdale Life. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Cobban, J. McL. The Red Sultan. Rand, McNally & Co. 75 cents.
Collier, Price. Mr. Picket-Pin and his Friends. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 23, 1894.*

## The Week.

It is quite plain from the tone of Mr. McKinley's utterances that he fears his Presidential prospects have been ruined by the elimination of the tariff as an issue in the next campaign. He cannot reasonably expect that so mild a tariff reduction as the Senate bill contains will bring sufficient ruin upon the country, especially after a period of prolonged depression, to enable him to appeal to the people two years hence in behalf of a higher tariff. The chances are all in favor of a revival of business and industry, which, if it comes, will have the effect of convincing the people that tariff reduction is a good thing. This is clearly the expectation of so competent an observer as Senator Allison, who says that the new bill is "a moderate measure that will do less harm to the industries of the country than the Wilson bill would have done," and that he does not look for future tariff legislation to repeal this bill for a long time. This confirms our view that the Republicans have lost the tariff issue.

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What remains? First, there is the popular disgust with the Democratic party's incompetence and disregard of its pledges in Congress—what President Cleveland has called its "perfidy and dishonor." This disgust is widespread and deep, and if the year's elections were to be held to-morrow, its effect upon the result could hardly fail to be disastrous to the Democratic party. But if better times come, a great deal of this disgust will wear off between now and November. Our people have short memories in political matters. Then, too, the President is not included in this hostile feeling which exists against members of his party. The Republicans who are quoting his letter to Mr. Wilson are helping to show the country that he was honest and earnest in his course, and that he would have accomplished his wishes but for the opposition of a little group of protectionist Democrats in the Senate. In the Democratic party itself, there is bitter hostility felt against Brice, Gorman, Smith, and Camden, but it is personal to these men, and few Democratic voters will leave their party because these discredited members of it happened to be in control of the Senate, and were thus able to defeat the party's policy and the wishes of the party's President. In other words, the great body of Democratic voters are not going to leave their party because five or six Senators have prevented the party from keeping its pledges.

The President's letter to Chairman Wilson will still be adjudged a huge blunder by all who know no criterion but the event. In a certain sense, that criterion is a fair one to apply to such an innovation in modern American politics. If it succeeded in its immediate and practical aim, it would justify itself; otherwise its wisdom would remain doubtful. But there are other aims than immediate ones and other results than practical ones, and these must be taken into consideration in making up a candid judgment on the President's letter. For a good analogy, go back to his open protest against the election of Murphy to the United States Senate. That was an unprecedented thing, a bold interference with the party leaders and the Legislature. Moreover, it was a thorough failure, practically. Murphy was elected, and the President-elect was humiliated, and his outspoken opposition to the machine was a gross blunder. But was it? Has time proved Mr. Cleveland right or wrong in maintaining that Murphy was not a fit man to represent New York Democrats in the United States Senate? Let the man's senatorial career answer. Does any other State envy New York the possession of a representative whose name has gone through the country covered with ridicule and abhorrence in about equal proportions? Is it a good thing or a bad thing for the President and for the decent members of his party, that he publicly washed his hands in advance of a man who has since shown how easy it is to carry a municipal election by terrorism and murder? There cannot be two opinions about this. The blunder has turned out a most fortunate thing for Mr. Cleveland, his repudiation of the New York Senator having antedated by only a couple of years the emphatic repudiation of that gentleman by the party as a whole.

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Mr. Cleveland's tariff message of 1887 was another of those bold moves of his which contemporary wisdom made haste to set down as a terrible blunder. It carried him and his party down to defeat. But somehow the blunder worked out a victorious party programme, and the President has a chance in 1894 to sign a bill for free wool for which he pleaded in 1887 in that fatally mistaken message. It is too soon for any one positively to affirm that his letter to Mr. Wilson may not, in like manner, turn out to be simply a blazing in advance the path of his party and the country. But even if it does not, and the letter be considered a failure from a practical or political point of view, personally and morally it is one of those things which do not need to appeal to success for justification. As long as courage and honesty and plain-speaking have a value of their own, apart from results, so long will fair-minded men judge well of the President's exhibition of those virtues in his letter of July 2.

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Senator Vest fully confirms Chairman Wilson's assertion, that the reason a tariff bill satisfactory to the Democratic party could not be passed is that the Senate is not Democratic. Out of the forty-four nominal Democratic Senators only thirty-eight are real Democrats. The others are, as the Indiana Democratic platform put it, simply "masquerading as Democrats" to serve their own private gain. This raises in its most serious form, for the Democrats, the whole question of government by party. We have heard a great deal of the evils of party government, but none of them can ever be so great, under present conditions, as the entire breaking down of party government. If the instrument of party, taken in hand by a majority of voters to accomplish their will, breaks in two in their hands, then they will have to devise some new way of getting what they want done. Their first move, of course, will be to try the party which has not broken in two. If that one goes the same way, then they will have to set their wits to work to invent some new way of governing. It follows that the first duty of the Democratic party is to reconstruct itself into a weapon that will hold together. The Indiana platform has made a good beginning in practically reading out of the party the men who have betrayed it. This should be followed up in all the State and congressional conventions to come. Such action cannot even diminish the present chances of Democratic success in the fall elections. Without it the Democratic party will remain hopelessly discredited for years to come.

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We gladly welcome Senator Vest to the ranks of the civil-service reformers. In his speech last week he showed that he has become completely disgusted with the methods inseparable from the spoils system, and that he has learned by experience the great gain which comes to a public man when he is relieved from this humiliating servitude. Defending himself from the charge that he had private grievances against the President, Mr. Vest said:

"I wish to acknowledge, in the most public manner, my gratitude to the President for having relieved me from all responsibility in regard to appointments in Missouri. If there is anything in my public life which has afforded me any pleasure, real and substantial, it has been the fact that the President, in the exercise of his constitutional right, of which I do not complain, informed me that he no longer desired my advice in regard to Missouri

patronage. Not again during this administration will I stand in a crowded anteroom looking into the anxious and haggard faces of expectant office-holders. Not again will I be admitted in the august presence, nor will I watch the shadows—possibly produced by indigestion—that flit across the executive brow, and feel my heart sink as each shadow comes and goes. Not again will I be damned at country post-offices, upon village corners, as an ingrate who has given no offices to his friends."

Now that he has been released from all the troubles and complications involved in dispensing the spoils, Mr. Vest says that he can "fight for my principle, my party, my country," and he evidently enjoys the privilege. It is a great thing to get such a tribute to the advantages of civil-service reform from a veteran politician.

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The income tax has been so beaten about and amended during its passage through Congress that the public are naturally at a loss to know what its exact terms and effect will be. Its main features may be briefly stated. On personal incomes it is a tax of 2 per cent. on all amounts above $4,000. The tax is to be levied on and after January 1, 1895, and is to be payable on or before the first day of July, 1895. It is to be assessed on the income received "in the preceding calendar year"—that is, for the first levy, the calendar year of 1894. If the tax is not paid on or before July 1, a penalty of 5 per cent. on the amount unpaid, with interest at 1 per cent. a month, will be levied in addition. The law specifies a great many things that shall be reckoned in, in making up the annual income: profits in business, interest on notes, bonds, and other securities, money and personal property acquired by gift or inheritance, salaries. It also specifies many deductions that are to be made—"necessary expenses" in carrying on business, interest due or paid, State and local taxes, "losses sustained," worthless debts, dividends received from corporations which themselves pay an income tax. All persons having an income of more than $3,500 a year, must make a return to the collector. The corporation tax is likewise of 2 per cent. on net profits or income, payable at the same time and for the same period as the individual tax. Exemption is made of charitable and religious corporations, savings banks (under certain limitations), building and loan associations, and fraternal and mutual insurance associations. As in the case of the individual tax, the law goes into many details as to what shall be counted in as net profits and what deductions may be made. The law is to remain in force five years, unless extended, and doubtless within that time there will come to be a whole library of decisions on the disputed points of the intricate and, in many sections, confusing measure. We may note finally the estimate of the chief of the Bureau of Statistics, that the returns from individual incomes will be small, barely covering the cost of collection, but that the revenue derived from corporations may be expected to amount to anywhere from $12,000,000 to $39,000,000 yearly.

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The Trenton potters are ruined again. We suspected it. They are always being ruined by the tariff. If it is put up on their wares they are ruined, if it is put down they are ruined, and if it is let alone they are ruined. McKinley raised their protection by 7 per cent., and the blow was so deadly that they straightway went home and reduced wages 22 per cent. Then about eleven months ago they found that they were ruined again, and reduced wages 30 per cent. more. The operatives struck, and remained idle while the potters in the Trust were working off their stocks at monopoly prices, until last July, when a solemn agreement was signed at Washington between men and masters that a reduction of 12½ per cent. in wages should go into effect for "twelve months from July 11, 1894." In this agreement nothing was said about the tariff, and both parties to it denied that there was any compact bearing on the change of the tariff. Now, however, one manufacturer asserts that there was a tacit understanding on both sides that Senator Smith was to shove up the duties by 30 per cent. The reason why this was not put in the agreement, says this innocent manufacturer, is "obvious": "Neither Senator Smith nor any member of either committee wished to put in writing that he had agreed to make the duty on crockery 40 and 45 per cent., because that might prevent what we all so much desired to accomplish." Anyhow, agreement or no agreement, the potters know when they are ruined, and ruined they are again by the new tariff. Wages have got to come down 12½ per cent. more. But, as the *Tribune's* special from Trenton informs us, wages under the McKinley tariff had to come down 30 per cent., which would seem to leave the new tariff several points ahead.

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Whenever there is a great labor disturbance, there is sure to be a demand for some new law to regulate the relations between employers and employed. The Michigan Republicans at their recent convention demanded the enactment of a law to carry out the provision of the State Constitution, adopted forty years ago, which provides for the establishment of courts of conciliation, with such powers and duties as shall be prescribed by law. There does not seem to have been a delegate in the convention who supposed that anything had ever been done by the Legislature in the way of carrying out this provision of the Constitution, but a mousing newspaper man has discovered that the Legislature of 1889 passed a law providing for "the amicable adjustment of grievances and disputes that may arise between employers and employees, and to authorize the creation of State courts of mediation and arbitration." The measure was, however, so severely amended during its passage that the word "may" was substituted for the word "shall" in the directions to the Governor about appointing the members of the proposed court, and no executive has used the discretion given him. Indeed, it is probable that, if the judges had been appointed, they would have had no real power, and their decisions would have been binding on nobody. The incident shows the carelessness with which lawmakers generally act when they conclude to "do something" in the interest of "labor."

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For pure and unadulterated nonsense the labor plank of the Iowa Republican platform may defy competition. Here it is:

> "The welfare of the laborer and the maintenance of the dignity of labor have been the constant care of the Republican party from its birth. Its whole history is an effort to secure to the wage-worker his just share of the fruits of toil, and it now renews its pledges to defend the workingman not only against the assaults of foreign competition, but against the attacks of domestic avarice."

This resolution was adopted while the Debs rebellion was fresh in the public mind; indeed, the meeting of the convention had to be postponed because of the interruption of railroad communication caused by this rebellion. But not a word was said about any of the issues involved in that outbreak; not even a censure of the lawlessness which had caused the postponement of the convention. Instead of something clear and positive, there was constructed this singular "pledge" to defend the workingman. Nobody attempted to explain what it meant, but "labor" will be urged to vote the ticket on the ground that it has been promised something.

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The great strike at Chicago has already so completely passed into history that it is doubtful if many people read the testimony given before the Government commission of investigation. Very probably no new light will be thrown upon the affair by this testimony, but there are occasional gleams from it deserving attention. Mr. Debs was epigrammatic in his reply to Commissioner Kernan's question as to what remedy was possible for labor troubles. "A Government ownership of railroads was better than a railroad ownership of Government." He was also safe in declaring that Government ownership of railroads would not result in much benefit to the laboring classes. It is suggestive to learn that he attributes the failure of the strike, not to

the appearance of the United States army, but to the action of the courts. This, he says, prevented him and his associates from issuing their orders and demoralized their followers. Doubtless there is a good deal of truth in this, but it would be difficult to disentangle the effects of the two causes. For his own part, Mr. Debs declares, he did not bring on the strikes, although he supported them loyally after they had been ordered by the Union, and he expresses the optimistic conviction that the Union is now stronger than ever. Nothing is further from the purposes of this body, it seems, than violence; and such expressions as "buy a gun" are to be taken in a purely Pickwickian sense. The use of "playful expressions" of this kind, however, when large numbers of men are on strike and ready for riot, is an indiscretion very much like lighting a pipe in the vicinity of a powder magazine. The intention of an act is properly to be inferred from its usual and natural consequences.

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The overthrow of the Milholland faction has had the beneficial effect of removing the "straight-ticket" danger almost entirely from the local political field. At no previous time has the prospect for a harmonious agreement of all anti-Tammany elements upon a non-partisan ticket been brighter than it is to-day. An excellent spirit has pervaded all the recent conferences which have been held; the hearty declaration of the German Reform Union that, in the selection of candidates, national party claims should be disregarded, and capacity, honesty, and character made the sole requirements, being typical of the feeling which pervades all the participating organizations. The plan followed with such good results in Brooklyn before Mr. Schieren's nomination is being imitated as closely as possible. Under that, it will be remembered, a conference was held between a committee representing the Republican organization and committees representing four other anti-McLaughlin organizations, at which a list of names of candidates for mayor was agreed upon. This list was submitted to the Republican city convention, and the second name upon it, that of Mr. Schieren, was taken by the convention as its candidate. All the other organizations thereupon gave their formal approval, and Mr. Schieren became the anti-ring candidate. There was no partisanship whatever in the choice, and the union of all opposing elements was made possible because each was willing to sacrifice its personal prominence and become merely a factor in the movement.

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After the tearful interest of the Republicans in Hawaii, it was only natural that a Republican party should be organized in those isles of the blest. That solemn event took place on July 30, and a platform of twenty-two mortal planks was adopted. One of them, of course, declared for annexation, so that Hawaiian Republicanism might blend with our own. That the blending is not to be done from the other direction, however, is clear from that plank which "strenuously opposes the importation of persons from abroad to fill Government positions so long as there are loyal residents of the republic competent to occupy them." Thus it appears that there will be no opportunity for our decayed Republican statesmen to go to Hawaii and grow up with the offices. Other planks of the Hawaiian Republicans "favor a graduated income tax," "advocate the perpetuation of systems of public works in order that the surplus labor population, except Asiatics, may be afforded employment," and "demand the repeal of the obnoxious and iniquitous Sunday law." We see no reason why, after this profession of political faith, two delegates from Hawaii should not be admitted to the next Republican national convention.

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The London *Economist* of August 11 has an article on the wheat harvest of 1894, taking into consideration the crops of Europe and America only. It finds a very bountiful harvest in the United Kingdom, but on a diminished acreage, so that the total yield will be only 6,000,000 bushels greater than last year. The French harvest is unusually large, say 320,000,000 bushels in all. In Spain, Portugal, Italy, Germany, Holland, and Belgium there is a considerable gain over last year. In Austria-Hungary and the neighboring countries there is a considerable deficiency as compared with last year, and the same may perhaps be said of Russia also, but the reports from the latter country are conflicting. The harvest of the United States is put somewhere between 400,000,000 and 475,000,000 bushels. The conclusion of the *Economist* is that "both Europe and America will probably produce less than the quantities grown in 1893; but unless other parts of the world fall off greatly, the total production can hardly fall below a year's consumption, while there are still remnants of the great accumulations of the last three years to clear off, so that there is nothing at present to indicate any substantial improvement in the price of wheat."

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We have referred to the way the socialists in Roubaix and Saint-Denis have had a free course and been glorified and got those municipalities deeply into debt. Reports from other French cities where the socialists are in control show a similar state of affairs, and make it clear that, for taxpayers, it is not only the first step in practical socialism which costs, but every succeeding step as well. Some municipal councils now in socialistic hands are restrained by the veto of the prefects on their making free with public money. This is the case in Paris, where the Prefect of the Seine has for years been disallowing the appropriations of the Council. About the only thing the Paris socialists have finally got by him is their bill to raise their own salaries, which are now fixed at $1,200 a year. This is the way they carry out their professed determination to "reduce the pay of municipal officers to the maximum earnings of workingmen." Perpignan has been having a delightful experience with its socialistic municipal council. When it came into power it found a surplus of $25,000. After four years it went out leaving a deficit of $120,000 and the city bankrupt. Examination of accounts showed vast sums spent by the councillors on costly furniture for the public buildings, on punch and cigars for their official consumption, and on journeys made by them here and there to confer with other socialists as to the best way of spending public funds. Somewhat similar experiences have been had in Saint-Ouen, Lyons, and Marseilles. They give point to the growing conviction of the world that socialism may be very fine, but that it comes high.

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A curious case growing out of the Chilian war has just been decided in England by the Court of Appeal. The Chilian Government sued the London and River Plate Bank for the return of 338 bars of silver deposited with it by Balmaceda as security for advances made him by the bank. Some $40,000 was advanced on the bullion in July, 1891, and as to this the Chilian Government makes no complaint; but on August 29, a further sum of $530,000 was advanced, and this, the plaintiffs averred, should be set aside, inasmuch as Balmaceda had been defeated on August 28, and had definitely resigned by 12:30 on August 29. The point was that his Government had ceased to be even *de facto* when the money was advanced, and that the bank should have known that the silver really belonged to the successful revolutionists. But it was rejoined that the bank had no certain or official knowledge of the fall of Balmaceda, and, if the rumor of his collapse had proved false, would have been liable in enormous damages for failing to live up to its contract with him. This view was sustained by the court and the case was dismissed. The Master of the Rolls laid down the doctrine that you do not need to ascertain the constitutional warrant of a *de facto* government before doing business with it.

*THE PRINCIPAL TARIFF CHANGES.*

THE most important change in the new tariff is that relating to wool and woollen goods, by which the raw material is made free and the duties on the manufactured articles are reduced to 30 per cent. on yarns, 40 per cent. on cloths, and 45 per cent. on dress goods. The reduction on these articles is chiefly in the specific rates, or pound duties so called, which were imposed to offset the duties on wool. These pound duties were in some cases very onerous, ranging from 16½ cents on blankets to 60 cents on dress trimmings and on the higher grades of carpets. The theory upon which the pound duties were laid was that it takes, for example, four pounds of raw wool to make one pound of cloth; that is, the duties were compensatory. When the Wilson bill came up, the manufacturers who had the making of the McKinley bill, confessed, or rather insisted, that they had "stretched the truth" when they said that the pound duties were no more than a compensation for the duties on raw wool. They now claimed that the pound duties as well as the ad-valorem duties were protective (and necessary of course), and they made their own former untruths the basis of a demand that the woollen duties should be increased over and above the compensatory line of the McKinley bill, and they actually prevailed on the Senate to raise them 5 per cent. above the Wilson bill as a reward for their previous dishonest behavior. This, however, can be overlooked now, or relegated to the tomb which contains so many other tariff deceptions and robberies. The relief to the public from the abolition of these pound duties will be very great. The new schedule of woollen manufactures does not go into effect till the first of January, 1895, but the wool schedule takes effect immediately.

Next in importance to wool and woollens are the schedules of china and glassware, which are reduced from 55 and 60 per cent. to 30 and 35 per cent. Of course there is a great outcry on this subject from the protected interests, and they all talk of going out of business, just as the quinine-makers did when Congress put that article on the free list. It is a sufficient answer to the makers of china and glassware that any trade which cannot be carried on in this country with a tax of 30 per cent. levied on the consumer for its benefit ought to be abolished. There is no danger, however of their going out of business permanently.

The next most important thing in the list is tin plates. The increase of tax on this article was perhaps the greatest outrage in the McKinley bill. The duty on tin plates in the tariff of 1883 was one cent a pound, being equal to 35 per cent. ad valorem. McKinley raised it to 2 1-5 cents per pound, or 78 per cent. ad valorem. It is now reduced one cent per pound, *i. e.*, it is put at 1 1-5 cents, which is equal to 42 per cent. ad valorem. Here we may repeat that an industry which cannot be carried on by taxing all the consumers of canned goods and all the buyers of tin pans, pails, and dippers 42 cents on each dollar's worth, is a detriment to the country and ought to be abolished.

A more brazen although less important item in the McKinley bill than the tin-plate tax was the duty on pearl buttons, which was raised from 25 per cent. to 143 per cent. average. As to some varieties and sizes it was much higher, being about 1,000 per cent. This swindle was accomplished by cunning phraseology that common people could not understand. The McKinley duty was "2½ cents per line and 25 per cent." It is to be regretted that the duty was not put back to the old rate of 25 per cent. It stands in the new bill at 1 cent per line and 15 per cent., which is equal to 84½ per cent. ad valorem.

Linseed oil was monopolized by a Trust as soon as the McKinley bill was passed, the duty being increased from 25 cents to 32 cents per gallon. It is now reduced to 20 cents per gallon. Castor oil was also put into a Trust, the duty being 80 cents per gallon. It is now reduced to 35 cents.

Flax, hemp, grain bags, cotton bagging and burlaps are on the free list. This is a very important change.

Sulphuric acid, the most important chemical agent employed in manufacturing industry, is restored to the free list, McKinley having taxed it ¼ cent per pound. Bichromate of potash, another indispensable agent of manufacturing industry, which has always been a close monopoly in this country, is reduced from 3 cents per pound (about 32 per cent.) to 25 per cent. This article ought to have been put on the free list.

Lumber is at last put on the free list.

The duties on white lead, pig lead, cutlery, gloves, and nearly all the miscellaneous articles have been materially reduced. The reduction on iron and steel, although seeming to be considerable, is really no reduction except on certain specialties, being prohibitory even at the lower rates now adopted. This is the case with pig-iron and steel rails.

The reciprocity clause of the McKinley act is repealed, but the "reciprocal commercial arrangements heretofore made" are kept in force, "except where such arrangements are inconsistent with the provisions of this act." Therefore, upon the signing of the bill by the President, the retaliatory duties against Venezuela, Hayti, and Colombia which were established by President Harrison's proclamation, are abrogated. This is important as regards the "mild coffee" produced by those countries, which is now dutiable at three cents per pound.

Good all through, and with no "ifs or buts" about it, is the clause placing works of art on the free list. The spectacle presented to other civilized nations by the United States clinging to its barbarous tax on educational and refining influences in the shape of pictures and statuary, has been about as anomalous as that of a man with a war-club at a garden party. One Congress after another has met and adjourned without getting rid of this tax, though free-art clauses have been introduced in several of the tariff bills. Indifference on the part of the general body of legislators has been more of a factor, perhaps, than active opposition, in the defeat of repeal, but this time the measure seems to have found friends in the committees of both houses and in the debates on the floor as well. The American artists who desired to be exempt from this offensive sort of "protection" and have kept up an active war on the tax, are to be congratulated on the successful outcome of their labors, and the general public on a step increasing their respect for art and their reputation for intelligence at the same time.

*GOV. RUSSELL ON STATE CONSTITUTIONS.*

EX-GOVERNOR RUSSELL of Massachusetts, in his address before the graduating class of the Yale Law School, has set forth his own views as to what a constitution should be and as to what a constitution should not be. The Constitution of the United States, it is almost needless to say, is a constitution as it should be. "In less than thirty words," says Governor Russell, "it created our whole national judicial system." By "eight words" it established our admiralty and maritime jurisdiction, which, "by magnificent judicial evolution," has broadened the original English idea, until jurisdiction extends "from the ebb and flow of the tide so as to cover every league of navigable water within our continental domain." The system of "comprehensive general principles and broad powers, sufficiently elastic to allow of expansion by proper construction, yet sufficiently distinct to be effective and protective, has stood the test of more than a hundred years, has carried us through foreign wars and civil conflict, has adequately met a phenomenal increase of population, wealth, and area with its new and momentous questions, has skilfully adjusted the delicate relations between State and nation, and governed as efficiently 70,000,000 of people scattered through forty-four States, reaching from ocean to ocean, as the small population of the narrow coast line which embraced its thirteen original constituents." Governor Russell also triumphantly quotes Mr. Dicey, when speaking of the sovereign power established by the Consti-

tution: "It needed the thunder of civil war to break his repose, and it may be doubted whether anything short of impending revolution will ever again arouse him to activity."

Substantially every recent constitution framed in a Southern or Western state is manifestly, in Gov. Russell's opinion, what a constitution should not be. The masterful power of enunciating great principles in few words certainly seems to have passed away as completely as if 500 years had intervened—as if the recent constitutions were written in a new language—as if the framers of 1787 were old Romans and the framers of to-day modern Italians. As far back as 1848, the Constitution of Illinois increased in volume "in the ratio of eight to eighteen," in 1875, the Constitution of Missouri "in the ratio of eleven to thirty-one"; in 1891, the Constitution of Mississippi became "almost a code of laws," containing 285 sections and covering 47 pages. There is no administrative detail too petty for the constitutional delegate to try his hand at; and the controlling idea of our little constitution-makers manifestly is that when they get a chance to manage matters, they must fix them to suit themselves and trust nobody—not the Legislature, not the judiciary, not even the people whom they extol as the fountain of political wisdom. In one of the new States there are *ninety* prohibitions "upon the Legislature in the single matter of special legislation"; in another, the Constitution "even fixes the time within which a judge must render his decision"; in North Dakota, it requires the Supreme Court of the State to do the work of the reporter, "to prepare a syllabus of the points adjudicated in each case."

That is to say, the small minds which get control of a convention seize their opportunity to "run a State," as politicians would term it, for the next twenty or thirty years, and by so doing undermine the healthy American principle of self-government and civic responsibility. Gov. Russell's philosophical comment is: "By the creation of important administrative boards and by the many restrictions on the legislative, executive, and judicial departments, the tendency of these constitutions is to establish a sort of automatic permanent administration as a substitute for our usual form of government." Or, as Chief-Justice Cooley has said to some of these constitution-makers, "In your constitution you are tying the hands of the people." Story admonished us more than half a century ago, "The rage of theorists to make constitutions a vehicle for the conveyance of their own crude and visionary aphorisms of government requires to be guarded against with the most unceasing vigilance." The constitutions which have followed his warning vindicate his foresight.

In addition to the egotists who think that they can legislate for the future with greater wisdom than any legislators whom the people may hereafter select, there are the demagogues of the day, always afraid of the unpopular, and ready to advocate any favorite measure of the hour. Hotels, theatres, express companies, the telephone, the sleeping-car, the telegraph, the railroad, become suddenly subjects of constitutional law. The amendment at Albany, prepared by the labor unions, which is intended to prevent the employment of convicts at remunerative work in the State prisons, is a specimen of this. Prisons and prison reform still furnish one of the unsettled problems of our present civilization. Social science is still wrestling with the subject. Humanity demands that the convict shall be given a reasonable chance to amend his life and become a useful and self-supporting member of society. Economics require that the cost of reformation shall not be too great, that the expenses of the prison system be kept within reasonable limits, and that the convict shall be, if possible, self-supporting. How and to what extent this can be best accomplished is still a question—a question which is receiving the careful consideration of some of the best and most philanthropic minds in the world. Yet at this point there comes a band, or many bands, of monopolists having a corner, or trying to have a corner, in the skilled-labor market. What they want is the exclusion of everybody whose labor will compete with their own, *i. e.*, with their kind of labor. They introduce the legislative lobby into a body of men who have no right to legislate upon any subject, and they do this to procure legislation for themselves—legislation which will help their monopoly for many years to come.

A provision to prescribe and restrict the future management of a prison is manifestly an attempt to control the future—an attempt to dictate a policy, and tell succeeding legislators and perhaps generations what they must and what they must not do. Concerning this element of control, Governor Russell most aptly says:

> "True, the control may be of a majority, not a king; but the vital question is not its source, but its extent. If it prevents the people from asserting their will, if it continues the reign of a departed majority, it is not in accord with the principles and institutions of our liberty-loving, self-governing people."

The primary purpose of a constitution is to create and define a government; its next is to secure personal and political rights and establish a few of the great and fundamental principles of government, such as, "No title of nobility shall be granted," "Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion." All of these, it is true, are restrictions upon legislation and upon the people who elect the legislators. But they are more than restrictions: they are fundamental assurances and guarantees of great and important rights. The right of trial by jury is a right affecting the individual; the prohibition as to titles of nobility is an assurance to all men that all men in this country shall be politically equal; the restriction concerning an "establishment of religion" assures the minority of religious persons that they shall not be forced by the majority to support a state church. Such restrictions go to the character of a government, and not to its policy. They are organic and are intended to be immutable, as much so as that "the United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government." Their abiding purpose is to guard the minority and the individual, and to assure to all men constitutional rights and liberties which a transitory majority cannot invade.

To these may be added certain restrictions upon the administrative forces of government—the legislative, the executive, and the judicial. But such restrictions must extend no further than these administrative agencies; that is, they must not bind the principal, the body politic. The convention, for the better security of the people, may tell future legislatures how they must work, but not what they must do. It is within the proper scope of a constitution to prescribe that the enactment of a law shall be only by yeas and nays, which shall be entered on the journal; for this secures to the body politic proper administrative action where a statute would not bind the law-making power, and regulates legislation by something better than legislative rules. But it is not within the proper scope of a constitution to prescribe that the yeas and nays shall be taken *viva voce*, and not by an electric instrument which would enable each member to print his own name and vote on the roll, and all the members of a house to vote simultaneously. A constitution may require three several readings of a bill, and that these readings be on different days, and that the title of a private bill correctly set forth its object; or it may go further and follow the English parliamentary practice of requiring a preamble which shall fully declare the nature and extent of the claim, and the intended scope and purpose of the bill, and it may provide that in construing such statutes the preamble shall limit the effect of the enacting clauses; for all such restrictions are in furtherance of honest legislation, and neither "tie the hands of the people" nor "continue the reign of a departed majority." In only one instance, the election of the President, did the Constitution of the United States descend to administrative detail,

and within a score of years that provision had to be amended.

Distrust is the enemy of republicanism. If men cannot trust each other, and if society cannot trust itself, there cannot long be a republic. In 1787 the public distrust was sectional and monarchical: one State could not trust the other States, and the distrustful part of society could not trust anything that even looked like the abjured monarchy. The framers of the Constitution treated the case heroically, and in time compelled the people of the United States, no matter how far apart they might chance to live, to trust each other. These Southern and Western constitutions which Gov. Russell condemns are overwhelming evidences of distrust, and of a distrust which is of the most dangerous kind. They show that society in those States does not trust itself in the selection of its own legislative representatives; that society, though it does not say to a king, "Come and rule over us," does say to a convention, "Come and take care of us; we have weakened; we have not the power of self-government which our fathers had; we belong to the servile races, and are incapable of taking care of ourselves." It is not unlikely that some future historian, after a careful study of American States and State communities and State constitutions, will philosophically formulate as a law of political science, "The longer a constitution, the weaker the people, and the more corrupt the community."

## *A QUESTION OF CITIZENSHIP.*

THE language of the first sentence of the fourteenth amendment to the federal Constitution indicates that a person born in this country of foreign parents is a citizen. The *Staats-Zeitung* has lately called attention to the construction incidentally placed upon this part of the amendment by the United States Supreme Court in the decision in the New Orleans slaughter-house cases, and to a decision of Judge Lippincott, delivered in a case before the Hudson County Circuit Court in New Jersey.

The United States Supreme Court in its opinion in the slaughter-house cases, delivered in December, 1872, says: "The first section of the fourteenth article opens with a definition of citizenship—not only citizenship of the United States, but citizenship of the States. No such definition was previously found in the Constitution, nor had any attempt been made to define it by act of Congress." The opinion then quotes the first clause of the first section of the fourteenth article, as follows: "All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States, and of the State wherein they reside," and goes on to say:

"The first observation we have to make on this clause is, that it puts at rest both the questions which we stated to have been the subject of differences of opinion. It declares that persons may be citizens of the United States without regard to their citizenship of a particular State, and it overturns the Dred Scott decision by making all persons born within the United States and subject to its jurisdiction citizens of the United States. That its main purpose was to establish the citizenship of the negro can admit of no doubt. The phrase 'subject to its jurisdiction' was intended to exclude from its operation children of ministers, consuls, *and citizens or subjects of foreign States born within the United States.*"

In the case decided by Judge Lippincott it was held that a man born in Brooklyn, but whose father was an unnaturalized Englishman, was not a citizen of this country, and could not hold the office of councilman. Knowing that the case would be appealed to a higher court, as it has been, the judge dismissed this point as follows (we quote from a manuscript copy of the unpublished decision):

"Upon this subject, without further discussion, I adopt the views stated in the *American Law Review* for September-October, 1884, volume 18, page 831, upon this subject, and also those of Mr. Justice Gray delivering the opinion of the Supreme Court of the United States in the case of Elk vs. Wilkins, 112 U. S., page 94."

The article in the *American Law Review* was written by George D. Collins of California, and is an argument against the citizenship of the son of a Chinaman born in this country. He denies without discussion the authority of the common-law rule in such cases, and sums up his opinion as follows:

"Birth therefore does not *ipso facto* confer citizenship, and it is essentia , in order that a person be a native or natural-born citizen of the United States, that his father be at the time of the birth of such a person a citizen thereof."

In the case of Elk vs. Wilkins the opinion of the United States Circuit Court was delivered in 1884 by Justice Gray, the action being one brought by an Indian against a registrar in Omaha for refusing to register him as a voter, and is devoted almost entirely to a discussion of the political status of Indians. Of the words "subject to the jurisdiction thereof" the court says:

"The evident meaning of these last words is, not merely subject in some respect or degree to the jurisdiction of the United States, but completely subject to their political jurisdiction, and owing them direct and immediate allegiance. And the words relate to the time of birth in the one case, as they do to the time of naturalization in the other. Persons not thus subject to the jurisdiction of the United States at the time of birth cannot become so afterwards, except by being naturalized, either individually, as by proceedings under the naturalization acts, or collectively, as by the force of a treaty by which foreign territory is acquired."

The opinions above cited present what has been said judicially against the right of the son of a foreigner born in this country to be considered a citizen here. It is a complete reversal of the opinion on this question which was held by our highest authorities before the ratification of the fourteenth amendment, and the bearing of the amendment, as so construed, was not understood by some of the secretaries of state at Washington who were in office after its ratification. Justice Swayne (who, by the way, wrote a dissenting opinion in the slaughter-house cases), in writing an opinion in 1866, in United States vs. Rhodes (Circuit Court, in Kentucky), quoted from Kent's 'Commentaries,' "'Citizens,' under our constitutional laws, means free inhabitants born within the United States or naturalized under the laws of Congress," and said:

"We find no warrant for the opinion that this great principle of the common law has ever been changed in the United States. It has always obtained here with the same vigor, and subject only to the same exceptions, since as before the Revolution."

Secretary Marcy, writing instructions in 1854, said: "I have to observe that it is presumed that, according to the common law, any person born in the United States, unless he be born in one of the foreign legations therein, may be considered a citizen thereof until he formally renounces his citizenship."

Secretary Fish, in instructions written in 1873, said: "So far as concerns our own local law, a child born in the United States to a British subject is a citizen of the United States." In a letter of instructions to Mr. Cushing, in 1877, Secretary Fish said: "The minor child of a Spaniard born in the United States, and while in the United States, is a citizen of the United States." Secretary Blaine recognized the same view in a letter in 1881, in which he said: "The child born to an alien in the United States *loses his citizenship* on leaving the United States and returning to his parents' allegiance." The same idea is presented in a letter by Secretary Frelinghuysen, dated 1883, in which he says: "A child born in this country to a foreign father, when taken by his father abroad, acquires the father's domicile and nationality."

Two years later Secretary Frelinghuysen had revised his opinion on this question, and in a letter to Minister Kasson in the case of Ludwig Hausding he says: "Not being naturalized by force of the statute, Hausding could only assert citizenship on the ground of birth in the United States; but this claim would, if presented, be untenable, for by section 1922, R S , it is made a condition of citizenship by birth that the person be not subject to any foreign power." The section of the statutes quoted differs from the provision of the fourteenth amendment only in phraseology. In 1885 Secretary Bayard decided that the son of a German subject, born in Ohio, was not a citizen under the statute or the Constitution, because "he was on his birth 'subject to a foreign power,' and 'not subject to the jurisdiction of the United States.'"

But the United States Supreme Court itself does not accept the expression used in the slaughter-house cases as final on this point. In the case of Minor

vs. Happersett, decided in 1874, two years after the decision in the slaughter-house cases, it held: "Some authorities go further and include as citizens children born within the jurisdiction, without reference to the citizenship of their parents. As to this class there have been doubts. For the purposes of this case it is not necessary to solve these doubts."

In the case of Look Tin Sing, Circuit Court of California, decided in 1884, Justice Field, writing the opinion, held that a Chinaman whose parents were and always have been subjects of the Emperor of China, but who himself was born in California, was "not within any of the classes of persons excepted from citizenship [by the first section of the fourteenth amendment], and the jurisdiction of the United States over him at the time of his birth was exclusive of that of any other country." He thus defined his view of the words "subject to the jurisdiction thereof":

> "They alone are subject to the jurisdiction of the United States who are within their dominions and under the protection of their laws, and with the subsequent obligation to obey them when obedience can be rendered; and only those thus subject by their birth or naturalization are within the terms of the amendment. . . . The language used has also a more extended purpose. It was designed to except from citizenship persons who, though born or naturalized in the United States, have renounced their allegiance to our government and thus dissolved their political connections with the country."

The question may, therefore, be considered to be still awaiting a definite decision of the highest court.

## *THE IRISH OUTLOOK.*

THERE is some fear, as there have been some predictions, that the throwing out by the Lords of the Evicted Tenants bill will lead to a fierce recrudescence of agrarian agitation this winter. It is to be considered, however, that the "agitable" elements, so to speak, of Irish society have, by emigration and otherwise, been seriously reduced within the past ten years, that the statutable reductions in rents have done much to quiet thousands, and that the success of the Congested Districts Board would render it very difficult to arouse the west as formerly. The influence of the schooling of the last few years in constitutional methods, too, must not be overlooked. In short, one may fairly conclude that the last desperate weapon of disturbance and outrage is no longer available.

At the same time it cannot be denied that the position of the home-rule movement is exceedingly grave. To most thoughtful English-speaking observers outside the United Kingdom it is apparent that the Imperial Parliament, as at present constituted, cannot do its allotted work. The claims of Ireland must be in some way satisfied. The majority of Irishmen see more and more clearly that Great Britain is increasingly incapable of legislating for Ireland. National peculiarities, as between the two peoples, are becoming less marked, but the institutions of the two countries are growing more complicated and diverse. Ireland's desire for home rule is not a fire of slowly dying embers; it is one being constantly fed with fresh fuel in the shape of newly evolved wants and wishes which the Imperial Parliament has not time, knowledge, or capacity to meet. There is no better case in point than the land question. Parliament has spent session after session in the attempt to settle it, and now the parliamentary committee sitting for the past three months reveals that the work must be reconsidered.

Representatives of Irish feeling have always contended that, so long as the administration of the law is not dominated by public opinion in Ireland as it is in England and Scotland, the efforts of Parliament to satisfy Ireland must fail. This contention is supported by the evidence laid before the above committee. The working of the land laws, the interpretation of the acts of Parliament, have been in the hands of men out of sympathy with the people of Ireland, cut off from the influence of their opinion, ignorant of their aspirations and needs. Irish administrators rely for their advancement and success in life on English feeling and the spirit of the *Times* and *Scotsman*. The inquiries of this committee have brought out an almost grotesque perversion of the apparently plain wording of acts passed within the last fifteen years, and of the utterances of the statesmen who passed them, and have revealed on the part of Irish officials an almost Chinese subtlety of intellect in applying them when possible in favor of landlords and against tenants. The evidence and proceedings of this committee, published day by day in the Irish papers, have strongly impressed Irish public opinion, while in England, among those who will be the final arbitrators, scarcely any notice is taken of the proceedings, upon a proper estimation of which the welfare of the majority of Irishmen depends. Many a cricket match in London, many a race between the *Vigilant* and *Britannia*, has attracted more attention than all the doings of the committee from first to last.

The Liberals who espoused the cause of home rule have proved true, but in what direction behind them is British opinion tending? Is further proof to be afforded that when Ireland is quiet her demands are not deemed worthy of attention; or is English opinion, after its deliberate but weighty fashion, resolving that the home-rule measure formulated and passed through the House of Commons must, spite of the opposition of the Lords, become law? It is difficult to say. Perhaps no other Parliament has been so productive of great measures for the people of Great Britain. They have gained much, and they would have gained nothing without the steady support of the Irish vote. The Government came into power to settle an Irish grievance, yet so far nothing has been carried for Ireland. Will Great Britain at the next election, in full appreciation of the services rendered by Ireland and of the necessity for a settlement, rally to the Irish cause? Or will she, having secured so much for herself, forget those to whom she is so largely indebted, and fall back into one of those lethargies regarding reform which have in England so often followed periods of radical activity?

The public supineness as to the rejection of the home-rule measure by the Lords, contrasted with the general indignation when the Employers' Liability bill was mutilated, is ominous. It would be different if Irish were linked with English reform; if Englishmen felt for the inhabitants of Meath and Mayo as they feel for those of Lancashire and Suffolk; if, in short, public opinion and public sentiment extended across the Irish Sea. But this is not the case. So long as the Lords have the astuteness to pass with little material change measures important to Great Britain, it is to be feared they will be allowed to mutilate or reject bills relating to Ireland. Moreover, much that has occurred of late years at home and abroad has tended to discourage former hopes as to radical changes. Italy has been a disappointment; so has the slow progress of orderly liberty in South America. Add the rise and spread of Anarchy, the prevalence of impossible labor demands and of labor riots. In Ireland this perpetual unsettlement is most disastrous. It retards or prevents minor reforms; it too often, in local affairs, aids unworthy persons and interests in keeping their hold upon the public conscience and the public purse by simple verbal adhesion to popular principles.

The events of the past few months force certain considerations especially upon the attention. One is the failure of the Liberal Unionists to justify their existence as a party determinedly set against home rule, but strenuous for radical reforms in the government and administration of Ireland. There is nothing now to distinguish them in this respect from the bluest of blue Tories, the most orange of Orangemen. Mr. Courtney and Mr. Russell are perhaps exceptions—the one in genuine sympathy with Irishmen in their material concerns, the other a friend of Ulster tenants. On the other hand, it was hoped that Mr. Gladstone's retirement would make little change regarding the progress of the Irish question in Parliament. Concerning that and all others, it has made an immense alteration. The great debates continue,

but in a different, a more material atmosphere.

### *MR. GLADSTONE ON THE BLESSINGS OF HERESY.*

THE incurable optimism which is one of the essential qualities going to make Mr. Gladstone an ideal democratic leader, was never given more striking display than in his *Nineteenth Century* article on "Heresy and Schism." Subject and treatment doubtless illustrate other characteristics of his. If he cannot say with Emerson that he loves a cowl, at least he can that he likes a shovel-hat; and theological speculation and ecclesiastical controversy have had a singular fascination for him ever since his 'Church and State' of fifty-five years ago. A certain mental flavor and method not unlike those of a scholastic theologian likewise appear here and there in the article. Bagehot long ago singled out this quality in him. But what impresses one above all else in this latest writing of Mr. Gladstone's is, the obstinate hopefulness with which he observingly distils out the soul of goodness in things evil.

He himself is a High Churchman of the straitest sect. To him, as he intimates in the article itself, the Church is a divine organism, with a "jurisdiction solemnly constituted" and vested in the successors of the Apostles. Accordingly all who "rebel" against that jurisdiction do thereby "frustrate, so far as in them lies," the work of the Divine Founder of the Church. With these convictions, how would it be supposed that an old man, gazing abroad upon a disrupted Christendom, would consider the case of those men and sects that have rent in pieces the seamless garment of the Lord? We should expect such gloomy views and lamentations as we are, in fact, accustomed to receive from High Church quarters. The principle of authority is broken down. Men will no longer "hear the Church." They turn their backs on the true light, and are following wandering stars, which will infallibly lead them into the blackness of darkness. This is what any man in Mr. Gladstone's position, without his unquenchable optimism, would have told us. But he serenely turns to the great compensations, nay, the positive blessings, which the stoutest High Churchman may see in the spread and power of heresy.

Without following him through the steps by which he thinks it necessary to justify himself in so much as taking this point of view, it is enough to say that the main benefit he finds in modern schism is its testimony to the power of what he calls "undenominational religion." What he means he sets forth in the following impressive and pathetic passage:

"I do not know on earth a more blessed subject of contemplation than that which I should describe as follows: There are, it may be, upon earth 450,000,000 professing Christians. There is no longer one fold under one visible shepherd: and the majority of Christians (such I take it now to be, though the minority is a large one), is content with its one shepherd in heaven, and with the other provisions He has made on earth. His flock is broken up into scores, it may be hundreds, of sections. These sections are not at peace, but at war. . . . But with all this segregation, and not only division but conflict of minds and interests, the answer given by the four hundred and fifty millions, or by those who were best entitled to speak for them, to the question what is the Gospel, is still the same. With exceptions so slight that we may justly set them out of the reckoning, the reply is still the same as it was in the apostolic age—the central truth of the Gospel lies in the Trinity and the Incarnation, in the God that made us, and the Saviour that redeemed us. When I consider what human nature and human history have been, and how feeble is the spirit in its warfare with the flesh, I bow my head in amazement before this mighty moral miracle, this marvellous concurrence evolved from the very heart of discord."

Such optimism in such a man seems to us almost unexampled. It is an optimism, however, which does not take close enough observation of the facts upon which it works. Narrowly scrutinized, the "marvellous concurrence" which Mr. Gladstone esteems so encouraging, would not prove of a sort to delight one who holds the doctrines he mentions in any such sense as he does. The concurrence is too much that of a relaxed grasp on all dogma, of a rationalizing translation of the historic teaching of the Church into terms of modern thought, of the refining and transcendentalizing tendency which will accept any creed or all creeds provided the right of private interpretation is reserved. No one thoroughly conversant with the way in which the two doctrines which Mr. Gladstone mentions are actually held among the leading Protestant sects would dare to say that they mean the same thing now as in the apostolic age or in the Nicene Creed. Even as these dogmas are held at the present day, they are accepted for an entirely different reason. Once it was sufficient that Mother Church taught them. Now the standpoint is rather that of Coleridge—that they "find" men, that is, inspire and comfort men. But this of itself is so wide a departure from the divinely commissioned Church with its solemn jurisdiction that any concurrence to be made out besides seems necessarily barren.

Naturally the blessings of heresy would be very differently described from a more secular standpoint. Probably Janet puts the case in a way acceptable to the modern spirit when he says that "without criticism and investigation the world would be one universal China." Heresy able to maintain itself for a century or two insures free inquiry. That has come to be the principal thing with modern man, whether it leads him to heresy or orthodoxy. Milton declared all belief, true or false, to be heresy, provided a man held it without sufficient reason. "A man may be a heretic in the truth," he says in the 'Areopagitica'; "and if he believe things only because his pastor says so, or the assembly so determines, without knowing other reason, though his belief be true, yet the very truth he holds becomes his heresy." It is from heresy of that kind that the modern world devoutly prays to be delivered.

### THE BRYANT CENTENNIAL.

PITTSFIELD, MASS., August 17, 1894.

AT Cummington, yesterday, was observed in appropriate fashion the centennial of William Cullen Bryant's birth. From time to time during the past twenty years we have celebrated the centennial of events important in our national history, from the Boston Tea Party to Washington's inauguration; whereas the exercises at Cummington commemorated our earliest American poet, and, in so doing, they celebrated the birth of American poetry. Bryant's priority is indisputable, for he was born November 3, 1794, and wrote "Thanatopsis" in October, 1811. Of the poets who belonged to his generation, and who constitute what is already coming to be regarded as the classic group, Emerson was born in 1803, Longfellow and Whittier in 1807, Holmes and Poe in 1809, and Lowell and Whitman in 1819. Older than Bryant were three single-poem men, Hopkinson, Key, and Payne; but "Hail, Columbia," "The Star-Spangled Banner," and "Home, Sweet Home" were all written after "Thanatopsis." At any rate, these three popular pieces would never pass for great poems. So, too, Fitz-Greene Halleck, born in 1790, and for many years hailed, particularly in New York, as a genius, has long since been properly classified. He does not, like Bryant and the other members of the group I have mentioned, represent any important idea or reveal to a remarkable degree any quality of permanent value in literature—as Holmes does wit—and so we can no more rank Halleck among the great American poets of the century than we can rank Praed or Bayly among the great English poets.

Bryant's priority in time is therefore as unquestionable as is the excellence of "Thanatopsis," his first poem—a work which, whether it be judged as the production of a youth of seventeen, or by the strictest canons of criticism, stands forth among the splendors of the language. His peculiar vein, a minute and loving description of nature—"fixed," as painters would say, by a spray of moralizing—he exhibited from the start. After "Thanatopsis," "The Waterfowl," "The Yellow Violet," the "Inscription for a Wood," and the few other poems like them published in 1821 in his first volume, Bryant wrote nothing characteristic which cannot be traced to a similar inspiration. He found his vocation in boyhood, and never went in search of novelty. The result was that the impression he produced was deep and uniform, and, we may believe, permanent. Nature became through his interpretation moral, as through Emerson's she became spiritual, and through Shelley's emotional. A moralized nature cannot cease to interest and uplift mankind.

Reflections such as these were doubtless in the minds of hundreds of persons who made yesterday the pilgrimage to Cummington. That village lies in northwestern Massachusetts, among the hills of Hampshire County.

The landscape is sterner and less picturesque than that of Berkshire. There are no broad valleys, suggestive of fertile farms and prosperity, but narrow hollows between hill and hill through which brawls some tributary of the Westfield River, which murmurs here and there as it is forced to turn a paper or a saw-mill. Along the less frequented ways you may drive several miles without passing a house; and even on the highroad the dwellings are often two or three furlongs apart. It is a region to delight the tourist who loves long stretches of woodland roads, where the shadows lie thick, varied by a panorama of whale-back hills, some yellow with grain and hay, others green with forests. Far away to the northeast you catch now and then a glimpse of Monadnock, a mere bubble of purple haze; towards sunset, Greylock juts like a blue promontory into the billows of green. Life on these Hampshire uplands must resemble life on a roof; all the sunshine of summer, without its heat, pours upon them, but bleak indeed must their winters be!

On one of the highest of the hills, midway between the villages of East and West Cummington, is the Bryant homestead. There is nothing about the house or the place to recall the days of the early settlers, among whom were Bryant's father and mother's father. The house was wholly remodelled and enlarged thirty years ago, when the poet bought it back, to be a summer retreat for his old age. The place, with its trim hedges and lawns, its well-kept walls and fences, and its fields freed from stones, reveals at once that it belongs to no farmer, but to an owner with leisure and taste and means, which Hampshire farmers lack. Immediately behind the house is a grove of large pines—a rare tree in this region now—which join a wood of beeches, birches, maples, and hickory that stretch to the top of the hill. From the front piazza, you look just across the road to a field, through which runs the rivulet, and which is bounded by the larger wood, the theme of one of Bryant's best poems. Then the gaze ranges east and north for thirty or forty miles, ricocheting from hill to hill, to be lost at last in the hazy horizon. The site of the cottage where Bryant was born, long since destroyed, the old graveyard, the meeting-house, and the tavern, must all be sought at East Cummington, two miles away; to the present homestead his father brought him when a little child, so that this is the environment amid which his boyhood and youth were chiefly spent. Down at Plainfield, in the hollow yonder, he studied with the Rev. Moses Hallock, in preparation for Williams College; southward, out of sight, lies Worthington, where he first read law. Changes among these hill villages are rare, and they are chiefly changes of decay, there being in Cummington only eight hundred inhabitants now, against nearly double that number in Bryant's youth. Much of the soil then rich for farming has run out and become pasture-land; many are the cellars, choked with weeds and brambles, where dwellings then stood.

Could good Dr. Bryant, the poet's father, who for thirty years was the doctor of this countryside, have beheld the cavalcades which from early morning yesterday converged by all available roads to his house, great would have been his astonishment. Nearly a thousand vehicles, from the two-wheeled gig to the four-horse tallyho, came laden with visitors from all points within twenty miles. Those who brought no driver unhitched their horses, tied them to the nearest fence or tree, and then strolled towards the grove behind the house. There, under the shadow of the beeches and maples, a platform, capable of holding a couple of hundred persons, had been erected, and in front of it, on a gently rising slope, seats for twice as many more had been prepared by nailing boards to stakes driven into the ground. A portrait of Bryant, wreathed with ferns, was hung on a tree in full view of those who faced this platform, and a bank of flowers and greens partly hid the melodeon which was to accompany the singing.

By ten o'clock the platform began to fill with members of Bryant's family and with invited guests, and in a few minutes all the seats there and on the slope had been taken, and a circle, constantly increasing, of late comers who had to stand was drawn about them. One may have seen many gatherings in many lands, and yet have seen no gathering like that. In the first place, it embraced all ages, from the oldest inhabitants of Cummington and the neighboring villages, to the babes who came with their mothers—good farmers' wives, who, having no one to leave the little ones with, brought them and the other children. In the next place, it embraced all classes, whether you made wealth or occupation or intelligence the test of classification. Nor could the genuineness of the interest taken fail to strike an observer. A few of the visitors may have come out of curiosity, but nine-tenths came because they wished to do honor to Bryant and through him to poetry. The people of the neighborhood naturally far outnumbered the strangers, and afforded a good opportunity for studying the physique and manners of a community where the native stock has never mixed; so pure is it in Cummington that out of two hundred voters only three—an Irishman, a Nova Scotian, and a Canadian—are foreign-born. I fancy that the farmers of this generation do not fall below the average of their fathers in thrift and common sense; certainly the specimens one saw in Bryant's grove could not easily be matched in any gathering of remote country-folk in England or on the Continent. Yet now, as hitherto, the bright and energetic hill-born lads speed away as soon as they can, like their homeside brooks, down into the plain and to the cities of the plain.

I need not describe the exercises in detail. They were well arranged to give the villagers, the personal friends of Bryant, and the larger circle of his admirers, severally, due recognition. In its way, nothing was more satisfactory than the unpretentious, downright welcome extended by Mr. Lorenzo H. Tower in behalf of the people of Cummington. You heard there the genuine rural Yankee, who thinks better than he talks, but who does not, on that account, fail to reveal his sincerity. No polish of phrase could have expressed more clearly the cordiality of himself and his neighbors. They spread out their best—there could be no doubt of that. So, too, did the village chorus and orchestra.

But the most interesting figure on the platform was the poet's only surviving brother, Mr. John H. Bryant, now eighty-seven years old, erect in body and awake in intellect. He recited two original poems in a firm, far-carrying, not unmusical voice. The presence of Mr. Parke Godwin, Bryant's son-in-law and biographer, and of the Hon. John Bigelow, who, like Mr. Godwin, had been associated with Bryant in editing the New York *Evening Post*, helped to deepen the feeling that we were contemporary with the poet himself—a feeling which could come only in the case of a man who, like Bryant, lived more than four-score years. Next year Keats's centennial will be celebrated; but he died at twenty-five, and probably not one of his acquaintances now survives. The feeling that Bryant had been gone but a little while was characteristic of yesterday's celebration, and gave the exercises a personal and reminiscent rather than a critical or literary cast. The principal speakers, Mr. Godwin, Mr. Bigelow, Mr. E. R. Brown, Mr. Charles Dudley Warner, and Prof. C. E. Norton, all displayed a truly Bryantesque moderation, which would have pleased no one more than the temperate Bryant himself. They refrained from eulogistic brag, they made no claims as to Bryant's position in our literature, nor belittled others in order to magnify him. It seemed to be taken for granted, both by speakers and hearers, that in Bryant we had a personality of uncontested worth, and that it was no more profitable to argue about the excellence of his poems than about the upland air, the sunshine, and the rolling landscape, by which we were actually surrounded; if these were good, then the poetry which reproduces them must be good. To appreciate, rather than to criticise, was the prevailing spirit, and it did not degenerate into vapid admiration.

Several speakers laid stress on Bryant's unswerving uprightness as a politician and on his dignity and honor as a journalist. Listening to this reiterated praise, one was in doubt whether to rejoice that Bryant deserved it, or to blush because those qualities are so rare as to require mention. What would a Utopian have inferred of the standards of our politics and newspapers if he knew no more of them than that Bryant gained great renown by seeking no spoils, though he was a politician, and by telling no lies nor scandals, though he was an editor? Possibly at the next Bryant celebration, more emphasis will be given to him as a model journalist than as a poet, since the ideals of editorship which he upheld seem in danger of extinction.

But yesterday, contemplating his career as one after another of his friends told of it, vehement thoughts were banished. Even the presence of Mr. John W. Hutchinson, the last of the famous family of anti slavery singers, while it recalled Bryant's strenuous labors for emancipation and for the Union, was impressive, but not stirring. The exercises—interrupted by an interval in which the guests were entertained at tables spread under the apple-trees, and the others took their luncheon in the fields or woods—had not lost the quality of peace and friendliness when the time came, late in the afternoon, when the last tribute had been paid, the last hymn sung, and the concourse, numbering three thousand or more persons, broke up. Bryant, fortunate in his genius and his influence, was fortunate also in his birthplace, for those who would do him honor must quit the cities, and seek the Hampshire hills, where, restored and delighted by Nature herself, they will be in high mood for enjoying his poetry. On the grove-crowned hill of Cummington, as on an outpost of Parnassus, his spirit, like a Muse, will long abide, to cheer, and stimulate, and purify men.

Wm. R. Thayer.

## WALTER PATER.

Oxford, August 1, 1894.

The late Walter Pater's nature, like that of his hero Marius, was "composed in about equal parts of instincts almost physical and of slowly accumulated intellectual judgments"; and, like that of Marius, his character "was perhaps even less susceptible than other men's

characters of essential change." More than most men he believed "that to be but sentient is to possess rights"; and, again like his hero, he would see "the very symbol of our poor humanity" in the maimed race-horse led away by strangers "to die, in his beauty and pride, for just that one mischance or fault, although the morning air was still so animating and pleasant to snuff." "I could have fancied," cries Marius, and his author with him, "a human soul in the creature, swelling against its luck."

As a writer Mr. Pater is best understood when his own distinction between "mind" and "soul" is heeded. He had "a way of absorbing language, of attracting it into the spirit he was of, which makes the actual result seem like some inexplicable inspiration." Certain antagonisms provoked by him find their best explanation in his own dictum: "Mind we cannot choose but approve where we recognize it; Soul may repel us, not because we misunderstand it." This quality of "soul" in his style lends to his writings a kind of religious influence, and the matter which he treats is allied to the peculiar form into which he fashions it by an "electric affinity" flowing from him into both, so that their union works upon his reader by "an immediate sympathetic contact." The magical potency of language, for one possessing his gift of style and using it conscientiously, will make him deal with every-day words as with the consecrated rubrics of a hallowed ritual. Indeed, some such thought underlies the comparison made by Mr. Pater between admission into the communion of the Catholic church, and "the coming into possession of a very widely spoken language." It was with no light sense of the responsibility incurred in his choice that he aimed in his writing at a transcript not of mere fact, but of fact as modified by his own preference, of his own peculiar sense of fact. He lived in a state of scrupulous scholarhood, and found a craftsman's opportunity in the constant recognition of limitations inherent in the structure and vocabulary of the language in which he worked.

How he came to be himself is, of course, only to be understood in connection with the facts of his life and the general atmosphere by which he was surrounded; but no detailed biography, no history of intellectual life in his times, will ever communicate the insight into his nature which can be gained by a sympathetic perusal of the shortest of his fifty-odd essays; and the reader of 'Marius the Epicurean' or of 'Plato and Platonism,' his two longer works, can know Mr. Pater as a familiar friend without mastering a date or a detail in his biography. We might, in fact, apply to him (if only the inevitable word expressing his quality would come, as it came to him, for Cicero's) his own saying that "the sumptuous good taste of Cicero," encountered in everything he wrote, is "as truly the man himself as would have been his portrait by Rafaelle, in full consular splendor on his ivory chair." Not that a special interest fails to attach us to our writer's life, briefly though its outline may be given. He was born fifty-five years ago, in 1839, not far from the busy streets of London, in "the old house" that stood, as he describes it, just aloof from the town. Both of his parents died while he was still young, and the tidings of his father's death, "the cry on the stair sounding bitterly through the house," struck into his soul for ever. There was in the family an element of French descent derived from Watteau's favorite pupil, whose name was Pater, and who is described in one of Mr. Pater's Imaginary Portraits under the name of Jean-Baptiste. Everything in "the old house" had "a noticeable trimness and comely whiteness—the curtains, the couches, the paint on the walls with which the light and shadow played so delicately"; and in the garden grew a great poplar such as French people love, "having observed a certain fresh way its leaves have of dealing with the wind, making it sound, in never so slight a stirring of the air, like running water." The father was a medical man by profession, and both parents were of the Roman Catholic church. This circumstance perhaps gave Mr. Pater that rare and reverent understanding of what is most beautiful and consoling in the Roman ritual, otherwise hardly attainable by one not brought up as a son of that church.

At the age of twelve or thereabouts, and "in an agony of homesickness," young Walter Pater was taken from "the old house" to a new home. In due course he went to the King's School at Canterbury, and was entered at Queen's College, Oxford. At twenty-two he was placed by the examiners *in Literis Humanioribus* in the second class, where Matthew Arnold, his predecessor as the first of English critics, had been placed just eighteen years before, and where Lewis Nettleship (like Pater, a memorable exponent of the Platonic philosophy) was placed seven years afterwards. In 1865, Mr. Pater was elected Fellow of Brasenose, and he never severed his connection with that college, always as lecturer and more recently as Dean. For many years he lived in London, coming each term to occupy his rooms at Brasenose. What well-ordered rooms they were, severely beautiful, the whole effect being duly proportioned to one work of early Italian sculpture in low relief, which looked out among simple furnishings of a pale but serviceable blue. To these college rooms he was attached, and may therefore have found it easier to give up his house in London as he finally did, forced by considerations of health to exchange it for the one in Oxford, where his life has just closed.

The earliest of our author's published essays, that on Coleridge, dates back to 1865, the year of his election as Fellow, but was revised and expanded in 1880. In 1867 came the essay on Winckelmann, and that on Æsthetic Poetry was written in 1868, the year during which he wrote the memorable "Conclusion" which appeared at the end of his studies of the Renaissance in 1873. 'The Renaissance: Studies in Art and Poetry,' was his first published book—a collection of essays previously printed for the most part. Two other collections of his essays were published by him. 'Appreciations, with an Essay on Style' (1889), contained articles written both before and after those in his 'Renaissance,' which were consecutively written between 1868 and 1873. Four 'Imaginary Portraits' were collected in 1887, but this volume does not include 'The Child in the House,' which is an autobiographical picture of the author's own idealized childhood, accessible in *Macmillan's Magazine* for 1878. To back numbers of sundry magazines we are forced to look for various important essays, including the Taylorian lecture of 1890 on Prosper Mérimée, and those wonderful studies of Greek religion, art, and life which Mr. Pater hoped to publish "some day." One of these, on the "Bacchanals" of Euripides, has been reprinted in Dr. Tyrrell's recent edition of that play. "The article is itself a poem," says Prof. Tyrrell, who welcomes it as wholly worthy of the work with which it deals. It may confidently be expected that these Greek essays will shortly be collected in book form, and it is certain that they will do a wonderful service for what Mr. Pater has called "the study of the ancient Greeks as a living people."

'Marius the Epicurean,' written between 1881 and 1884, and 'Plato and Platonism,' written in 1891–1892, still remain to be considered. Mr. Pater's departure from the form of his earlier choice, his resolve to use a larger canvas than that of the essayist, may have been due to a sense of certain limitations. "The modern essayist," we read in 'Marius,' "is a creature of efforts rather than of achievements in the matter of apprehending truth, but at least conscious of lights by the way, which he is bound to record, acknowledge." In the "conclusion" of his 'Renaissance' such lights by the way flash out in the dictum, "Not the fruits of experience but experience itself is the end"; in the warning, "A counted number of pulses only is given to us of a variegated, dramatic life"; in the question, "How shall we pass most swiftly from point to point, and be present always at the focus where the greatest number of vital forces unite in their purest energy?"—in the conclusion that "to burn always with this hard, gem-like flame, to maintain this ecstasy, is success in life." Experience having shown that some readers were dazzled rather than enlightened by these brilliant flashes of insight, Mr. Pater apparently became convinced that the truth as he saw it could never be faithfully expressed until he portrayed a successful career, embodying just the type of living and thinking in which he believed. 'Marius the Epicurean, his Sensations and Ideas,' is the well-considered title of the book of the life whose end is not the fruit of experience, but experience itself. This same life is brought, in our author's 'Plato and Platonism,' into the presence of the master thinker by whose writings Mr. Pater was chiefly sustained, stimulated, and inspired. How real the philosophic unity is which runs through all our author's work, at least in his own conception of it, is best shown by the circumstance that he suppressed in 1877 the "Conclusion," written in 1868, of his studies of the Renaissance, first published in 1873, until "the thoughts suggested by it" had been more fully dealt with in his 'Marius,' which was finished in 1884. This temporary withdrawal was in no sense a recantation; it was made under an impression that the "Conclusion" might possibly mislead some of those young men into whose hands it might fall, and the "Conclusion" was restored in the third edition of our author's first book, issued in 1888.

Some attempt to adumbrate the consistent view of "the way and the life" adhered to by Mr. Pater, in practice as well as in his writings, must be made before this record of him can be regarded as in any sense complete. The only suitable introduction is 'The Child in the House,' already characterized. As the child, Florian sat quietly, feeling "a kind of exquisite satisfaction in the trimness and well-considered grace of certain things and persons"; his quickness of memory and readiness of mind astonished his mother, from whom he was learning to read "at the window with the bird-cage hanging below it." "The perfume of the little flowers of the lime-trees fell through the air upon them, like rain; while time seemed to move ever more slowly to the murmur of the bees in it, till it almost stood still on June afternoons." The enormous shaping power of the "sensible things which are tossed and fall and lie about us, so or so, in the environment of early childhood," became for Florian "a

sanctuary of sentiment, a system of visible symbolism interwoven through all his thoughts and passions, so that little shapes, voices, accidents—the angle at which the sun in the morning fell on the pillow"—became "parts of the great chain" wherewith he was bound.

The recognition of this power in sensible things to mould the human soul constitutes Mr. Pater's conception of the essence of Platonism. "There have been," he says in his chapter on Plato's æsthetics, where, as elsewhere in the book, he has blended into a rich and deep-toned harmony all the melodies of joy and notes of sadness of all the experiences of beauty in life, in literature and in art with which his many-sided experience has enriched him—"there have been Platonists without Plato, and a kind of traditional Platonism in the world, independent of, and yet true in spirit to, the Platonism of the Platonic dialogues." Experience, however, taught him that only a limited number of sensitive people were constantly susceptible "to the aspects and other sensible qualities of things," and that it is only with a reservation that we can say "men's souls are the creatures of what men see and hear." Plato's error—if error there be—lay in supposing that this constant susceptibility belonged to men generally. Nevertheless, Mr. Pater's last philosophical word upon the influence of beauty is probably conveyed in his elucidation of the Platonic sense of *form* and its educational power. "Concision, simplicity, rhythm, or contrariwise, abundance, variety, discord," are subjected to a transformation in the temper of the patient, the hearer, or spectator, "a derivation into another kind of matter"; that is to say, "into terms of ethics, into the sphere of the desires and the will, of the moral taste, engendering, nursing there strictly moral effects, or quite the opposite, but hardly in any case indifferent conditions."

That this was no mere putting of thoughts that were Plato's, but rather a recognition in Plato's system of truths which had grown into the experience of the writer, may abundantly appear if you read the closing pages of Mr. Pater's "appreciation" of Wordsworth, written twenty years before, in 1874. Wordsworth, and poets ancient or modern who have shared his highest mood, are there portrayed as experts in the art of "impassioned contemplation." As such, they teach no lesson, enforce no rule, but only withdraw men's thoughts "for a little while" from the mere machinery of life "to fix them, with appropriate emotions, on the spectacle of those great facts in man's existence which no machinery affects," on the "great and universal passions of men, and the entire world of nature. To witness this spectacle with appropriate emotions is the aim of all culture; and of these emotions poetry like Wordsworth's is a great nourisher and stimulant." But there is, our writer dreamed or divined with his own Marius—there is for the man who can witness all this with the right emotions, whose consciousness has been enlarged, has grown rich and shapely under the transmuting and most musical spells of friendship and familiar brotherhood—there is for such an one the sense of "some unfailing companion," "doubling our pleasure in the roses by the way." "Dared one hope," cried Marius in sad communion with the woes of human life, "that there is a heart, even as ours, in that divine 'Assistant' of one's thoughts—a heart even as mine, behind this vain show of things?" In this reasonable though impassioned cry of Marius, we find again the religion of "the child in the house," conceived of by Florian as "a sacred history indeed, but still more a sacred ideal, a transcendent version or representation, under intenser and more expressive light and shade of human life and its familiar or exceptional incidents, birth, death, marriage, youth, age, tears, joy, rest, sleep, waking." LOUIS DYER.

## CHUQUET'S ROUSSEAU.

PARIS, August 2, 1894.

MM. HACHETTE continue the publication of their essays on the "Great French Writers." There is no visible plan in the publication—no chronological plan, at least. The collection places Victor Cousin and George Sand next to Montesquieu and Mme. de Sévigné, M. Thiers near Turgot, Théophile Gautier near D'Alembert, Mme. de Staël near Vauvenargues, Bernardin de St. Pierre near Mme. de la Fayette. The other names are Mirabeau and Rutebeuf, whom few people would have thought of placing among the "Great French Writers" (especially Rutebeuf, who is known only to bibliophiles), Stendhal (Henri Beyle), Alfred de Vigny, Boileau, Chateaubriand, Fénelon, Saint-Simon, Rabelais, J. J. Rousseau, Diderot.

The task of judging Rousseau was put in the hands of M. Arthur Chuquet, a professor in the French University. It was no easy task. There is at the present time a great reaction against Rousseau; he has been severely treated by Taine; he is considered one of the inspirers, the chief inspirer, of the men who gave to the French Revolution its worst character. He was not only the idol of the dissolute society of the end of the eighteenth century, he was also the idol of Robespierre, of St.-Just and the Montagnards. The 'Contrat Social,' the 'Émile,' had an immense influence on the development of our legislation, of our modern culture, of our philosophical views.

All these essays published under the general title of "Les Grands Écrivains Français" have one thing, at least, in common—they all are cut on the same pattern; they have a purely biographical part, followed by an analysis of the works of the author, and this analysis is generally resolved into several parts. The same object is shown to us from several points of view. It is impossible not to see the influence of Taine's analytical method in this uniform system. M. Chuquet, in his 'Rousseau,' gives us in succession the life, the letter to D'Alembert against the theatre, the 'Nouvelle Héloïse,' 'Émile,' the 'Contrat Social,' religion, the 'Confessions,' style, influence. I should myself, I confess, prefer a synthetical method. The works of an author are so interwoven with his life, and his life so interwoven with his works, that it seems difficult to separate them. Rousseau especially can hardly be understood if you separate his writings from his actions.

He was born in Geneva June 28, 1712, and spent the earliest years of his life in the most beautiful country in Europe. No wonder that he became afterwards a sort of apostle of "nature" in the artificial society of Paris. It is clear, also, that Geneva had much to do with his republican ideas; up to the time that his persecution began he liked to call himself a "citizen of Geneva." His mother, Suzanne Bernard, handsome, coquettish, a good reader of novels, died when he was born; his father, Isaac, watchmaker and dancing-master at the same time, was a man of pleasure, frivolous, egotistical, a sort of adventurer, quarrelsome. He tried to make a fortune in Constantinople. Such a man was incapable of educating his children. His eldest son, François, disappeared one day and was never seen again. The younger son, Jean Jacques, did not live long with his father. He stayed at various places, at Bossey, at Nyon, till, at the age of sixteen, he was persuaded by a Savoyard curate to turn Catholic, and was sent by him to Mme. de Warens, who lived at Annecy, and who received new converts and was a sort of Catholic missionary—a singular missionary, surely.

Françoise Louise de la Tour, born a Protestant at Vevey in 1699, had been married in 1713 to M. Sébastian de Loys de Warens; she had tried to make a fortune by establishing a silk-manufacture, had fallen into debt, and had fled to the other side of Lake Leman, where she met King Victor Amadeus at Évian; she turned Catholic with great demonstrations and obtained a pension from the King. She was thirty-one years old when she received young Jean Jacques on March 21, 1730. We had not much to learn about her from M. Chuquet: Rousseau has given a minute description of her in his 'Confessions.' Her influence over him was omnipotent; he was almost a child, and she, though she professed to be religious, was utterly devoid of principle. She looked upon chastity as a vulgar prejudice. She often said that a woman needed only to save appearances, and she found it perfectly natural to have any number of lovers. "She surrendered herself," says M. Chuquet, "quietly, without any scruples or remorse. Why should she have refused to her friends a favor which in her eyes had no importance, and which increased their affection?" The history of her later years has recently been told with many unpublished details. I will content myself with saying that she died in want and generally despised on July 29, 1762.

Rousseau has told us how Mme. de Warens sent him to Turin to the school of Catechumens, how he crossed the Alps, as proud as Hannibal, how at the school of the Spirito Santo he was converted in four months. This school was a real prison. He tells us that in fact he sold his religion and told a lie to the Holy Ghost. He was put out of the school with twenty francs in his pocket, and became a servant—so bad a servant that he was dismissed; and he returned to Annecy. Mme. de Warens kept him; she became his "maman." After awhile, he entered the seminary at Annecy; at the end of two months he was again dismissed. The story of all his adventures would be too long. From his numerous wanderings he always returned to Mme. de Warens; her house was his refuge; "maman," if we may believe Rousseau, for fear lest he should not be virtuous, offered herself to him as a holocaust. "With a grave air and in a moral tone, not severe, but more serious than usual and almost solemn," she said to Jean Jacques that she preferred to sacrifice herself, and she gave him a week to reflect upon it. At the same time Rousseau was aware that she had already a lover, her servant, Claude Anet, who was, like herself, a Vaudois, and had been converted at the same time. Rousseau accepted this singular situation, and thus began what the French call a *ménage à trois*. The genesis of Rousseau's ideas and of his talent must be found in the long years which he spent in the country, as well as in the hatred which he conceived, in his numerous attempts at bettering his position, for all the regular organs of a civilized community.

He found what may almost be called his "chemin de Damas" in a visit which he paid, in 1749, to Diderot, who was then shut up at

Vincennes. He read on the way a number of the *Mercure de France*, and saw that the Academy of Dijon had offered a prize on this subject: "Has the reëstablishment of science and the arts helped to corrupt or to purify mankind?" The idea struck him; he was seized with a sort of mental delirium. "No, no," he said to himself, "science and art have not made men better; our social system is full of contradictions; the natural man is good; our institutions and their abuses have made him bad." He cried, he saw Diderot, and laid his ideas before him. Diderot advised him to compete for the prize. The "Discours sur les lettres et les arts" had an immense success; the Academy of Dijon bestowed its prize upon it. Rousseau became famous in a day; everybody admired his warm, exuberant, and eloquent style. His ideas on nature and the natural man became a theme of discussion in the most artificial society that ever existed. Extremes meet, and the return to nature inaugurated by Rousseau seemed the most wonderful discovery. The most aristocratic ladies were enraptured by the "Origine de l'inégalité parmi les hommes," his second essay, in the same vein as the first. "Unhappy men who are always complaining of nature, learn that your misfortunes are your own work." Rousseau dedicated this new "Discours," written in 1755, to the Republic of Geneva.

Madame d'Épinay conducted Rousseau, whom she called "my bear," to a cottage in the forest of Montmorency. He had a singular habit of quarrelling with all the people who were kind to him. He was, besides, encumbered with his dreadful Thérèse, whom he had made his wife, though she was without beauty or education, and with her family. He had also a sort of habit of falling in love, and he nourished soon a great passion for Madame d'Houdetot, a cousin of Madame d'Épinay. Madame d'Houdetot did not return his passion, as she was involved with Saint-Lambert in one of those "liaisons décentes" which became so general in society during the eighteenth century. Rousseau was at the same time very timid and very combustible; and, if I may be allowed to use a very vulgar expression, he made a perfect fool of himself in his relations with Madame d'Épinay and with Madame d'Houdetot. He had the mortification of being treated with contempt by Saint-Lambert. He had become a sort of social parasite—not of the most aristocratic society, which in reality never accepted him, but of the rich society of the *fermiers-généraux* and of the *noblesse de robe*, which was not the society of the court.

His humble position filled him with anger and rage. He quarrelled with everybody. He consoled himself with the extraordinary success of his 'Nouvelle Héloïse,' a book which we find now almost unreadable, but which agitated the eighteenth century, by the ardor of its passion, by its love of the beauties of nature, by a sensibility which was unknown before. In fact, sensibility became the fashion; the dogma of the legitimacy of passion, the most dangerous that can be preached, was easily accepted by a frivolous public. The 'Nouvelle Héloïse' was the precursor of 'Werther.'

In a short period, and while he was still at Montmorency, Rousseau published the 'Héloïse,' the 'Contrat Social,' and the 'Émile.' These three books are his great works, and contain all his doctrine. The 'Émile' was the signal for the final rupture between Rousseau and the philosophers. Voltaire did not believe in the *natural* man, nor in the primitive equality of men, nor in the dangers of civilization, nor in the evil effects of laws and of education. In his eyes, 'Émile' was no better than a beast; he believed in the virtue of art, of science, of literature; he believed in kings and constitutions.

At the close of his life, Rousseau, embittered by his constant quarrels with his enemies and his friends whom he fatally turned into enemies, and by the sarcasms of the philosophical school, became almost if not wholly mad. He had what the modern school of physiology calls the mania of persecution; he saw enemies and conspiracies everywhere. This neurosis is the great excuse for his follies and his meanness. His literary influence was as extraordinary as his political influence afterwards became; he was not only the inspirer of the revolutionists who proclaimed the rights of man, he was also the inspirer of the literary movement which found expression in Chateaubriand and, after him, in the great Romantic school.

# Correspondence.

## SILVER VIEWS OF THE CALIFORNIA REPUBLICANS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Though you have mentioned the performance of the California Republican Convention in regard to the silver deity, the following facts have escaped you: Dan M. Burns is at present the Republican machine in this State, and was the late convention, the delegates merely carrying out his known or expressed desires. The usual committee on resolutions had formulated, and were about to report, the usual patriotic platitudes, including a declaration favoring the free and unlimited coinage of silver, etc., produced in the United States, when one gentleman, whose memory was better than that of his associates, stopped the proceedings with, "That don't go; Dan's silver mine is in Mexico." Dan's silver mine, the famous "Candelaria," is in Mexico. It did not go. The California State Republican Convention resolved for free coinage of silver—nothing more. J.

San Francisco, August 14, 1894.

## BERLIN POLICE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: One of the first discoveries made by an American or an Englishman in Berlin is that the city is too much governed. The military system has so permeated Germany that the natives are accustomed to being continually controlled and directed, like so many children; but such petty interference is intensely annoying to one who is used to think for himself.

To begin with, it is irksome to have to furnish such detailed information to the police relating to one's immediate ancestors, business, religious beliefs, etc. But although irksome it is bearable, for the annoyance is not inflicted by the whim of any single officer of the law. Nor are the police alone guilty of bullying and interfering—all the subordinate officials are tarred with the same brush. That results from the general idea that the nation is a necessary evil which exists for the benefit and through the kindness of the officials. The strata of German society are said to be, first, the Emperor and all the imperial family; next, at the Emperor's feet, are the old nobles and officers; next come the officials and police; then a great gulf is fixed, and on the other side of that great gulf what Burke called the "swinish multitude."

The rank and file of officials are protected against the general public, and therefore abuse their privileges. Some time ago a man who entered a school and began to speak insultingly to a teacher was sent to prison for fourteen days' hard labor, because the teacher must be recognized as an official. The post-office clerks are as a rule crassly impertinent. I have seen a row of men stand quietly waiting to be attended to, while a clerk, ensconced behind his little window, related some good story to a fellow-clerk who was also keeping a file of people waiting. When any one became impatient and rapped for the clerk, the latter eyed the disturber much as one would look over a new and curious animal at the Zoo, and then he continued his story.

The trouble with the Berlin police is that they interfere so often when it is unnecessary. One of them sent back a friend of mine who was in tennis flannels, and told him to go home and dress, hinting that he had forgotten to perform that operation. The Berlin policeman rarely succeeds in regulating the traffic. He first lets things get into confusion, and then begins to rave and storm, and the result is, naturally, confusion worse confounded.

A Belgian who some time ago wrote a book on Berlin stated that the police and the people were the best of friends. Nothing could be further from the truth. The policeman in Berlin is an Ishmaelite; he is against every man, and every one is against him. As a rule he is so overbearing and tyrannical that, when he does happen to be clearly in the right, public expression of sympathy is not on his side. It is no uncommon sight to see a policeman surrounded by a crowd of gibing Berliners, well-dressed people who, if in America, would be on the side of law and order. Whenever there is a dispute between the police and a wrong-doer, the crowd almost invariably sides with the culprit.

One thing, however, must be said in favor of the Berlin police—I never yet knew any one who succeeded in bribing them. M.

August 14, 1894.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Being a citizen of Germany, but for several years a resident of the United States, I take it upon myself to answer Mr. C. G. Baldwin's letter, "Decorum in Berlin," which appeared in the *Nation* of August 9. I read Mr. Baldwin's letter to a friend of mine, a German physician, who, being on a trip through the United States, practised for a short time near Chicago. He told me that he noticed park policemen in Chicago wake up sleepers on benches in the most brutal way by cuffing them with their clubs in the neck, and in one instance a policeman took a goblet with water from a neighboring fountain and poured the contents over the sleeper's face. One night my friend attended the Turn-Verein near Chicago and left his saddle-horse in a little stable behind the building. When he wanted to go home, the horse was gone. At the neighboring police station he found it, and was told that it had been taken up as a stray, and that he would have to pay a fine. A member of the Verein chanced to pass and said to my friend, "I expect you are looking for your horse. I saw a policeman take him out of the stable." Then it appeared that a policeman who used to hang around the Turn-Verein, and whom my friend had frequently invited to a glass of beer, but on that day had slighted, was the one who had

taken the horse out of the stable and brought him in as a stray.

I might relate some observations of my own concerning policemen in Denver, for instance, but will only mention that two customs have made a very disagreeable impression upon me. The one is that some large dry-goods stores will hire a big negro, put him in livery and get him a policeman's commission. You may see such a liveried guy stalking in front of their establishment and lording it over people who may want to stop with their teams in front of the store without the intention of going into it. The other custom is, that at large public shows either municipal policemen or specials are commissioned to attend the same and act as ushers. I have always wondered at the marvellous humility with which the people here will stand the insolence of such hirelings, whose antecedents are frequently of the most shady. In Germany, and particularly in Prussia, policemen have all been sergeants in the regular army, and have to show special aptitude and an exemplary conduct before entering the police force. The penalties for the abuse of official power (*Misbrauch der Amtsgewalt*) are very stringent and are strictly enforced; a well-grounded complaint from a reliable party to a police officer's superior is always taken notice of. Here in the United States I find that a complaint would frequently be utterly disregarded, and I never read of penalties being inflicted for a police officer's abuse of official power; while I know a civil suit would in most cases be entirely barren of results. In Germany we consider a policeman part of the Government, and would not degrade him with a livery or use him as an usher. Large shows furnish their own ushers, who are expected to be and in fact are infinitely more civil than the lording policemen I have found at shows here in Denver and at shows in Chicago during the World's Fair. With all respect for the constitutional liberties of the Great Republic, I am of the opinion that in Germany one is much less exposed to the arrogance and brutality of police officers than in the United States; and how could it be otherwise when the police are frequently an institution to levy taxes on vice, as the late developments in New York have shown?—Very truly yours,

EUGÈNE A. VON WINCKLER.

SEDALIA, COL., August 14, 1894.

## PROF. GOLDWIN SMITH AND THE FENTON STORY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read with some indignation Mr. Smith's letter in your issue of the 9th in answer to Dr. Green's report to the Massachusetts Historical Society on his use of the Fenton story in his late 'History.' If he thought this report required an answer (and he could hardly afford to let it pass unnoticed), he should at least have given Dr. Green's statement in full, instead of presenting a few lines which give no accurate impression of its substance. I will not go back to the controversy at the time of Lord Mahon's 'History,' but when the late Mr. Edward J. Lowell was abroad seeking materials for his history of the Hessians in this country, he wrote to Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge in reference to this story in Mme. de Riedesel's Memoirs. Mr. Lodge made an investigation, and reported to Mr. Lowell and to the Massachusetts Historical Society that he could find no evidence to support it. Dr. Green's report was made after Mr. Smith's 'History' was published. I have not the text of the Society's reports at hand, but it is in brief that, so far, no newspaper has been found, no printed document, no manuscript, no diary, no private letter which corroborates the story, nor is there any tradition on the spot which would bear out Mme. de Riedesel. Sabine, in his 'History of the American Loyalists,' gives an account of Capt. Fenton, but makes no reference to his family. Ready as he was to do all justice to the royalists without concealing the sins of the patriots, would he have omitted this had he been able to discover any foundation for it?

I wish every person who has read Mr. Smith's letter would take pains to read the records of the Massachusetts Historical Society.

FAIR PLAY.

BAR HARBOR, August 11, 1894.

# Notes.

"MANGUM, MR., speaks to the point," says the index to the 'Biglow Papers'—no inconsiderable item in Mr. Lowell's humorous legacy; and it appears, on turning to the page indicated, that after Senator John C. Calhoun had told of his profitable white slaves "north o' Mason an' Dixon's line,"

> "'Fer all thet,' sez Mangum,
> 'Twould be better to hang 'em,
> An' so git red on 'em soon,' sez he."

This may be called a judicial opinion, since the Hon. Willie P. Mangum had been judge of the Superior Court of North Carolina. A volume on the Life and Times of this once prominent statesman is in preparation by Prof. Stephen B. Weeks of the Bureau of Education, who desires information of any kind concerning his subject. Prof. Weeks is also well along towards publication of another historical work, 'The Quakers in Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia, and their Settlement of the Middle West.' An unusual feature will be the charting of the Quaker settlements. Subscriptions, at $1.50, may be sent to the Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore.

Mr. Austin Dobson is preparing for publication in the fall a second volume of his 'Eighteenth Century Vignettes,' to be issued in New York by Dodd, Mead & Co., and in London by Chatto & Windus. Most of the papers to be included in this volume have already appeared here and there in the magazines, but the longest of them all, an essay on Lady Mary Coke, will be printed for the first time in the book. Mr. Dobson has also written a preface for a volume of 'Old English Songs,' illustrated by Mr. Hugh Thomson and to be published by Macmillan & Co.

Frederick Warne & Co. have in press 'Cameos of Literature from Standard Authors'; and 'Quiet Stories from an Old Woman's Garden,' by Alison McLean.

'Raphael's Sistine Madonna,' a critical and interpretative study, illustrated with photogravures, will be luxuriously brought out by D. Appleton & Co. The author is Dr. Mombert, formerly American chaplain at Dresden.

The Century Company's principal announcement for October is Mrs. Edwina Booth Grossmann's life of her father, with numerous illustrations, in two editions, one *de luxe*. Mrs. Mary Mapes Dodge's 'The Land of Pluck,' stories and sketches, mainly of Holland, and 'When Life is Young,' poems for young people, both illustrated, are also in preparation, together with C. F. Lummis's Pueblo Indian folk-lore tales, 'The Man Who Married the Moon.' Further announcements are 'The Mountains of California,' by John Muir; 'The Century Book for Young Americans,' the story of the Government, by Elbridge S. Brooks; 'P'tit Matinic' Monotones,' sketches of life and character on the Nova Scotia coast, by George Wharton Edwards; 'The Reign of Queen Anne,' by Mrs. Oliphant; 'Five Books of Song,' the complete poetic work, partly new, of Richard Watson Gilder; 'Writing to Rosina,' by Wm. H. Bishop; and 'When All the Woods Are Green,' a story of the Canadian forest, by Dr. S. Weir Mitchell.

Conformable to the new architecture of Bowdoin College and to the festival of its centenary is the stylish General Catalogue just issued in green, white, and gold (Boston: W. B. Clarke & Co.), with numerous illustrations of campus and buildings. Its price, one dollar, is nominal. Besides the customary lists, not wanting in many illustrious names of officers and graduates, this handsome volume contains a sketch, much to be praised for its readability, of the history of the college, written by the librarian, Mr. George T. Little. Bowdoin's annals possess considerable interest for one who studies the growth of the higher education in New England particularly, and upon many items the reader happens with as much surprise as the visitor to the sand flat of Brunswick does upon the college itself. Like other colleges, the alma mater of Longfellow and Hawthorne has seen its literary societies languish under the baneful influence of the Greek-Letter societies. The most conspicuous incident of student life was the revolt in 1874 of the three lower classes against compulsory military drill, with the result that this exercise was abandoned. The college never owed any part of its funds, we are told, to recourse to a lottery; but one wonders whether this would not have been preferable to financial rehabilitation through a sectarian dedication in 1841, after the panic of 1837. "Subsequent gifts have been conditioned upon the denominational character of the college, which there has been little disposition, of late years, to question."

The Great Commanders Series (D. Appleton & Co.) has a new volume, 'General Washington,' by Gen. Bradley T. Johnson. The author frankly recognizes the fact that the numerous biographies of Washington make his work chiefly that of compilation and selection. In accordance with the leading idea of the series, the military character and history of the great man are given the chief prominence, and a successful effort is made to bring the principal events of his career within the limits of the single handy volumes to which the series is limited. Raciness is occasionally added by more or less elaborate comparisons between the rebel of 1776 and of 1861; and the author's experience as a Confederate soldier is used to give point to similarities of events, or interest to military operations in which the earlier and later wars occupied the same geographical theatre.

In 'Pain' (J. B. Lippincott Co.) Dr. J. Leonard Corning offers to his profession, and incidentally to the public, his views on a subject of universal interest. Pain he defines as "the feeling (perception) evolved by over-stimulation of the nerves of special and common sensation," which is a doubtful use of the word perception and hardly includes the neuralgia of anæmia. The essay leads up to several new methods which are ingenious, simple, and frequently effective, for the relief of pain by local surgical interference and by the use of compressed air. In the latter case the patient is immersed in an air-bath where the pressure of several atmospheres may be secured if required. Dr. Corning's style is so exceedingly prolix that it

is a serious trial to read what he has to say, but if the manner of saying it be disregarded, the matter is well worth consideration.

M. Anatole France wrote for the *Revue de Paris* a "modern" novel, 'Le Lys rouge,' now published in book form (Paris: Calmann Lévy). It is a beautiful piece of literary workmanship, and so far is heartily commended to those who care for the art only without regard to the subject. Others will be apt to wonder once more why one after the other the best French writers cannot find it in their hearts to write on some other subject than, for them, the threadbare theme of a married woman's illicit loves.

Another volume of the "Collection Lemerre illustrée" comes to hand (New York: Meyer Bros. & Co.), and this time it is André Theuriet who is the chosen author, and his pretty, satirical, semi-idyllic 'Rose-Lise' the story. That it is delightfully told, that it breathes the fragrance of the country, need not be said, and that the publishers have turned out a dainty volume is also matter of course.

There is something of Montaigne's charm in the second volume, just published, of François Coppée's 'Mon Franc Parler' (Paris: Lemerre; New York: Meyer Bros. & Co.). It is frank, and the book does not belie its title. There are even opinions in it that may be called bold as well as true. Coppée, happily, is not afraid of speaking out, and in "Après les fêtes," "Discours académiques," and "L'Instruction et le Peuple," he has said many things which many think but few dare avow. The whole volume is excellent reading.

Parts 6-10 of Maspero's 'Histoire Ancienne des Peuples d'Orient' (Paris: Hachette; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer) dispose of the Egyptian deities and begin on the legendary history of Egypt. The illustrations are extremely numerous and are of fine quality.

'Auguste Comte und seine Bedeutung für die Entwickelung der Socialwissenschaften,' by Dr. Heinrich Waentig (Leipzig: Duncker & Humblot), is the first number of the second volume of the series known as "Staats- und socialwissenschaftliche Beiträge," edited by A. von Miaskowski. The author gives a succinct survey of the rise and growth of Comte's positive philosophy, and seeks to trace its influence on the French, English, and German schools of political economy and sociology—an influence which he greatly overestimates, especially in the case of Herbert Spencer; on the other hand, the indebtedness of John Stuart Mill to the French positivist is undeniable. The book is interesting and instructive, but, while containing a full bibliography, loses much of its value through the lack of an index.

The fourth and fifth volumes of the second collection of biographies bearing the general title of 'Führende Geister,' edited by Anton Bettelheim and published by Hofmann & Co., Berlin, are devoted to a life of Moltke by Dr. Max Jähns, a retired lieutenant-colonel of the Prussian army. Only the first part, called "Lehr- und Wanderjahre" and covering the period from Moltke's birth (Nov. 2, 1800) to his appointment as chief of the general staff (September 18, 1858), has as yet appeared. The book is a condensation and popularization of the materials already printed in the 'Collected Works' of Moltke which have been issued since his death, and will serve a good purpose in enabling the reader to whom these voluminous publications are not accessible to study the character and career of this excellent man and eminent strategist.

In connection with the recent celebration of the fourth centenary of Correggio at Parma has been published 'Il Correggio nei libri,' a bibliography of books which treat of this artist's life and works (Parma: L. Battei). It fills sixty pages.

The second number of *Bibliographica* fully maintains the high level achieved by the first, and Mr. Pollard may be congratulated on the success of his venture. Among the more technical articles are Mr. R. C. Christie's on the "Chronology of the Early Aldines," and Mr. Maunde Thompson's on "English Illuminated MSS. A. D. 700–1066." Mr. Falconer Madan has prepared an interesting and richly illustrated paper on the "Early Representations of the Printing Press." But the two essays most likely to interest the general reader are grouped together as "Two English Bookmen," under which head Mr. Wheatley describes the library of Pepys now preserved in his own cases at Magdalen College, Cambridge, and Mr. Austin Dobson writes about the books of Henry Fielding, defending him from a casual slur of Thackeray's, and showing that the author of 'Tom Jones' was really a scholar, loving his classics and having them by him constantly.

The most noteworthy article in the August number of the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* is a condensed description of the physical geography of Alaska, by Israel C. Russell, for several years connected with the United States Coast Survey. With much that is purely technical, he joins interesting statements in regard to the subsoil ice, the growth of the tundras, and the most promising regions for future explorers. He also gives a timely note of warning as to the danger of the destruction of the forests, and particularly of the yellow cedar, a wood exceptionally valuable for ship-building. "The supply is not so great as has frequently been stated, and, should the forests of Alaska be thrown open to lumbermen, the tree will soon be exterminated."

The principal articles in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for July are an orographical and geological description of the Cordilleras of Southern Chile, accompanied by a map, and the conclusion of Baron von Toll's interesting account of his Siberian journey. In this he tells of the annual migrations of the men and the wild reindeer, which are mostly taken at this time. The lemmings migrate triennially, as they destroy the vegetation of the tundra in just three years. One of the most striking of his experiences was the sudden breaking of the deathlike stillness of the tundra by the coming of countless swarms of birds. He writes of the natives in the highest terms, as men who have learned that the hard conditions of their life necessitate their sustaining the most friendly relations with each other. Consequently there is found among them a surprisingly high morality, according to European standards even; their three deadly sins being adultery, slander, and theft. Their most profitable industry, after hunting and fishing, is the collecting the bones of the mammoth. As success in this is entirely a matter of chance, in which skill plays no part, the occupation exerts an unfavorable influence upon their characters, developing in them the gambler's spirit. The editor, Dr. Supan, contributes an elaborate summary of facts as to the nationalities of the Prussian kingdom as shown by the census of 1890.

—In the *William and Mary College Quarterly* for July, Mr. Edward W. James completes his transcript from the third (federal) census of Princess Anne County, Va., in respect to its enumeration of slave-owners. In the January number he gave the names of those who in 1810, owned ten or more slaves; he now supplies the names of the remainder, with their respective holdings. In all, he reckons up 646 slave owners of 3,926 slaves in a population of 9,500, which was a little less than one-hundredth of the population of the whole State, so that the total number of Virginian slave-owners would (if the ratio could be relied upon) be 65,000. Now, in 1810, Virginia contained almost one-third of the entire slave population of the country, namely, 392,516 out of 1,191,364; and this would make the total slaveholding body at the South 195,000. In 1850, when the number of slaves in the United States had nearly trebled (2.7), the number of slave-owners might, therefore, have grown correspondingly to 525,000. In that year, however, the Southern statistician De Bow would venture no higher estimate than 347,525, of whom 45 per cent. (160,974) he set down as hirers. We cannot be sure, of course, that Princess Anne County, though it chances to show as nearly one-hundredth of the slaves as of the total population of Virginia, exhibits the average proportion of slaves and owners; indeed, the seaboard counties were, down to 1832, always contending for the perpetuation of slavery, with its political privileges, State and national, against those in the mountain districts and what is now West Virginia. Hence it is more than probable that the number of slave-owners fell considerably short of 60,000 in 1810. Again, the average number of slaves held by each owner in Princess Anne County was but 6, whereas in Kentucky in 1850 it appears to have been 22, and it is notorious that the size of holdings increased enormously in passing to the South Atlantic and Gulf States. While Mr. James's data, therefore, standing alone, would help us to the inference that the number of slaveholders in the United States at the time of the Compromise of 1850 did not exceed 525,000, the considerations advanced above tend to confirm De Bow's caution in stopping short at 350,000. What appears singular is, that the United States marshal in Virginia should collect statistics never published in connection with any federal census, and, so far as we know, never called for. Mr. James would do a good service if he were to ascertain whether the same thing happened in 1820 for Princess Anne.

—The most interesting and valuable part of British East Africa, judging by Mr. C. W. Hobley's account in the *Geographical Journal* for August, is Kikuyuland. It lies at a considerable height above the Masai plains, and is described as a "splendid, park-like, gently rolling country, thickly studded with small trees," a "land of wild flowers and sweet-smelling grasses." These grow in a wonderful variety in hedgerows between the paths and the plantations, so that, but for the banana groves, the traveller might imagine himself in an English lane. The ground is carefully cultivated, the men working in the fields quite as much as the women, contrary to the usual custom in Africa. They are also the only tribe, in the interior of this region at least, "who appreciate the value of manures in agriculture." The chief obstacle to the prosperity of the people is the cattle-raids of the Masai from the south, as in other parts of the country it is the slave-raids of the Somali. The remainder of the article treats particularly of the region watered by the River Tana, its tribes, their customs, superstitions, and industries, as well as the fauna. The value of this possession to

England seems as yet very problematical. Much more encouraging is Mr. T. J. Alldridge's account of the Hinterland of Sierra Leone. Till recently this has been devastated by continual tribal wars, but, by the efforts of the British Government, the prominent chiefs have been induced to give these up and to open roads and foster trade. The author was one of the treaty commissioners, and in this capacity visited tribes which had never before seen a white man. These lived in towns "beautifully clean, admirably kept, and very picturesque in appearance." Outside of every large village is a cleared place, where the chiefs and their followers assemble to decide upon matters affecting the community. These debates are conducted with the greatest ceremony and decorum. The tribe's principal industry is making cotton cloth; the men doing the weaving, the women the ginning and spinning. The cloth is dyed with an "artistic treatment of colors," and the patterns are very diverse. The women are also expert at pottery-making. At a great market which the author attended, a large variety of articles were offered for barter, the chief currency being long strips of iron in shape like a T-square. There was no disorder, in the absence of intoxicating liquor of any kind. Two curious secret organizations, one for men and boys, the other for women and girls, are described, as well as other customs. The recent landslip at Gohna, in the headwaters of the Ganges, is described with the aid of a map and plans.

—The second number of 'The Yellow Book' (London: Elkin Mathews & John Lane; Boston: Copeland & Day), continues the research for eccentricity of the first, and contains much the same mixture of good and bad. The cover is not as offensive in design as the first one, but exhibits the same crudity of color. Among the pictures, the good is represented by an exquisite drawing of Henry James by John Sargent, which shows a side of that artist's talent not generally known. He is a superb technician with the brush, but perhaps only his friends have known upon what thorough and delicate draughtsmanship his free handling is based. Next to this comes a "Renaissance of Venus" by Walter Crane, which has grace and charm, but not strength. The rest is "impressionism" and affectation, the acme of which is perhaps reached in Mr. P. Wilson Steer's "Portrait of Himself," in which most of the canvas is occupied by the figure of a girl *en chemise* putting on her shoe, while the artist is crowded into the background, and his head is entirely cut off by the frame. Nearly equal to this, however, and much worse in execution, is "A Reminiscence of 'The Transgressor,'" by Francis Forster, with the left leg and foot of one of the two figures appearing at the extreme edge of the composition. Mr. Aubrey Beardsley is as conspicuous by his vapid and vulgar attempts at French *chic* as before. In a review of the first number printed in the second, which is one of the novelties the editors have introduced, one is surprised to find Mr. Hamerton taking Mr. Beardsley quite seriously, and even calling him "a man of genius"! Another echo of No. 1 is Mr. Max Beerbohm's explanation that his "Defence of Cosmetics" is a "hoax" and a "burlesque," and that the critics, whom he violently berates, have made fools of themselves. Perhaps he is burlesquing again, for the style of his diatribe is nearly as full of affectations as was that of the original essay. Mr. James contributes another of his subtle and circumlocutory studies, and there is a little poem by Austin Dobson. The rest of the contents we will pass in silence.

—A now touching and almost tender interest attaches to a small volume from the private printing-press of H. Daniel, Oxford. It bears the title 'An Imaginary Portrait, by Walter Pater: The Child in the House,' and is nothing less than an exquisite record of the earliest recoverable impressions of Mr. Pater's own rare childhood. Mr. Pater's first published essay appeared when he was but sixteen years of age. His graceful and poetical reminiscence of his first psychical unfolding gives still stronger evidence of his extraordinarily early development. The 'Portrait' bears the date 1878, in which year it was published in *Macmillan's Magazine*. It has never, until now, appeared in book form, owing, it is said, to its personal character. Its present appearance was made at a sale, on June 12 and 13, in Worcester College Gardens, for the benefit of the parish of Saint Thomas the Martyr, Oxford, Mr. Pater having allowed Mr. and Mrs. Daniel to print it for the purpose. The edition, limited to 250 copies, is printed in Fell type, with the long *s*, on French hand made paper, with all the care and taste which distinguish the Daniel press. There are in all only sixty-one broad-margined pages, but they will be conned by all lovers of the beautiful in literature with a warmth and eagerness proportioned to their contents and not their number.

—Edwin Bormann is the author and publisher at Leipzig (New York: Westermann, and G. E Stechert) of the latest contribution to the Baconian side of the Shakspere controversy. 'Das Shakespeare-Geheimniss' is the title of his work, which begins with the familiar mystery that so obscure a person as Shakspere could write so profoundly and intellectually as to rank with the greatest poets and dramatists of all time, and ends with the contention that Bacon's 'Advancement of Learning' consisted of two parts—the one part in scientific prose under his own name, the other, designed as a parable for posterity, in dramatic form under the pseudonym of "William Shakspere." What lies between consists of a parallel in several sections between the plays and Bacon's science, as, the "Tempest," a dramatic parable in the sense of Bacon's natural philosophy; "Hamlet" in the sense of Bacon's anthropology; "Love's Labour's Lost" in the sense of Bacon's doctrine of light; the historical plays complementary to Bacon's 'Henry the Seventh,' etc. It is not until his "Schlusswort" is reached that Mr. Bormann makes any reference to the origin of the debate to which he brings more soberness and scholarly industry and not less plausibility than his predecessors. He praises Miss Delia Bacon, of course, as the pioneer, thanks Mr. Appleton Morgan for having (in his 'Shaksperian Myth') turned his (Bormann's) attention to the subject, and professes little indebtedness to Ignatius Donnelly, whose cryptogrammic discovery of state secrets he slightingly compares with his own exhibition of the marvellously secret connection between Bacon's science and the poetry of the dramas. Mrs. Pott's mosaic of coincidences he does not overrate. He convicts Spedding of being ignorant of the earliest German editions of Bacon. He recalls Gervinus's parallel of Bacon and Shakspere, which just misses the illuminating surmise that the writings of the two men are but two manifestations of the same mind. Finally, he declares that no stage can rightly produce "Shakspere" without having studied Bacon.

—All this is displayed for the incredulous on a generous page in Roman type. The author has supplemented his text with a very welcome array of facsimiles: of portraits—Bacon, his father, Queen Elizabeth, Essex, James I., Charles I., Buckingham, Inigo Jones, Ben Jonson, Shakspere; of MSS., title-pages, and specimen pages of early editions of Bacon's works and of Shakspere's plays, etc., etc.; of plans, maps, play-houses, and views of Gorhambury near St. Alban's, and of Bacon's resting-place. A singularly minute piece of evidence which Herr Bormann thus introduces pictorially is a certain tail-piece which, with slight variations, is found twice in the folio edition of Paracelsus's Complete Works published at Strassburg in 1616, twenty-five times in the Shakspere folio of 1623, and three times in the Frankfort folio edition of Bacon's Complete Works (1665). Our respect for the relative sobriety of this champion of Bacon is shaken when he discovers in this rude arabesque, with its central figure of a satyr, "the Pan-idea of the natural philosophers of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries." We accept his greeting, "Viventibus et posteris salutem," but for a further examination we cheerfully resign him to posterity.

—The surprising increase of the population of Japan since the fall of feudalism in 1868 is a subject of interest to the foreign student, and also for congratulation or anxiety to the native statesman and economist. In the old days of seclusion smallpox, famine, infanticide, the restrictions upon marriage and the wide prevalence of licensed prostitution kept the population nearly stationary, even in time of profound peace. The removal of these has powerfully affected the census. In 1871 the population of the empire was about 33,100,000; in 1875, 34,000,000; in 1880, 36,300,000; in 1885, 38,100,000; in 1890, 40,400,000, and in 1892 (December 31), 41,089,940. Railways and steamers have annihilated famines, vaccination has made the pitted face, once so general, almost as much of a curiosity as a victim of scurvy, while liberty has encouraged the people to progress and activity. Millions of men and women can now afford to have a family and possess a home who were "clouds" or "not human" under the feudalism that once cramped the nation in bands of iron. The old epidemics, once irremediable, are now very rare, because science and law are able to cope with them. The severity of the criminal law, which every year called for a rosary of thousands of heads (against the present figure of fewer than two hundred capital executions per annum), has been mitigated. The old fatalism, expressed in the popular *shigata ga nai* (don't care), inculcated by a stagnant religion that swamped the freedom of the will in a too rigid application of the doctrine of cause and effect (*ingwa*), is no longer believed as of old. In a word, a people naturally happy as well as prolific now obeys the laws of nature, with the result of surprising increase in wealth, comfort, and numbers.

—In a paper read before the Asiatic Society of Japan, in Tokio, June 27, by Prof. Garrett Droppers, on "The Population of Japan during the Tokugawa Period," the contrast between the nineteenth and each of the previous centuries was strikingly brought out. The first census taken under the Tokugawas was in 1721 and the last in 1846, but the figures show an increase during this century and a quarter of only 900,000, or less than the increase of any *five years* since 1870. The official figures are: 1721, 26,000,000; 1750, 25,900,-

000; 1780, 26.000,000; 1792, 24,800,000; 1816, 25,600,000; 1846, 26,900,000. To these figures about two millions should be added for the *samurai*, nobles, Ainos, *eta*, and *hi-nin* (not human) not reckoned in the census as "the people." Prof. Droppers gave vivid accounts from eye-witnesses of several of the very severe famines in old times, when dogs and rats were eaten and human flesh became human food. The writer of this note has heard similar testimony, and vividly remembers the long, wide, and high heaps near the cremation-houses containing the ashes of the thousands of victims of famine. The corpses were quickly cremated to prevent pestilence. Fear, anxiety, and insufficient nourishment also attended upon the steps of famine to swell the list of the deaths. Under these circumstances, the temper of the Japanese people became that of submission to the inevitable. Shortsightedness in commercial matters, an eye to immediate rather than remote gain, and excessive timidity and conservatism, are charged to the Japanese by foreigners. It is manifest, however, that the spirit of the Japanese is now becoming more resolute, and that happiness as well as courage in every-day affairs is on the increase on a national scale. It is a fascinating question, but one not to be discussed here, whether Buddhism, which has so long dominated the Japanese popular mind, can hold its own under the changed conditions.

## ALCHEMY AND CHEMISTRY.

*The Alchemical Essence and the Chemical Element:* An Episode in the Quest of the Unchanging. By M. M. Pattison Muir. Longmans. 1894.

*Law and Theory in Chemistry:* A Companion Book for Students. By Douglas Carnegie, sometime Scholar and Demonstrator in Chemistry of Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge. Longmans. 1894.

Two very eminent chemists have devoted a considerable part of their lives to the elucidation of alchemy, Kopp and Berthelot. Their genius and skill as chemists do not at all come into play in this undertaking, although, of course, some proficiency in chemistry is requisite even to read alchemical treatises, not to speak of appreciating them. Kopp's is a solid compendium of two octavo volumes, mostly of fine print, which gives the titles of an enormous number of writings, and a good deal of general information, but really little about the inside of alchemical treatises. It dwells particularly on the alchemy that just preceded modern chemistry. It was published in 1886. Berthelot's labors, mostly more recent, are of a totally different and higher kind, consisting in the transcription, translation, and elucidation of a number of Greek papyri about as old as the Christian era, together with a few mediæval manuscripts which throw some light on the papyri. He has thus completely opened up to us the Egyptian alchemy, while leaving that of western Europe untouched. We have, besides, a work which is one of the greatest psychological curiosities of literature. Its date is 1869. It is considerably longer than Green's 'Short History of the English People.' Its peculiarity is that its author, Dr. Gottlieb Latz, professes himself to be a believer in the doctrine. There would be nothing surprising about that were it not that the tone is decidedly critical and even sceptical. He drops such expressions as, "Alchemy is not an inquiry but a speculation." What he calls "the gold-making swindle," and by other contemptuous designations, is suggested as the explanation of every boast of the adept. He sees in alchemy a general mystical doctrine with applications to man, to plants, to metals. It has had, he tells us, various forms, but all are interpretations of the Smaragdine Table. This is certainly in part true, and Latz makes the mediæval alchemists more intelligible to us than anybody else has done, even if we do not believe the Smaragdine Table has played the part he attributes to it. But it is astounding to find a medical man, able to throw light on a difficult problem, who yet attributes wonderful powers to seven "arcana," which are, (1) sulphuric acid, (2) iron, (3) carbonate of soda, (4) Chili saltpetre, (5) solution of sulphide of ammonium, (6) *Pulver solaris ruber, i. e.*, a mixture of red oxide of mercury with pentasulphide of antimony, (7) *Pulver solaris niger, i. e.*, a mixture of red oxide of mercury with tersulphide of antimony. We mention the work because it is not very well known.

But all three books hardly afford us a living mental portraiture of the mediæval alchemist. Of the externals of the man we have several contemporary pictures; of modern psychological studies perhaps those of Dumas and Balzac are not quite worthless; but as to the state of the mediæval alchemist's intellect we have had no popular delineation before this sketch by Mr. Pattison Muir, and this is very true to nature. But more we cannot say for his work.

Mr. Carnegie's is a little volume of two hundred and odd pages of small octavo about the history and philosophy of chemistry, from the alchemists to this day. It is not intended for beginners, but to "recapitulate and coördinate the more important principles of the science, before proceeding to more detailed and advanced works." Certainly so small a volume must be inadequate to the needs of adult and serious students; but there are a good many practical chemists who are too negligent of the marvellous progress that chemical dynamics has made of late years, and of its growing practical importance, and this volume will serve to show them that they must lose no time in studying Ostwald's 'Allgemeines Lehrbuch,' from which a large part of Mr. Carnegie's volume has been abridged, and which, by the way, ought to be translated entire. Moreover, there are others, bright students, even boys, and a few general readers, to whom, if they know how to read a book they cannot entirely comprehend, this volume may lift a veil, and display, if only confusedly to those not well acquainted with chemistry, what a vast field is being worked and with what success.

Alchemy is treated by Mr. Carnegie in the slight, we had almost said the facetious, vein which is inevitable when history is made subservient to doctrine. Indeed, the whole first chapter, which carries us to phlogiston, is of small accuracy. Thus, having finished with the alchemists, the first sentence following is: "With the Benedictine monk, Basil Valentine, begins the period of iatrochemistry, . . . during which transmutation was in abeyance." It is true that the author of the 'Triumph-Wagen' calls himself "Basilius Valentinus, ein Bruder des geschwornen Ordens S. Benedicti." But this cannot be true, because the Emperor Maximilian instituted inquiries in 1515 to find out who Basil Valentine was, and completely failed. Now the general catalogue of the order, kept at Rome, was open to him, and therefore it is impossible there ever should have been a Benedictine of that name. The author of the books was in all probability living in 1515. Dr. Latz will not admit that any of the other writings which pass under the name of Basil Valentine are by the author of the 'Triumph-Wagen,' because they do not accord with the cryptic interpretation which he traces out for this; but to ordinary men they seem wonderfully like that in style, and certainly in strong contrast with earlier alchemical works, so that they must at any rate be classed with the works of the "spagiros," as they call themselves.* Now these writings have much to do with transmutation. Mr. Carnegie's next sentence states that "heretofore the apothecaries had prescribed purely vegetable preparations only, but now we find mineral specifics contesting the field with them and partially replacing them." This is a mistake. To give no other refutation of it, Avicenna had been translated by Gherardus Cremonensis in the twelfth century, and that translation still in use, with all the corrections noted, gives as medicaments antimonium, ammoniacum, alaunoc et alahabar (*i. e.*, graphite, or possibly $MoS_2$), asius, alæ, argentum vivum, atrimentum, arsenicum, azul, ambra, aranea, argentum, alumen, adeps, acetum, aurum, etc.

Van Helmont is passed by with bare mention in a footnote, albeit he did much toward causing gases to be conceived as corporeal substances, and invoked the balance to decide a chemical question, a stupendous idea had he only not unfortunately overlooked the possibility that substance concreted from gases might weigh something. Coming down to Robert Boyle, Mr. Carnegie speaks of his style as "language which knows nothing of the mystic and rococo style of alchemistical literature." Now it is true that alchemists are all mystics, and that the iatrochemists are often bombastic; but to say that the style of the mediæval alchemists is rococo, or florid, is exactly like making the same accusation against the Cook's Own Book. Their writings are as dry as possible. Everybody knows what Boyle's style is, because Swift's 'Meditation on a Broomstick' imitates it to perfection, except in one particular, his quite inimitable long-windedness.

The second chapter is devoted to the Phlogistic Period. In the third, the historical arrangement is abandoned, and the treatment of mixtures is considered in a manner which fails to leave a very definite impression on the reader's mind. In the fourth, on the Atomic Theory, there is a return to the first method, and a most interesting, though not quite full, narrative is given of the various waves of opinion which swept over the chemical world from Dalton to Williamson. Mr. Carnegie says it seems as if Berzelius were *lucky* about his atomic weights. *Luck* is a self-contradictory idea; but there is perhaps a sagacity whose reasoning is too subtle and nice for its possessor ever to give a satisfactory account of it. Dalton and others seem to have been possessed by such inspiration-like insight when they accepted the Atomic Theory. It is now eighty-six years since men to be listened to have been very clearly and very pertinently asking those who hold that the facts of chemistry support the atomic theory, why it is that 1,234,567 atoms of hydrogen might not form a saturated compound with 617,283 atoms of oxygen, unless by virtue of a special law which would give rise to simple compounds though there were no atoms? And this question, incessantly asked, has never been answered. By this time facts non-chemical have caused almost all physicists to believe in atoms. But it would aid the chemical philo-

*The 'Century Dictionary' attributes the word "Spagiric" to Paracelsus; but it is certainly older.

sophy, and perhaps throw much light on it, if the secret reasons which led chemists to accept the theory before the physical proofs were known could be ascertained. This chapter ends with a discussion of molecules which is hardly in continuity with the first part, but is worthy of attention by itself.

The remainder of the volume sketches rather too slightly the most modern theories by which chemists are laying siege to their great problem. That problem is this: The periodic law makes all the properties of the elements to be dependent upon their atomic weights alone. It is required, then, to produce an hypothesis from which may be deduced from the atomic weights all the physical and chemical properties with mathematical strictness. It is also requisite that this hypothesis should explain why the atomic weights are precisely what they are—that of oxygen, for instance, 15.94 instead of 16, etc. A few years ago the idea of setting up such an aim, even as a remote one, would have seemed chimerical, and it may seem so to-day to many chemists; but in a few years more it will be in full sight of all as the Alp which our army has to mount.

One question which it is very desirable to settle as early as possible is, whether the forces existing between atoms are polar or not. At first blush, it seems as if they must be so, because of the fact of saturation. But Van't Hoff suggests that the surfaces of atoms are level surfaces, with points of maximum attraction. In that case, saturation consists in having all the places where atoms would be strongly attracted occupied. This theory seems to involve the conception that an atom has a surface and a size. Yet the Boscovitchian idea may be true just the same, for that theory virtually gives to the atom a surface, namely, the surface of the space within which the central force is repulsive, while outside of that it is attractive. Prof. Mayer made some years ago a very beautiful experiment by which little objects floating on water were made to repel one another if very near together, but attract (or rather, all were attracted towards a common centre, which is the same in effect) when at greater distances. The result was that they arranged themselves in regular clusters strongly suggestive of chemical molecules. If we add the hypothesis of their being in constant motion without resistance, we seem to have all the elements requisite for a foundation for chemical dynamics without polarity in the forces. Prout's law would also be accounted for in this way; for if two Boscovitchian atoms have attractions which increase inversely as a high power of the distance with no repulsion for smaller distances, one may easily encounter another in such a way as to move in narrowing spirals around it for ever; and nothing would be likely ever to separate them. The inexactitude of Prout's law is a fact calling for a distinct hypothesis.

The manner in which Mr. Carnegie has set forth the tridimensional graphs of Wislicenus, Le Bel, Van't Hoff, and Guye, and Horstmann's application of thermodynamics to chemical processes, is extremely clear, and calculated to set the student to work to learn more of these matters. The author is thoroughly versed in all the modern ideas, thinks with rare clearness, and writes with peculiar simplicity, grace, and charm.

## NEWTON'S RUN THROUGH RUSSIA.

A *Run through Russia:* The Story of a Visit to Count Tolstoi. By W. W. Newton. Hartford: The Student Publishing Company.

After all the books, articles, and reviews, all more or less competent, which have been written about Count L. N. Tolstoi, admiration must needs be of the most enthusiastic character to induce a man to write a volume of more than fifty thousand words on the subject, when his personal knowledge of it is limited to half-a-dozen hours' intercourse, at the most, with the famous author. The actual conversation is contained in the brief space of four short pages, and imparts no information which the world has not already received direct from Count Tolstoi in his own books. This is not Mr. Newton's fault; his will to ask questions was of the best. But the Count is not communicative to entire strangers, and he has had nothing really new to say for a long time past in his books, which are of much later date than those here reported in the spring of 1889, all being, substantially, only extreme statements of opinions long ago shadowed forth or announced in less detail.

We speak advisedly of this book as consisting of a certain number of words. It certainly was a singular idea to make such a compilation from Count Tolstoi's own works, from the books and magazine articles of other writers, from stray newspaper reviews and paragraphs (all duly credited, we are glad to see), under the title, "The Story of a Visit to Count Tolstoi," since all these quotations, with the possible exception of the newspaper articles, have long been familiar to the public. The writer's laudations of Count Tolstoi as a philosophical and theological thinker, and the grounds stated for his enthusiasm over the great Russian author, seem singular on the part of an Episcopal clergyman, who, presumably, has been trained to logical thinking in those lines. On p. 87 he ranks John the Baptist, Buddha, Tolstoi, George Fox, William Penn, and Christ as equal gods, and on p. 119 he says of Tolstoi's discourses called 'The Spirit of Christ's Teachings,' that they "reveal a depth of spiritual insight and an originality of exegesis in the study of the Bible which remind us of the fearless common sense of John Bunyan in his 'Pilgrim's Progress,' or Sir Thomas Browne in his 'Religio Medici,' and prepare us for that original interpretation of the Scriptures which marks the pages of his later theological work, 'My Religion.'" Not many of Mr. Newton's brethren in the Episcopal Church are likely to agree with him here, nor are many laymen likely to be converted. The plain truth of the matter is, that Count Tolstoi has a great genius for novel-writing, in his earlier style, but that he has neither a philosophical nor a theological mind; nor has he the training which might have rendered his deficiencies less apparent.

Mr. Newton must be credited with one very startling novelty, namely, his description of Count Tolstoi as "a diminutive, sensitive-looking man"! In general, it must be said of his powers of observation, that they are far from acute or accurate. As his entire stay in the country, including the railway journeys of entrance and exit, was limited, apparently, to ten days, it could hardly be expected from him that he should be infallible on fundamental questions of politics and religion; but we might look for correct reports of ordinary occurrences which fell under his eye. It is worth while to call attention to a few of his errors, because, while he records his observations with great positiveness, they by no means always agree among themselves

We ought not to expect correct transliteration of Russian words, so we may pass over that point, merely remarking that a three-horse sledge is a troika, but not a tritska nor a troitska; that *Gospodi pomilou* (Lord, have mercy!) is the proper form of the refrain in the Liturgy, not "Gospidi pomilon." But surely the author and the three men to whom he acknowledges indebtedness in the preface should have been able, by their combined efforts and a little consultation of the guide-books and other works quoted, to avoid such errors as "Quarenghi" for Guarenghi, "Arvazovsky" for Aivazovsky, "St. John Nevski" for St. Alexander Nevski; the assertions that the river Neva flows from the non-existent "Lake Olga" instead of Lake Ladoga; that the Czars are always crowned, and that all the Romanoff princes have been buried, in the Cathedral of the Annunciation, Moscow; and that Ivan the Terrible's tomb is built as an annex just outside the church. The Czars are all crowned in the Cathedral of the Assumption; in the olden times they were baptized and married in the Cathedral of the Annunciation; down to the time of Peter the Great they were buried in the Cathedral of St. Michael Archangel, since which they have all been buried in St. Petersburg, though the author overlooks it in his description of the Fortress of Sts. Peter and Paul. Ivan the Terrible's tomb stands in a chapel near the altar of St. Michael's, and it is the tomb of Vasily Shuisky which stands in a separate chapel, adjoining the cathedral, because he was a usurper.

The author quotes Murray to the effect that the word Kremlin cannot be traced to any certain source; whereas the Russian form *kreml* is well known to be a Tatar word meaning fortress. He saw peasants gathering pussy-willows along the riverside, "with which they would then proceed to the different shrines and icons within the Kremlin walls, there to dedicate them to their favorite saint and patron." Had he inquired, he would have discovered that these willow branches were for use on Palm Sunday, in the character of palms, as the only green thing to be had at that season, and that they are never put up over the images in church; that custom being restricted to the holy pictures in private dwellings.

On page 24 Mr. Newton says: "We regret to state that the custom in vogue whereby the drozhky driver was to consider himself rejected was the familiar American method of spitting on the rejected candidate." We should like to inquire where, in America, this "familiar method" is in use, and to remark that it certainly is not in vogue in St. Petersburg. It would have required a good deal of saliva to spit on each one of the army of candidates for custom which he describes. What happened was, simply, that, seeing the party emerge from an expensive hotel, the cabman asked an exorbitant price, as is generally the case in Russia, and their guide went through the form, common among the Russian lower classes, of spitting aside, not on them, to signify his scorn of their extortionate demands. That guide evidently understood what was expected of him, and earned his wages with extravagant stories which a little inquiry would have disproved. He trusted to the party's innocence and lack of acquaintance to believe in him, and they justified his opinion of them. For example, the author and a friend had been calling at the Winter Palace, where they shared in the afternoon tea of a court lady's weekly reception, evidently mistaking it for a "lunch" given for them, since it is so stated, where the hostess was working on an altar

carpet for a church, not on "an immense sampler," and where the lackey was clad in dark green, scarlet and gold braid, but was not "an elegance in blue daisies and white," whatever that may mean. We cite these errors to illustrate the general carelessness of the author's observation. When they rejoined their guide at the door, the latter said to them: "Stretch your necks, gentlemen. Look up the staircase! That is the Grand Duke Vladimir, brother of the Czar; he is going to a state dinner at the Winter Palace—the Czar is up stairs on the second landing." Alas for the guide's veracity and his patrons' credulity! No state dinner could possibly be given on Saturday. Sunday begins at sundown, theoretically; all Russians are supposed to attend the evening service in church; even the State theatres give no performances (in Russian); and the Emperor could not, if he would, thus flagrantly infringe custom and etiquette. Moreover, the Grand Duke Vladimir would not have been ascending that particular staircase (in the part of the palace known as the Old Hermitage), which does not lead to any imperial apartments, to attend a dinner which takes place in a very different part of the vast Winter Palace; he would have used the elevator, probably (which Mr. Newton seems to have missed), and the Emperor would not wait for him on the second landing, which commands a fine view, through glass, into the private imperial riding school.

The author's sweeping pronouncement on the "conventional faith in the Christian religion of the Russian upper classes," on p. 55, is curious when compared with his amusing laudation of "the Christian gentleness" of Gen. Kireef, "who seemed to realize the apostle's description of Cornelius the Centurion as one who was just and devout, and who served God with all his house," and with his parting shot, on p. 198, at "such a God-forsaken, darkened country as Russia," which our author had weighed in the balance and found utterly wanting in the space of a week! Even more curious is the result of comparing passages on pp. 115, 116, and 181. On p. 115 Mr. Newton says: "But there is one element in Tolstoi's genius from which, more than any other, it derives its most peculiar and characteristic tone; and this is his profound capacity for introspection, and his habit of exercising it constantly upon himself and in the study of other minds when he finds occasion for it. In regard to himself, the impulse of self-study, self-judgment, self-revelation seems to have been irresistible." On p. 116 he adds: "In his later novels, the conflicting moods and opinions which are agitating his own mind, are divided among appropriate characters; three at least being thus inspired in one work, 'War and Peace.' But invariably, however introduced, what he sees in his inmost self is reflected with realistic vividness. His very latest works are avowedly autobiographical." On p. 181 he says: "The inveterate vice of Lermontof, as of Pushkin, is the persistence with which he fixes his gaze upon himself, and everlastingly describes himself and his own feelings in his works. . . . A spirit so subjective was incapable of holding the mirror up to nature and revealing the temper of his countrymen and the condition of the land and time in which he lived."

The part of the book from which the last quotation is taken, that devoted to "Russian National Literature," has nothing whatever to do with either title or sub title, and it would have been better to omit it, especially as the greater part of it, as of the rest of the book, could not, necessarily, have been got at first hand, and as carelessness in compilation and copying deprives it of whatever value it might otherwise have possessed as a handy reference for those who are not already provided with one of the numerous good text-books or compendiums of Russian literature. It is marred by such positive assertions as the following: "The very list of the names of the writers and court poets under Catherine II. is tedious and dull, like an interminable procession of black hearses with empty coffins in them"—after which he gives the names of the absent corpses. Had he ever read Von Vizin's comedies, or seen the latter's play, "The Hobbledehoy," which holds the stage to this day, he might have omitted the name of that very lively corpse. "Rusland and Sindmila" instead of Ruslan and Ludmila, "Ouyegin" for Onyegin, "Herzin" for Herzen, "Tchrunishevski" for Tchernishevski, are instances of the carelessness displayed in this section.

The book is illustrated with the stock pictures of Count Tolstoi, the fortress, the Winter Palace, and so forth, more badly reproduced than usual, and including one of the Emperor and his family which is particularly unfortunate in that it represents the now bearded Tzesarevitch and his eldest sister, of the respective ages of twenty six and nineteen, as a smooth-faced lad of twenty and a little girl of thirteen years of age. We must also take exception to the heavy jocosity of the style, and the seasoning of frivolously introduced forced quotations from Scripture and allusions to Scripture, at all possible and impossible points, as being undignified and in questionable taste.

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*The Silva of North America.* By Charles S. Sargent. Vol. VI. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1894.

THIS volume finishes the account of the trees of the Gamopetaleæ, and commences that of the Apetaleæ. Thirty-three trees are illustrated, of which thirteen are species of the genus *Fraxinus*, or ash. This name "ash" has been used in the vernacular for trees of very dissimilar nature; for while the trees known as white-ash, black-ash, blue-ash, and red ash are true species of *Fraxinus*, the poison-ash is a *Rhus*, and the tree commonly called mountain-ash is a *Pyrus*. This popular misuse of the name has undoubtedly arisen from a similarity in the foliage of the trees, for all of them, with the exception of the one-leaved ash of southern Colorado, have pinnate leaves, with several leaflets along each side of the common midrib. The genus *Fraxinus* belongs to the natural order *Oleaceæ*, the type of which is the classic olive (*Olea Europæa*). This order also includes the jasmine, the lilacs, the Virginian fringe-tree, and the prim or privet, so largely used for hedges. Among our native ash trees the white-ash (*Fraxinus Americana*) is easily the chief, being sometimes considerably over a hundred feet high, and with a trunk sometimes five or six feet in diameter near the ground. The trunk is, however, usually much slenderer, especially where the trees grow in dense forests. When Henry Clay was a candidate for the Presidency, it was common for his followers to set up a white-ash liberty-pole, probably in honor of Ashland, the home of the great Kentuckian. The red-ash (*Fraxinus Pennsylvanica*) furnishes a wood inferior in quality to the white-ash, but often substituted for it. The black-ash (*F. nigra*) has wood which is readily separable into layers, and is therefore largely used for cheap basket-work. There is a traditional belief that poisonous serpents have a wholesome fear of white-ash twigs and leaves, and that to stuff the leaves in one's shoes, or to carry a branch of the tree, "will keep off snakes." It might be interesting to inquire whether this notion is in any way connected with the Scandinavian ash-tree Ygdrasyl and the adder Nithhöggr, which was for ever gnawing at its root.

The Virginian fringe-tree (*Chionanthus Virginicus*) is well known as an ornamental shrub in our gardens; in the Southern States it sometimes becomes a tree twenty-five or thirty feet high. The devil-wood (*Osmanthus Americanus*) inhabits the coast region of the Southern States, where its polished, laurel-like foliage and its clusters of fragrant white flowers render it a very showy tree. The berries are dark blue when ripe, and nearly as large as a small olive, but apparently inedible.

The Virginian persimmon (*Diospyros Virginiana*) and the Texan persimmon (*D. Texana*) are our representatives of the *Ebenaceæ*, or ebony family. The black ebony of commerce is the heart-wood of several species of this genus *Diospyros*, natives of the Mauritius and East Indies. Prof. Sargent states that the heart-wood of the Virginian persimmon is dark brown or nearly black, but that it is seldom seen, as it is not formed until the tree is over a hundred years old. This tree ranges from Florida and Texas to Long Island, and a few straggling shrubs along the Connecticut shore give it a claim to be even a native of New England. In cultivation it fruits freely in southern Connecticut. The yellowish fruits are rather more than an inch in diameter, and contain several large seeds. Scarcely anything called fruit is more austere than an unripe persimmon; but when they have been frozen, or, in the extreme South, allowed to hang long on the tree, persimmons are sweet and luscious, and have a taste peculiar but by no means unpleasant. Now and then an individual tree has especially good fruit, and Prof. Sargent well remarks that by careful selection and cultivation the fruit might in time be made to equal the best Chinese and Japanese varieties in size and flavor.

The sweet-leaf or horse-sugar (*Symplocos tinctoria*) is a small tree of the Southern States, having somewhat laurel-like foliage and close axillary clusters of little sweet-scented yellowish or creamy flowers. The leaves are sweet to the taste and are eagerly devoured by domestic cattle. When dry, they are bright greenish-yellow in color, and, with the bark, are used in domestic dyeing. The silver-bell trees, heretofore known as *Halesia tetraptera* and *Halesia diptera*, but now masquerading under other names imposed through peculiar notions of what is proper in nomenclature, are graceful shrubs, or sometimes trees, with white, bell-shaped blossoms hanging from the branchlets on slender pedicels. They are beautiful in nature and in cultivation, but seem to have no use in the practical arts.

The natural order *Boragineæ*, represented in our gardens by the heliotrope and the forget-me-not, contains within its limits a good many tropical trees, and in Florida or Texas there are several trees of this order. *Cordia Sebestena*, of Florida and the Antilles, has clusters of large, flame-colored blossoms followed by ivory-white fruits the size of a large acorn. It is cultivated at Key West, and may have escaped from gardens and become naturalized in southern Florida. *Cordia Boissieri* is a somewhat similar Mexican tree, the flowers larger and white, which is occasionally found in Texas and New Mexico. The other trees of this family described by Prof. Sargent are the strong-back (*Bourreria Havanensis*), a West

Indian tree which occurs on the Florida Keys, and the Mexican Anaqua (*Ehretia elliptica*), which occurs native in Texas, and is often planted in the streets as a shade-tree on account of its dark-green foliage and its abundant clusters of white flowers. The two species of *Catalpa* come next, both probably natives of the Mississippi Valley, and both well known and often planted for shade or ornament. *Catalpa bignonioides*, here called *Catalpa catalpa*, in obedience to the ill-advised rules of the system of nomenclature adopted for this work, has less acuminately pointed leaves and less profusely spotted flowers than the other species (*Catalpa speciosa*). Both were formerly confounded under the old name of *Catalpa bignonioides*, and were separated in 1880 by Dr. Engelmann. The other trees of this family (*Bignoniaceæ*) are the Mexican *Chilopsis linearis*, which occurs from Texas to southern California, and the West Indian black-calabash (*Crescentia cucurbitina*), which is found on the continent only along the shores of Biscayne Bay in Florida.

Of the remaining five trees of this volume it need only be noted that one has both its English name, fiddle-wood, and its scientific name, *Citharexylum*, alike founded on a mistranslation of the old French name, *bois fidèle*, which was given to it on account of the great strength and toughness of its wood; and that another tree, the sea-grape (*Coccolobis uvifera*), growing along the Florida sea-coast, has bunches of nearly inedible grape-like berries and large, round, leathery leaves. A good use of this plant, not mentioned in the 'Silva,' is to place its branches on a camp-fire to drive away mosquitoes, which are usually very abundant wherever the sea-grape is found. The next volume of this splendid work will probably begin with the *Lauraceæ*, including red-bay and sassafras, and will include our native species of elm, mulberry, walnut, and hickory.

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*The Life and Letters of James Macpherson*, containing a particular account of his famous quarrel with Dr. Johnson and a sketch of the origin and influence of the Ossianic Poems. By Bailey Saunders. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1894.

A THOROUGHLY scientific treatise on the Ossianic legends of Ireland and of the Highlands has long been a desideratum. Such a treatise would have much to say about James Macpherson and his English Ossian, no doubt, but, contrary to the general opinion, Macpherson's gaudy prose-poems would not be the centre of the discussion. Nor would there be much occasion for argument as to Macpherson's "originals" or the processes which brought his Ossian into its actual shape. No serious student of seventeenth-century literature any longer subscribes to Dr. Johnson's rough-and-ready verdict of out-and-out forgery, to say nothing of his brutal hypothesis of a fraudulent combination among all Scotsmen to shield a known fabricator. The celebrated Report of the Highland Society, published in 1805, after an investigation conducted with great fairness, showed that Macpherson really collected a good quantity of Gaelic poetry—some of which he but imperfectly understood—and that this furnished the groundwork not only for the 'Fragments' but for the formidable epics of 'Fingal' and 'Temora.' The same report makes equally clear the paraphrastic nature of Macpherson's translations, and the fact that he added, omitted, and combined with the greatest freedom. Though the utterances of Macpherson at various times in the long course of contemporary controversy were not always perfectly consistent, it should never be forgotten that he did not pretend that the two epics were discovered in the form in which he gave them to the world, but, on the contrary, represented himself as having pieced them together from many fragments.

All these facts, we repeat, have long been known, and would not have to be proved and could not be much disputed by any scholar who might undertake to supply the desideratum that we have mentioned. That scholar would have a far more difficult job on his hands than the assignment of Macpherson to his place in the limbo of dead authors. He would have to settle, if possible, the dates of the various pieces of Ossianic verse that are indisputably genuine, in the sense that they have been taken down from the lips of Highland reciters; he would have to determine the relations of the Highland Ossianic cycle to the Ossianic cycle in Ireland; and, finally, he would have to fix the positions of Finn and Ossian in the whole body of Celtic myth and legend. We need not say that, in discussing this last question, he would find himself involved in one of the most difficult problems of modern scholarship, and would have to reckon with those paradoxical theories with which Prof. Zimmer has for several years been surprising the learned world, and which he has advocated with an abundance of learning that may well be the despair of most of his opponents.

Mr. Bailey Saunders has no such purpose. He is not a Celtic savant, so far as we know, and he makes no pretensions to knowledge that he does not possess. He has apparently not informed himself as to the larger questions which surround the Macpherson domain. Zimmer he does not mention, nor has he much considered the possibility that the Ossianic story, even if its kernel is of considerable antiquity, may have been contaminated with all sorts of foreign material long before the last century. We do not say this by way of reproach, but merely by way of defining the radius of our author's researches. Zimmer's scattered and vagarious articles are hard reading and probably never met Mr. Saunders's eye. Certainly the latter may be forgiven for not having discovered the few lines of fine print which Zimmer devotes to Macpherson in a chance footnote, much as those lines would have interested him.

To most persons Macpherson is a forger who inoculated the last century with a variety of literary madness from which Byron suffered slightly in his youth. Mr. Saunders, coming to see the inexactness of this view, had the rather happy thought of writing Macpherson's life in a form not too elaborate to be read. The result is a decidedly interesting book. Of "Ossian" the author says little or nothing that is absolutely new. He puts into readable shape the results of the Highland Society's report, and to some extent the substance of other works which, though accessible enough, are never consulted by the general reader, and seldom, we fear, by students of our literature. This is a real service to letters; for, however dead 'Fingal' and 'Temora' may be, there is no exaggerating their importance in the history of the Romantic movement in England and on the Continent. We must add that Mr. Saunders makes some sensible remarks on this point, and that, in general, he is commendably judicial both as critic and as biographer.

The first half of his book is as easy reading as one can desire. The last half, which extends from 1763 to Macpherson's death in 1796, is somewhat less entertaining, but is far from dull. It is well that Macpherson's career as provincial secretary and surveyor-general of Florida, as newspaper writer, pensioner, historian, political pamphleteer, as agent for the nabob of Arcot, as country gentleman, should be set forth, once for all, in moderate compass. It has a good deal of interest in itself and throws some light on the times. Mr. Saunders has been conscientiously concise. He has had access to some unpublished materials, and prints a few letters—not enough, we think, to justify the title 'Life and Letters,' but enough to satisfy any reasonable curiosity about Macpherson's epistolary abilities, which were no brilliant.

The book closes with a chapter on the course of the Ossianic controversy, in the limited sense, since 1795. In this chapter fortune plays Mr. Saunders a jade's trick. So far he has steered clear of the Eddas, but here, in the last paragraph but one, he must needs attempt to compare the history of these works with Macpherson's manipulation of Ossianic material. Evidently he knows nothing whatever about either Edda, so that this paragraph is elaborately absurd. We will not quote it, however, preferring to leave it to the lenient judgment of the reader when he has actually finished the book and is—as he will be—in good humor with the author.

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*A Short History of the Crusades.* By J. I. Mombert, D.D. D. Appleton & Co.

DR. MOMBERT has restricted himself to a bare narrative of events, and these are often so disjointed and miscellaneous that his account cannot always be easily followed. The separate exploits of a multitude of leaders make up a register which lacks coherence. It is too much to expect us to jump from the affairs at Edessa in one paragraph to those of Ptolemais in the next, and so on to Antioch or Tripolis or Jaffa. Doubtless the difficulty of blending the separate rills of story is great, but only by successfully blending could the best result be reached. We should have liked to have a better picture of the conflicting civilizations of Christendom and Islam from the eleventh through the thirteenth centuries; to have been told more clearly why it was, for instance, that the Christians of 1260 could not be roused to rescue the Holy Sepulchre as their grandfathers had been, or why the Crusaders appeared to the Saracens as a semi-barbarous people—in a word, we could have wished the underlying causes and spiritual forces described with more fulness and the details of battles cut down. For, after all, when you know that two hosts are at war, you gain little by reading reiterated statements of battles. What does it matter whether the King of France or the Duke of Austria charged the enemy's right wing at a given moment, if that particular fight was very much like twenty others? We do not mean to say that alert readers will not be able to get from Dr. Mombert a good deal besides martial descriptions, but we do mean that these too much obscure deeper considerations of cause and effect.

One point which any writer upon the Crusades might well devote attention to is the statistics of the forces engaged. If we are to believe the old chroniclers, armies of 200,000 or 300,000 men were raised with astonishing despatch by either contestant; it was no rare thing for 50,000 men to be slain in battle or to die of pestilence. But whoever has been in Palestine knows that, to-day at least, such multitudes could not be supported there a

week; how, then, were they supported for months and years during the Crusades? Whence came the provisions and water? Or, as seems more likely, are the numbers of combatants and camp-followers enormously exaggerated? For all that one can see, 200,000 or 300,000 soldiers, suddenly set down on Cape Cod, would have as fair a chance of subsistence as the Crusaders had in the neighborhood of Jerusalem. If an historian, therefore, has not the data to correct the figures, he ought at least to explain how so vast a force could be fed. We may be sure that mediæval cities and rural districts did not live less from hand-to-mouth than our own do, and we ought to be told where the enormous surplus stores came from.

Gibbon, it will be remembered, declared that the Crusades "checked rather than forwarded the maturity of Europe." The majority of subsequent historians, on the contrary, have asserted that they helped to advance the civilization of Europe. The question, to our thinking, is very difficult, and of more interest than any narrative of the exploits of the Crusaders themselves. We could wish, therefore, that Dr. Mombert had given to it more than a few superficial paragraphs at the end of his book. How far did the intercourse of Christian and Mussulman benefit each? What influence had the Crusades on chivalry and the European ideal of honor? How far did the filtration of classic learning through Arabic writers hasten the Renaissance? Was the culmination of the Papacy in the reign of Innocent III. a result of the Holy Wars? Was the tendency towards the absorption of small fiefs in great fiefs, and towards the formation of national governments along dynastic lines, accelerated by them? Were they indispensable to the expansion of commerce? How did the Christian Crusades differ from the Mohammedan religious wars four hundred years earlier? These are matters which call for philosophic treatment, and which cannot properly be ignored in any history of the Crusades, if the Crusaders are to be lifted in the records of the human race above the significance of gigantic bands of Coxeyite vagabonds.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alger, Horatio, Jr. Only an Irish Boy. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Bird, Charles. Geology: A Manual for Students in Advanced Classes. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.25.
Carwardine, Rev. W. H. The Pullman Strike. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co.
Drage, Geoffrey. The Unemployed. Macmillan. $1.50.
Elmslie, Theodore C. The Little Lady of Lavender. Philadelphia: American Sunday-School Union. $1.25.
Filon, Augustin. Renégat, 1586-1593. [Bibliothèque de Romans Historiques.] Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Grimm's Fairy Tales. [The Chandos Classics.] F. Warne & Co. $1.
Hardy, E. G. Christianity and the Roman Government: A Study in Imperial Administration. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Meredith, George. Lord Ormont and his Aminta. Scribners. $1.50.
Raimond, C. E. George Mandeville's Husband. Appletons. 50 cents.


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BRENTANO'S,
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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 30, 1894.

## The Week.

On Tuesday began a new era in the industrial history of the United States, when the first step for more than a generation was taken in the direction of the emancipation of commerce from the shackles of mediæval exclusiveness and the fallacies of the mercantile system. For many reasons this step has been far more difficult to take than any subsequent one will be. Arrayed against its policy there have been the solid ranks of the Republican party, while the protectionist element among the Democrats has, with only too much success, resisted reform and limited the reduction of duties. Nevertheless, a measure of reform has been adopted, and the attitude of the country has been thereby changed. Henceforth we face, not toward increasing corruption in political campaigns and in the halls of Congress, but towards greater purity. We are turning away from an atmosphere foul with open lobbying and secret bribery to one in which the purchase of favorable legislation will cease to be a principal element, not only because it will not be practicable, but also because it will no longer be thought desirable. After the first plunge, the new medium of freer trade will be found by great numbers of people to be not only less terrible than they supposed, but even positively beneficial; and this will be peculiarly the case with many of the manufacturers.

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The decision of the Treasury Department to allow withdrawal from bond without payment of duty, in the case of all goods put on the free list, is certainly good sense and presumably good law. It is, moreover, but a small number of articles that will be affected by the decision — pig tin and wool being the chief. The statement is given out that if anybody feels "aggrieved" at the secretary's interpretation of the law, he can test the matter in the courts. But it is hard to imagine who could feel aggrieved. The importers will not consider it a hardship to be let off paying thousands of dollars in duties, nor will the manufacturers rebel at getting their raw material cheaper, or the consumers at obtaining the finished product at a lower figure. The tin-miners have too many suits for fraud to defend just now to care about resisting the free entry of tin to compete with their mythical product. We should think it possible that the Political Shepherds would have grievous sensations at seeing wool come in duty free, but it is doubtful if they will stop over so small a matter as this Treasury decision. They have the far grander work on their hands of fulfilling their old threat to make the manufacturing towns of New England howling wastes.

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That wool-laden bark, cruising off Boston harbor until the new tariff came into effect, ought to be significant of much to our protectionist brethren. The dreadful avalanche of foreign free wool is already upon us, and yet the price of domestic wool is advancing and the woollen mills are preparing for a great rush of business. What has McKinley to say to this? Does he mean, as he says, promptly to restore protection to wool and woollen manufactures, and stop all this hideous prosperity? If something is not speedily done, we shall actually be exporting shiploads of carpets, and how could Messrs. Lawrence and Delano survive that? Ah, but the Bradford manufacturers are smiling as they think how they will soon be swamping us with their goods. But the *Wool and Cotton Reporter* declares that there is nothing in this, and that American manufacturers have not been asleep all this time, but have been preparing to make goods as cheap and desirable as can be had anywhere. All they have lacked before is the wool to do it with, and now that they have got that they are ready to outsmile any Yorkshireman of them all.

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The strike in the cotton mills at New Bedford and Fall River has been very gingerly handled by the high-protection press. Here, apparently, was a splendid chance to show how the new tariff was already operating, and to ask the workingmen how they like it. But, to the surprise, doubtless, of their long-suffering readers, there has been an almost dead silence about this "object-lesson." This is doubtless because they clearly remember what the cotton schedule of the new tariff is, and how it came to be adopted. Reference to the *Congressional Record* of June 12 will show what it is that is now muzzling them. On June 11 Senator Jones brought in a completely recast cotton schedule. One amendment after another was offered and was put through without debate or opposition, until at last Senator Dolph, who was not in the secret, jumped up in amazement to know what it all meant. This was the biggest surprise of the session, he affirmed. "Here is one of the most important schedules in the bill, which covers ten pages of closely printed matter, and it has been substantially disposed of in thirty minutes." Where was the vigilant and aggressive Aldrich? Why was Senator Hoar so suddenly, if refreshingly, silent?

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Thus called upon, Senator Aldrich had to take the floor, and proceeded to chain up all the protectionist dogs in this fashion: "This schedule," he said, "which *was prepared by a number of manufacturers of Fall River* so far as the price of cloth is concerned, is perhaps the *most scientific schedule* that has ever been prepared upon the subject." He went on to say that "the committee deserves the thanks of the cotton-manufacturers of the country." Of course he had to add that he did not think the duties as high as they should be, but he made no opposition to the schedule, to which he had given such a handsome certificate of character. Senator Hoar explained that "we all agreed, I and the Senator from Rhode Island, that the schedule, as proposed, should pass without opposition." Of course, as to the "general wickedness of the bill," the Massachusetts Senator remained of the same opinion, but the Jones amendment to the cotton schedule he agreed with the manufacturers in finding "perfectly satisfactory."

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It did not need a despatch from Madrid to inform us that the duty on sugar in the new tariff would make an end of the Cuban reciprocity agreement. Free sugar was the *quid* which we gave for the Cuban *quo*, and the withdrawal of the former necessitates that of the latter. The language of the bill is that "nothing herein contained shall be held to abrogate or in any way affect such reciprocal commercial arrangements as have been heretofore made and now exist between the United States and foreign countries, except where such arrangements are inconsistent with the provisions of this act." This is very much like the protestations of the Quaker that he was a man of peace, but that if there was a burglar in the corner where he was going to shoot, somebody might get hurt. Neither the Cubans nor the Brazilians would ever have made their agreements but for the promise of free sugar; and however suavely we may now say that we should like the thing to go on, so far as their concessions to us are concerned, just as before, it is not likely that they will be amiable or green enough to see it in that light. The main consideration in all the reciprocity treaties is effectively destroyed by "the provisions of this act," so that its careful denial of intent to abrogate them is only a piece of humor. On the other hand, the Hawaiian treaty, which was a real and not a sham treaty, is ex-

pressly continued in force until abrogated in the regular way.

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The California Republicans this year adopted one of the longest platforms on record, and the telegraphed abstract mentioned only a few of its planks. One resolution, not given in the despatches, begins by "heartily endorsing the proposition that the farmer of the nation, by whose labors the agricultural products of the country are brought to market, should receive a just measure of protection for himself, his labor and his products." It points out that the price of these products is regulated by the amount paid for them in the world's market centres, less the cost of transportation from the place of production, and that, "owing to the great development of staple agricultural products in many of the cheapest labor countries of the world, the prices realized by our farmers have of late been unremunerative." Then comes the practical proposition

"It is our duty to endeavor to change this state of affairs. Hence we approve of the plan that the Government of the United States should reduce the cost of transporting these staple agricultural products from American seaports to foreign seaports, to the end that the prices of these products should be advanced; and for that purpose, inasmuch as an export can be protected in no other manner, we pronounce ourselves in favor of the use of a limited portion of the receipts of the United States customs for such purposes, and pledge our most earnest efforts to have this measure engrafted upon the laws of the land, to the end that the American protective system shall benefit all classes of the people, aid the farmer against the oppressive competition of the cheap-labor countries of the world, and by so doing assist in maintaining that steady demand for labor in manufacturing centres so essential to the labor of our country."

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Here we have the latest development of protection. The Government must overcome the natural laws of trade in the interest of one class—those farmers who raise certain crops; just as it has overcome the same laws in the interest of another class—those manufacturers who make certain kinds of goods. In order that the men who raise wheat, cotton, and corn may get more money for their crops, all of the people are to be taxed for their benefit, and the prices of these staples are to be marked up for all in this country who consume them. The rest of us are to be made by law to pay more than we should otherwise do to the raisers of wheat, cotton, and corn, and all hands will then be prosperous.

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The first Republican "keynote" for the future was struck by ex-Speaker Reed at Old Orchard, Maine, on Saturday. Democratic incompetency and depravity are set forth with Mr. Reed's familiar verbosity; but when the portions of his speech devoted to this subject are eliminated, very little remains. About twenty lines contain all that he has to say of the future tariff policy of his party, and these amount simply to a declaration that there is nothing for the good and wise Republicans to do except to stand on guard and prevent the depraved and incompetent Democrats from doing any more mischief. He admits, as the *Tribune* does, that there can be no more tariff legislation till President Cleveland's term expires; but he is not prepared to say that more high tariff will be in order then. He merely says that time is needed in which to permit the country to examine the workings of the new law, "to see precisely what its defects are, and then accomplish whatever remedy is needful to bring the country back to the state of prosperity which it was in when this unfortunate black cloud of Democratic control passed over it." He wishes it to be distinctly understood that the bill is not a finality, and he is braced, like all other good Republicans, to resist the coming of a wave of permanent prosperity.

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The Constitutional Convention is gradually fastening one bad provision after another upon the fundamental law which the members are trying to make. Each one of these insures a certain number of negative votes against the whole instrument, and it is apparently only a question of time when their work will be completely waterlogged. The section about prison labor has been cunningly devised so as to prevent the State from selling (except to itself) any articles made in the prisons, while seeming only to prevent contract labor. By injecting the word "product" among the prohibited things, the prison section not only prevents the hiring out of the convicts, but prohibits also the selling of anything they make except to State institutions. They may make clothing for the inmates of the various public asylums, but if they make anything not needed by the State itself it must remain in the prisons till it decays. It is needless to say that this is not a fit subject for a State constitution to attempt to regulate. The General Assembly is always competent to deal with the subject, and ought always to be privileged to do so, more especially since it is compelled to make appropriations for the support of the prisons. The questions of prison labor and prison support ought always to go together. This is just what the labor demagogues want to avoid. They want to have the whole question disposed of for an indefinite period by a body which is under no necessity of providing for the expense of the prisons, and thus take a snap judgment on the people. Mr. Choate vainly endeavored to prevent this outrage—this attempt of a comparatively small number of persons to increase the taxes of all the people, and chiefly of the farmers and other landowners. We venture the prediction that this clause, if finally adopted, will lose more votes for the whole instrument than it will gain.

There could scarcely be a stronger example of the misuse of a constitution than is found in the amendment proposed by the judiciary committee at Albany on the 21st in regard to the corrupt use of money in elections. The amendment simply amounts to a direction to the Legislature to pass general laws forbidding the improper use of money in elections, and also prohibiting corporations from making any contributions to election expenses. We have on the statute books now a great mass of prohibitory legislation of this sort, nearly all of which is impotent because no provision is made for its enforcement. The Legislature has ample authority to make such laws, and needs no additional direction from the Constitution in that respect. What is needed is not more specific and stringent prohibitory laws, but provisions which will furnish the agency for the detection of violations of the laws and the machinery for enforcing the laws. The Legislature has refused repeatedly to give us anything of the kind. It has refused to supplement the prohibitory laws with provisions requiring the sworn publication, after election, by campaign committees and agents, of every dollar received or expended. That is the only way in which the contributions of corporations and individuals could be forced into the light and the use made of them set forth for public contemplation. It is futile to prohibit contributions by corporations, unless we at the same time make it impossible for such contributions to be made without detection. Prohibitory clauses in the Constitution would be of no more use than prohibitory laws on the statute-book; and they would be, furthermore, completely out of place there. The corrupt use of money in elections can be prevented when public sentiment becomes strong enough, first, to compel the passage of laws making such use impossible without exposure, and, second, to compel the rigid enforcement of those laws.

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The address of Judge Cooley, as president of the American Bar Association, is full of interest to the laity as well as to the legal profession. He reviews the principal social events of the year, the movement of armies of vagrants upon Washington and the disturbances at Chicago, in such a way as to bring out the significance of the episodes with admirable clearness. Whoever desires to understand what was involved in these movements cannot do better than to read this address, which has been printed in full in the September issue of the *Forum*. As to the Chicago strike, Judge Cooley dismisses Gov. Altgeld's theory of constitutional law briefly. According to that theory, he says, it becomes the duty of the Governors of the States, and not the

President, to see that the federal laws are executed, whereas the Constitution specifically charges the President with this duty. If Gov. Altgeld were right, "the mails might be stopped at Chicago, interstate commerce broken up, and the process of the United States courts refused service, unless the Governor, when disorder was dominant, saw fit to suppress it, or call upon the President to do so." Another point, which Judge Cooley thinks has received no attention, concerns the rights of those to be affected by the strike. The parties were (1) the railroad companies, who, if they had been allowed to be heard, might have demonstrated to the strikers that their action was unreasonable; (2) the Government of the United States, whose postal service was to be interrupted; (3) the people, whose right of transportation was to be suspended. The action of the strikers involved the substitution of arbitrary and despotic power for representative government in ignoring the claims of all these parties.

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An idea has got abroad that the Pullman Car Company as a manufacturing concern is "affected with a public interest," so that if the Pullman Car Company makes a dividend of 8 per cent. per annum from the earnings of its sleeping-cars, it ought to pay higher wages to the workmen in its car-building shops than other workmen receive in other car-building shops. Still another popular fallacy is that if the Pullman Company owns and lets houses to its workmen, the rents ought to be reduced whenever the wages are reduced. It is an easy inference from the latter proposition (and Gov Altgeld was prompt to draw it) that if a strike occurs for any reason, the collection of rent ought to cease until the occupants of the houses resume work. All these queer notions took their start in the idea promulgated by Debs that it was incumbent on the Pullman Company to submit to arbitration the question whether it should raise wages to the scale of 1893 or not.

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In the course of the examination of witnesses at Chicago on Monday, Mr. Pullman took occasion to deny flatly all of these propositions. Instead of palliating and apologizing and extenuating, he "took the bull by the horns." If he had not done so, the other side would either have pushed him over the precipice completely, or would have turned the whole controversy into a question of details—as, for instance, whether the rents of the houses were fair or not, whether the company could have paid higher wages than it did pay, or whether it would have been safe to draw from its reserve fund in order to build cars at less than cost. Argument upon these points would have been endless, and would have furnished a year's supply of ammunition to Altgeld. Mr. Pullman took safe ground, and the only safe ground, when he smote all these anarchistic conceptions in the face as fast as they came up. Of course he will be subjected to a great deal of ignorant as well as malicious criticism, because a great many well meaning people can see only one thing at a time. They can see a great rich company on the one hand paying 8 per cent. dividends, and on the other a large number of men with families out of work, and suffering perhaps for the necessaries of life. What they do not see is the fact that the Pullman Company must, in the long run, build cars at a profit (or at least without loss), or eventually go down with its employees in one common ruin. The question how much loss it can safely incur in any given period must necessarily be left to the judgment of those who are charged with the responsibility for its affairs, and not to a mayor and board of aldermen or any popular assemblage.

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The investigation of Prof. Ely's economic teachings by the regents of the University of Wisconsin is concluded. His accuser, Supt. Wells, practically refused to appear before the committee to support his charges, on the ground that the scope of the inquiry was unfairly limited. He submitted two statements, however, in one of which he admitted that he was not able to prove his charges of personal misconduct. Prof. Ely, on the other hand, explicitly denied that, as charged, he had ever entertained a walking delegate at his house, or had ever taken printing away from a firm because it was non-union, or had given countenance to the strike in Madison. Inasmuch as Supt. Wells's letter containing these grave charges was first published in our columns, we hasten to give Prof. Ely the benefit of his denial of them. These personal matters were wholly between him and Mr. Wells, and if he has been unjustly attacked, as now appears, no one will be better pleased than ourselves to see him vindicated. The nature and tendency of his economic teachings, upon which alone we have pronounced an opinion, are a proper subject for public discussion, upon which different men will hold different views. But we limit ourselves, for the present, to giving as much publicity to Prof. Ely's denials as we did to the charges against him. We may add that our columns would at any time have been open to him or any friend of his to make such denials.

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The wickedness of the gold-bugs in pursuing Senator Stewart of Nevada has been often noticed in the press, but who could have imagined that they would send a complaining husband from North Carolina to bring a blackmailing lawsuit against him? This seems to show the depth of their degradation as well as the height of their malice. Such a suit has been brought, it seems, and the Senator, in trying to account for it, says to a *Herald* reporter:

> "There are some things behind this action other than the desire on the part of this man to get money from me. The gold-bugs would like very well to injure my character, and their representatives have conspired to help this man. I have scored some successes against the representatives of the gold interest, and they would like to injure me in any way that they can."

The Senator says that he has expended a great deal of money in hunting up the woman's character in Richmond and other places south of Washington. Why should he go there? That is the place to look for silver-bugs, not gold-bugs. Why did not the Senator spend part of his money investigating Wall Street if he really supposed that the gold-bugs were in this blackmailing conspiracy?

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The probability that Russia will take an active part in the quarrel between China and Japan over Corea becomes increasingly strong as one studies her recent military movements and diplomacy in relation to the peninsula. Passing by the massing of her troops, who are also railway and fortification-builders, at Possiette and Vladivostok, we note her remarkable treaty with Corea, signed June 25, 1884. So far as we know, the text of this instrument has not been made public in any European language, but is found in a Japanese translation published last year in Tokio. The Russian is even more detailed than the English treaty, which (in the European view) was considered to be the best of all, and most favorable to the larger Power. Besides providing extra-territoriality for all Russians in Corea, it makes it possible for Russian war-ships to use freely the unopened as well as the open ports of the little kingdom. Although the benefits promised are mutual, yet, since Corea has no navy, and there is no likelihood of her ever availing herself of various stipulations, the text reads wonderfully like the conversations of a bear and a lamb. Although Herr Möllendorf was decorated by the Czar for his active part in the negotiation of this treaty, the Corean Government, whose hand was moved by Li Hung Chang of China, soon gave him *congé*. It is highly suggestive to read this treaty in the light of Russia's diplomacy and interpretation of treaties under Ignatieff in 1861. Then an area of territory as large as France was sliced from China and made a part of Russia, whose borders at once adjoined Corea, with a fordable river, only a few score yards wide, between. Between Gensan, the northern Corean port, and Possiette is less than a day's steaming. Between Russian town and Corean frontier is but twenty-five miles.

### THE NEW YORK JUDICIARY.

THERE are several respects in which the system of administering justice in this State might be improved, but apparently so little agreement exists as to either means or ends that the prospects of reform cannot be thought very bright. We presume that every one, whether lawyer or layman, would concur in holding that the Court of Appeals ought somehow to be enabled to decide cases as fast as they come to it, and not to fall into arrear with its business as it does at present. Beyond this there seems to be no consensus of opinion. Many lawyers say that the result should be attained by limiting the number of cases; but some hold that this should be accomplished by forbidding appeals where the pecuniary amount involved is small, while others exclaim against this proposal, upon the ground that a question of law is of the same importance in a matter of $5,000 as in one of $50,000.

It may be urged against this view that if two trials are allowed, as at present, in the case of actions involving less than $500, the chances of injustice are so small as to make the maxim, *De minimis non curat lex*, applicable. If there is an important and novel question of law involved, it will presumptively receive careful consideration, and when it eventually comes before the Court of Appeals in some case of magnitude, that court will seldom reverse decisions so rendered. But, whatever may be the merits of this argument, it is not regarded as conclusive by those who are opposed to limiting appeals by any money standard, and for this reason, we presume, the committee of the Constitutional Convention has not proposed to alter the present restriction. Nevertheless, when we come down to the gist of the matter, it is evident that in one way or another some of the cases that now go to the Court of Appeals must be kept from going there if that court is to be relieved.

It is true that relief might be obtained, in theory, by adding to the numbers of the appellate judges, and an increase to nine members was actually proposed by the committee. A mistake was made in introducing the "bipartisan" plan of election, so that nothing could defeat the nominees of the two parties; but this was at once observed, and no one appears to defend it. It is evident, however, that the legal profession does not favor an increase in the number of these judges, and it is stated that the present members of the Court of Appeals do not favor it. It is doubtful if a court of nine judges would be as efficient as one of a smaller number, and it is quite probable that its decisions would be less consistent. The court as at present constituted has certainly been a successful institution. Mr. Choate is a competent critic, and at a period when our governmental machinery receives so much unfavorable comment it is a pleasure to hear him declare that the New York Court of Appeals compares favorably with any similar court, State or national. He does not think that the court would do more work with nine than with seven judges, and so many of the profession agree with him that it is quite probable that the whole judiciary article would have been defeated by the people if the Convention had not rejected the provision for the increased number.

Dismissing this suggested remedy as inefficacious, there is nothing left but to reduce the number of appeals, and this the committee proposes to do by reconstituting the General Terms in such a way that their decisions shall be final in some cases where they are not so at present. In theory the Court of Appeals does not consider questions of fact. In practice the judges have always done so whenever they found it convenient, and have declined to do so when they did not. In certain cases they are obliged to review the facts, and any one reading the reports of their decisions will be struck with the full statements of fact that frequently occur in them. It is proposed now to make the practice correspond with the theory, by creating stronger intermediate courts to settle questions of fact finally before the Court of Appeals can be resorted to. The proposed amendment contains a clause specifically precluding review of a unanimous decision of the new intermediate court or so-called "Appellate Division of the Supreme Court," which holds that there is evidence to sustain a finding of fact or a verdict not directed by the court. This does not affect cases of non-suit, or verdicts directed, or reversals by the Appellate Division, or cases where there is a dissent in that court. But it does, as the report of the committee says, "require that when a trial court or jury has decided that a fact is proved, and five judges in the Appellate Division have unanimously held that it is proved, controversy about that fact shall end; and that any question of law mixed with that fact shall be separately raised and presented in order to be reviewed by the Court of Appeals."

There is much to be said in favor of the constitution of these intermediate courts in place of the useless General Terms, and it seems reasonable to expect that they will furnish the relief desired. We should have been glad to see some endeavor made to lower the excessive salaries, which are a premium upon corruption in offices where it is especially deplorable, and to have had the tenure of office extended; but it is idle to attempt too much reform at one time. What is to be dreaded is that the legal profession may not give its hearty support to the amendments proposed. Without such support the people will not be induced to vote for them.

### HOW THE REFERENDUM WOULD WORK.

A STRONG appeal has been made by a certain school of political writers in this country for the adoption of the referendum principle, and the submission of proposed laws to the people for their judgment. The advocates of the scheme have been active enough in Massachusetts to secure its endorsement in the platforms of both of the great parties, and the last Legislature came very near taking the necessary steps for submitting an amendment to the Constitution, so as to embody it in the fundamental law.

It is a noteworthy fact that, in all the arguments advanced in favor of the system, it seems to be taken for granted that, if any question were submitted to popular vote, every voter would express his opinion upon it. It has been urged that the State would be benefited by having important laws ratified by the people before they should become operative, and a great deal is said as to the advantages of finding out just how the people feel about them. Since the Massachusetts Legislature adjourned, however, the people of that State have been given an object-lesson in the working of the referendum. For years the city of Boston has been discussing the matter of rapid transit. It had become the burning local question. The newspapers have discussed it at great length. It has been repeatedly before the City Council and the Legislature. All sorts of schemes have been proposed from time to time. Finally, what is known as the Meigs plan was endorsed by the Legislature, upon the condition that it should be approved by the people. A special election was called for the sole purpose of deciding the question. There was an animated canvass, and, according to the theory of the referendum, there ought to have been a great outpouring of the people to improve the opportunity thus afforded to decide a most important issue. In point of fact, the total vote was much less than half the poll in the last election for Governor—not quite 30,000, against over 70,000 last November.

The 29,704 men who took the trouble to go to the polls were divided pretty evenly in opinion, 15,542 voting yes and 14,162 no. An important question of public policy was thus decided by the votes of less than a quarter of the men who turn out in an ordinary State election like last year's. Worse still, there is great reason to doubt whether a large proportion of those who voted either way had a clear understanding of the matter. The Boston *Herald* heard of two cases where the voters supposed that

they were recording their views on the license question, and voted yes because they favored the sale of liquor! When one paper accidentally learns of two such cases, there is every reason to suppose that hundreds of votes were cast quite as ignorantly.

There was nothing exceptional about this Boston experience. Two amendments to the Constitution were submitted to the people at the recent State election in Alabama. One proposed to allow the city of Birmingham to increase her tax-rate, which is necessary for her prosperity. The other proposed to allow any city or school district to vote a tax of one-fourth of one per cent. for educational purposes, to supplement the fund raised by State taxation. There was no serious opposition to either amendment, but both failed. They died of sheer neglect. The Constitution requires that a majority of the voters who go to the polls shall vote in the affirmative to carry an amendment, and most men were so much interested in the contest between Oates and Kolb that they did not vote either way on either of the amendments; the total yeas and nays not reaching half the total vote for Governor. The election thus failed to cast any light upon the question whether the proposed changes meet with the approbation of the people.

Almost every vote on a constitutional amendment in this State has been a proof of popular indifference. In 1869, on an amendment providing for equal assessment and taxation, 462,072 votes were cast (for and against), while for the head of the State ticket (Secretary of State) a total of 641,707 votes was cast. In 1876 the people voted on two of the most important constitutional amendments ever submitted to them—those placing the canals and State prisons under single heads instead of the expensive commissions. The total vote of the State for President that year was 1,015,502. The total vote on the public-works amendment was 614,985, and on the prisons amendment 611,184.

The same thing has happened over and over again in other States. It is the rule in many commonwealths that an amendment must receive the affirmative votes of a majority of the voters to carry it; and it is a common thing to have propositions fail to which there is no serious opposition, because those who really favor the suggested change do not care enough about it to take the trouble to express their opinion.

The advocates of the referendum have been arguing the matter as though it were only a question of theory. They say: "Consult the people freely. They will be glad to record their opinion, and we shall find out just what they think." This would be well enough if the matter had never been tried. But it has been tried, repeatedly and thoroughly, in different parts of the country. Experience has shown that it is the hardest thing in the world to get voters to express themselves on any issue except that of candidates for office. If other propositions are submitted at the regular election, most men who go to the polls will pay no attention to them. If they are submitted at a special election, the majority will not go to the polls; and a good many of those who do go will not know what they are voting for. In either case the referendum breaks down utterly.

The members of the Constitutional Convention did well on Friday to reject the proposed amendment permitting the Legislature to send bills to a public referendum.

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*THE TRIALS OF THE STATISTICIAN.*

It was once said that the only good book which the Spaniards had was the one which exposed the absurdity of all the rest. We will not compare Mr. Carroll Wright's article upon "The Limitations and Difficulties of Statistics" in the current *Yale Review* with the Adventures of Don Quixote; but we are inclined to think that it exceeds in merit a great deal of the statistical work for which Mr. Wright has been nominally responsible. He will not regard this as an unjust aspersion, for, as he points out, the real responsibility for deceptive and misleading figures, or those at least that emanate from Government offices, belongs to the legislative bodies. These bodies are increasingly fond of ordering returns that can be furnished only after the most prolonged and elaborate investigation, and that frequently cannot be obtained at all. But what the ordinary Congressman desires is some sweeping generalization which he can use in the speech that he is preparing for delivery in a day or two, and which will answer his purpose, in many cases, equally well whether it is true or false. There is a story which, if not true, is at least well invented, of a clerk who responded to a demand of this character by saying: "Let me know what you want to prove, and I will furnish the necessary figures." Every one familiar with what passes with the public for statistics knows how easily this can be done.

As Mr. Wright observes, the science or art of statistics is nothing but classification. A certain number of facts are taken which resemble one another in certain respects, they are thrown into classes according to their common features, and the results are expressed numerically. So long as the facts are simple and the points of resemblance few, the danger of error is small. To ascertain the number of human beings existing in a certain place on a certain day is perhaps the easiest statistical task undertaken upon a large scale by governments, yet a moment's consideration is enough to show that the results can be only approximately true. The census-takers may, and it is known that they often do, falsify the returns. When they are paid, as they often have been, according to the number of heads which they return, it is obvious that they are tempted to swell the figures of population. There are always people who cannot be seen—who are asleep, or sick, or away—and the enumerator has to accept other evidence than that of his own senses as to these. There are great numbers who are to be found in more than one place upon the same day, and some of them are likely to be counted twice. There are others who for the same reason may not be counted at all. The gross discrepancies between the censuses taken in the city of New York by the United States and by the municipal police are too recent to be altogether forgotten, and they illustrate the influence which political considerations may have upon what might be supposed to be the simplest of arithmetical problems.

But when the census-taker is required to do more than simply count the population, his task becomes infinitely more difficult. Investigations as to age are so notoriously unsatisfactory as to give immortality to jokes that must have been stale long before the Christian era. It is said that Wat Tyler's rebellion was occasioned by too pressing inquiries as to the age of his daughter, and Mr. Wright remarks that "an examination of the age statistics under any census or in any country will show a concentration upon the fives. It is much easier for a man to say he is twenty-five, or thirty, or thirty-five, when the enumerator asks the question, than to give his exact age." Nevertheless, Congress has from census to census increased the number of questions to be answered by the people until it is now twenty-nine, covering age, sex, nationality, employment, physical conditions, educational qualifications, naturalization, disease, etc., etc. Many of these questions are answered in the absence of the heads of families by children and servants, frequently with the most grotesque results. In some regions the death-rate has been ascertained by this scientific process to be 2 in 1,000. The superintendent of the census, of course, knows that such figures are false, but he has to use them, and we have the spectacle alluded to by Mr. Wright of a superintendent warning the public to place no confidence in his returns, while prominent physicians were presenting the conclusions to be deduced from them to scientific bodies.

We frequently see startling figures as to the increasing number of the insane presented in the newspapers, giving rise to melancholy predictions. There is probably not the slightest reason for disquiet upon the subject. The definition of insanity, as every one knows, is a

fluctuating one, and it is not only true that many persons are now classed as insane who would not formerly have been so classed, but also more cases are returned than of old. What is true of the statistics of insanity is far more true of those of crime. We do not hesitate to assert that it is utterly impossible to say whether crime in this country is increasing or not. This is not quite true in England, for a number of reasons, and especially because the country is not, like our own, cut up into a number of jurisdictions; but even there no one need attempt to generalize without a practical acquaintance with the details of criminal legislation, of criminal court practice, of police administration, and of prison discipline.

Mr. Wright goes through the whole list of subjects commonly dealt with by the bureaus of statistics—agriculture, manufactures, wages, farm-mortgages, public debts, assessed valuations, etc.—and shows how little value is to be attached to the returns on all these subjects. The worthlessness of the census taken in 1890 was long since exposed in these columns, and the public have not quite forgotten the colossal blunder in the Bureau of Statistics of the Treasury which swelled our imports some $70,000,000 in a single year. But Mr. Wright cheerfully contends that bad figures are better than none, and that we may get nearer the truth if we keep on. Considering the scandalous waste of money in the Census Bureau, to say nothing of the cost of Mr. Wright's own department, and the countless others of like character which the politicians have foisted upon our State governments, we are not so sanguine. Nothing is better worth paying for than accurate information, statistical or other; but the value of false and misleading figures must be expressed by the negative sign.

## *THE CONSERVATIVE REACTION IN EUROPE.*

THE flat failure of the demonstration in London on Sunday against the House of Lords is only one of many signs that that decrepit body is not exactly on its deathbed yet. Of course, the occasion chosen by the National League for the Abolition of the House of Lords was not a happy one. Comparatively few people outside of Ireland took any great interest in the Evicted Tenants bill which the Lords had so incontinently rejected. The fight could much better be made on some measure of national importance, to which a great party was passionately committed, as it cannot be said any longer that the Liberal party, as a whole, is committed to any measure relating exclusively to Ireland. The rejection of the Home-Rule bill furnished a better challenge to a life-and-death struggle. On that issue there was a general disposition among Liberals to make the fight, but Mr. Gladstone discouraged it, and the golden moment passed.

Still, aside from all such questions of strategy and opportunity, there is no denying that the lords are much easier in their minds than they were a year ago. They do not imagine that they are any more respected or better liked, but they have become convinced that the upper chamber will last their time at any rate. They are willing to be considered hateful if only it is admitted that they are a hateful necessity. In this situation their spirits are distinctly rising. Where they used to be melancholy or alarmed or angry, they are now jocose—as jocose as lords ever are. Lord Salisbury, the other day, grew quite jocular when alluding to the threats of abolition, and said that he would fix the date for abolishing the House of Lords at just six months before the Commons were abolished also. Among the radical Liberals, too, there is perceptibly a change of expectation, if not of hope, in this matter of the progress of pure democracy in Great Britain. It was not long ago that they were saying, when the house of hereditary legislators did something more than usually absurd, "What a jolly smash we will make of all that pretty soon." Now they are less sanguine, and have moved the date of the jolly smash far ahead.

Over the Channel, in the land of untrammelled democracy, the swing back towards conservatism is fully as marked. The way the sweeping anti-anarchist laws were put through Parliament in hot haste and by tremendous majorities was an indication of the change which had come over the dream of French democracy. And there is evidence a plenty that this was not simply a temporary panic or reaction of sympathy caused by Carnot's assassination. A contributor to the *Figaro* has been travelling extensively in rural France, and he reports a great change of view among the stiffest republicans of the provinces. Everywhere they asked him about the new President, and their main anxiety was to learn if he was a man of vigor and resolution, with the "necessary grip." One characteristic conversation reported was as follows:

"I am a republican, you understand, and have been ever since the time of Thiers. I cried with Gambetta, 'Le cléricalisme, voilà l'ennemi.' I believed with Carnot that the danger was from the conservatives. I thought the secularizing laws were necessary, and approved the military laws and the school laws and the organization of trade unions, and I endorsed strikes. But what's the use? The evidence is clear that we've gone too far, and everybody is convinced of that even if he does not dare to say so. We are simply perishing with these inflammatory measures, destructive of all authority as they are. What we want of Casimir-Perier is to reverse the engine."

The cause of this conservative reaction is clear to the dullest mind. People are suddenly becoming reluctant to part with any institution, however offensive or anachronistic, which stands for governmental authority and social stability, because they see all authority and stability seriously menaced. Many who were bold innovators a couple of years ago, ready to cry "Down with the Lords!" at the top of their lungs, have begun to look about at their fellow-innovators, and are getting alarmed at the company they are in. Here walks a man with a bomb under his coat, and there is a reformer who wants to abolish private property and rent and "industrial slavery," and who will abolish also law and custom and the House of Commons or anything else that stands in his way. These are the men, with crimes of violence as a part of their political creed, and the destruction of the whole framework of society as their aim, who have been like a draught of *elixir vitæ* to the House of Lords, and are at this moment playing into the hands of the conservatives in every country of Europe.

What they intended, they said, was to hasten the evolution of democracy. The existing process was too slow to suit them. Things were moving their way, they admitted, but it would take a century or two, at the present rate, to bring about what they aim at. So why not hurry up the evolution a little by the aid of incendiary speeches and confiscating laws and an occasional explosion of dynamite? But, alas! democratic evolution is a slow coach that will not be hurried. When you try to frighten it into a faster pace by throwing bombs under the wheels, the postilions have a fashion of turning soldiers, and the passengers begin shooting out of the windows in the most ugly and disheartening way. Then they get out and hold a council of war, and ask soberly if the coach has not been going too fast instead of too slow. Meanwhile, the men in too great a hurry are riddled with bullets or beheaded, or left to watch the painfully slow evolution of society out of a prison window.

## HADLEIGH FARM COLONY.

LONDON, July 30, 1894.

IN a recent number of the *Nation* (July 5, "The Real Problem of the Unemployed") appear these words: "The real problem, therefore, is not to provide work, but to make men competent and willing to work." This is exactly what the Salvation Army professes to do in the Hadleigh Farm Colony, an outcome of the 'Darkest England' scheme propounded in 1890. Gen. Booth obtained more than £100,000 from the English people, and of this sum £85,000 has been spent on the purchase of a farm in Essex (on the north bank of the Thames, and about six miles from the open sea) and on its proper equipment for the training of some 300 men to be drawn and constantly renewed from the London slums.

Shortly after reading in the *Nation* the article already mentioned, I took the train at

Liverpool Street Station for Rayleigh, the nearest Great Eastern station to the famous colony, established three and a half years ago, for the express purpose of examining and reporting upon how far the colony fulfils its aim of training men to work. The Governor, Col. Stitt, sent a vehicle to meet me, and for some miles I was driven over tame but pretty English scenery—beautiful trees, peaceful cottages, grazing cattle, fields of waving corn, green pastures and quiet waters. Presently we descended at the Governor's office, a modest, not to say mean-looking, wooden shanty, reminding one of the dictum of a lady visiting the colony, who observed that they had built a palace for the cows and a pigsty for the Governor. Col. Stitt seems a suitable man for the post: a good eye for land, a kindly manner calculated to produce respect but not fear from the men, infinite patience and faith in human nature; not a man to stand much humbug, nor yet one to expect to make silken purses out of sows' ears. He has a mixture of Scotch, Irish, and French blood in his veins, visible in his judgment, foresight, kindly humor, and suavity. Being busy, he made me over for an hour or two to the care of Staff-Captain Smith, his aide-de-camp and secretary, and in his company I visited several buildings before the midday meal.

The farm consists of some 2,800 acres, of which 1,000 acres at certain periods of the tide are under water, much of which is nevertheless useful for grazing purposes. A long creek or bayou of the Thames lies to the south of this estate; fishing rights in it are let off for the sum of £140 per annum. Three small farms are also let off. The colony managers have the mixed satisfaction of knowing that their settlement has greatly raised the value of land in the neighborhood, as they find when they want to buy portions dividing their estate. A small railway, connecting London, Tilbury, and South End, divides the low marsh land from the higher land sloping to the north. The colony has four miles of frontage to good country roads, and a water frontage of three miles to the Thames. Excellent authorities were consulted as to the purchase of this estate. Mr. Bird, inspector to the Board of Agriculture, gave it as his opinion that "no more desirable, suitable, or appropriate property for the purpose of the scheme could be obtained," and this opinion was confirmed by other competent persons.

What strikes the eye of the visitor to the colony is the scattered appearance of the buildings. They are dotted about here and there, numerous, but far from imposing. True, there is a street, but one side thereof is mainly composed of corrugated-iron cottages, which, though tidy and even trim, are of small architectural pretension. To the right is one of the largest buildings, the Salvation Army Barracks, built at a cost of £630, and rented by the spiritual wing from the social wing at £1 per week. The dormitories are eight in number, of various sizes, and with a little arrangement are capable of holding 350 men. I carefully inspected them. The men are provided each with an iron bedstead, seaweed mattress covered with American cloth, a box for private belongings. My visit was in July, but I was shown the arrangement which exists for heating the dormitories in winter. A lavatory with between thirty and forty basins permits that number to wash at one time; there are four baths at one end of the laundry for the sake of a good supply of hot water. The beds were being sponged with paraffin as I entered, Capt. Smith informing me that the struggle for cleanliness has to be incessant. Most of the men pretty readily acquire decent habits, but the system of recruiting from the London slums lays them open to fresh danger from vermin with each arrival. Many of the men, too, have been on the tramp for weeks or months. They arrive at the colony dirty, footsore, eaten by vermin; boots that will hardly hold to the feet, no shirts to their backs. A crematorium has been built in which the necessary baking process is carried on.

The dormitories are not all exactly alike. As a man rises, as his power to work improves, he gradually acquires little comforts, a better bed, such privacy as a cubicle affords, an improvement in his dietary. The Governor of the colony binds himself to supply only lodging, board, and work. Even the clothes which are supplied to men whose case is desperate, are paid for. This is done by a bonus system, paid weekly on Friday. The colonists receive sums varying from sixpence to four or five shillings, in a few cases as much as ten shillings. Even partially reclaimed workers are not allowed to handle all their bonus; a credit account with the Governor is opened for each man, who must compulsorily save two-thirds of his bonus. In the case of drunkards, great care is exercised with regard to touching even a third of their sum, as outside the colony is the village public-house, a standing temptation to such men. Practically, a night's lodging is not refused to any destitute man in need of it, who appears to claim the help of the Army. On the occasion of my visit, there were 260 men under the care of the Governor. For the most part, they are cases selected from the "Elevators," or Salvation Army workshops in the slums, sent to the Essex farm, on the recommendation of a gentleman of independent means who has some knowledge of the character and suitability of the men whom he recommends.

After visiting the dormitories, we passed to the library, well-stocked with illustrated periodicals, to the laundry, kitchen, refectory, smoke room, boot-making department, to a capital dairy fitted up with the latest improvements, to the piggeries, with fat, snorting pigs rooting among the fodder, to the palatial cowshed with forty-eight sleek milch kine, excellent specimens of Salvation cattle, to the tomato houses, with heavy clusters of ripening fruit. A small drawback seemed to be the bad roads and the plague of flies which almost infested the place. The managers urgently need £2,000 to make roads; walking on clay in wet weather is a heavy job, and housewives complain that the clay will not remain outside. Flies seem to abound in the neighborhood of farming operations; cattle and manure attract them in thousands. Their size, audacity, as evinced in an insolent buzz, struck me as phenomenal; their determination to inspect everything far surpassed my own.

The number of the colonists has been mentioned as 260; it must be understood that besides there are about 100 permanent officials, superintendents, heads of departments, foremen of different industries, who do not change, and who form the framework of the unskilled labor; they are the element which lends cohesion to the scheme. About 40 acres have been planted with fruit-trees and plants, and 60 acres have been converted into a market garden. Both these enterprises pay well; the colony is within 6 miles of Southend-on-the-Sea, a health resort filled with visitors just at the time the colony has large quantities of fruit and vegetables to dispose of. As already stated, a small railway runs through the farm colony; considerable dissatisfaction exists because the company shows no inclination to treat the colony reasonably in the matter of a small station or even a good siding. In the matter of fruit it is safe to say that Salvation strawberries, rasps, currants, yield to none in quality, and in a few years the fruit-trees will, it is expected, give an excellent return for expense incurred. Fruit-picking within reach of London is generally given over to the denizens of the slums, who are conveyed to the scenes of action in train-loads, and usually convert the rural scene into more or less of a slum during their labors. At the colony great care is exercised in the choice of pickers; the moral experiment, which forms a large half of the scheme, will not allow of indiscriminate association. For the same reason the colony is as complete in itself as the Governor can make it, in order to prevent the necessity for much communication with the village. Even a tobacco license has been obtained, for though thorough-going Salvationists do not approve of tobacco, they find that some concession to human weakness is the highest wisdom. Permission to go beyond the colony has to be asked, but as the tract is several miles in length, this is not so great a hardship as one might fancy. Games, too, are provided for the men; football, cricket, quoits, racing, jumping, tug-of-war, are all encouraged.

The very night before my visit, so the Colonel told me, a man had asked permission to attend the village church, and as he was steady and industrious, he readily obtained it. Alas, he visited the public-house, spent his ready money on bad whiskey, and the next morning, feeling that he had disgraced himself and the colony, he decided to depart, and informed the Colonel of his decision. Good; his account should be made up and his savings made over to him. When he appeared at the office, crest-fallen, bundle in hand, in his kindly way Colonel Stitt led him to talk over the whole affair, to acknowledge the error he had made; and by wise encouragement as to the good work he had done, and the physical benefit received from his stay at Hadleigh, the man was led to reconsider the matter and finally to return to his place.

Later in the day the Governor had a trap harnessed, and we drove as far as the roads would permit, to inspect other industries in operation on the farm. A rabbit warren with 1,200 rabbits reared for the market and a thriving poultry-farm interested me much. We drove round fields of waving corn, wheat, barley, oats. The rich alluvial ground grows excellent crops, and unless rain-storms do mischief now, the harvest will be the heaviest England has had for years. A wharf has been built on the water-way; cheap water-carriage may possibly induce the railway to hear reason in the matter of a good siding. We visited the saw-mills, the wheelwright's shops, blacksmith's shop, the brick-making industry. This last is somewhat important, employing forty men. Excellent brick clay is found on the land, and this is wisely utilized. Nearly all the bricks used in the colony have been made at the kilns, and a large and growing market is found for the bricks both in the immediate neighborhood and in London. As already stated, a considerable number of the cottages are built of corrugated zinc; the dormitories have a brick foundation, but are mainly wooden. On returning from the wharf, we rode back in front of a locomotive. The colony has been enterprising enough to build a railway connecting the wharf and brickworks, at

an expense of £8,000. This was done by the advice of a noted railway contractor, who agreed to build it without any profit to himself.

Probably it would be a difficult matter to get any two experts out of a score to be of one mind as to the advisability of the expense incurred by the colony in these various enterprises. About eighteen months ago rumor was rife that the expense had been enormous, that money had been thrown away doing this and that, and that the Booth family were making an uncommonly good thing of the 'Darkest England' scheme. It may here be said by the way that the social and spiritual wings of the Salvation Army are kept perfectly distinct, both in management and in their accounts. The Booth family are, to the best of my knowledge, all engaged in spiritual work; the colony does not even afford a post for one of them. It is difficult to get a valuable opinion on the subject of the outlay incurred at Hadleigh; but as the rumors against the Booth family grew, and proved very distressing to them, and likely to cripple the work of the Army unless authoritatively contradicted, a committee of inquiry was appointed to investigate the manner in which the moneys collected for the 'Darkest England' scheme had been expended. The result of the inquiry was damaging to those who spread these reports. The committee found that there was no reason to suppose that Gen. Booth or his family derived any benefit whatever from the scheme. They agreed that it was difficult to form an opinion as to whether the money spent on the farm had been judiciously laid out, but gave great weight to the opinion of practical men, who all without exception approved the farm colony. On the whole, they found no evidence of waste of money, but considered the scheme had been well thought out and every reasonable effort made to secure success. At the time the committee of inquiry published their report, 1,002 men had been received on the colony. Of these, 462 were sent to situations; 140 left on their own account, some having run away; 88 were dismissed; 312 remained on the farm.

Talking with the Governor over the grave difficulty of reforming men, of changing the human rubbish of the London slums into desirable colonists, he did not attempt to conceal that they had their failures. Having to do with a considerable number of men who have never been used to regular work, and who are at first physically not very fit for continuous effort at pretty severe labor, their experience is that these men count very much upon their work, some of them seeming to fancy that the colony is making a fortune out of them. The Governor was of opinion that if it were not for the moral responsibility they incurred by care of the men, if they were not burdened with the anxiety of finding work for them in wet and wintry weather—in a word, if their relations with their "hands" were those of the ordinary employer and employed—the colony would soon be a monetary success. It is only fair to remember that this part of their work is very heavy, entailing mental strain and anxiety, breaking continuity of work, involving relations with persons alive to the axiom, "All for each," but not "Each for all." Especially anxious is the time beginning on Friday night (pay-time) and lasting until Monday morning. From Saturday noon to Monday morning is the great drinking-time of the English working-classes. When the hours of labor are finished, the men are under the care of a warden, who attends to discipline, and whose vigilance has been found strictly necessary. On the whole, it seems probable that the colonists are not very grateful for what is done for them, though there are men who write and thank the officials for the fresh encouragement and start in life which they obtained at Hadleigh.

It must be remembered that the colony suffers a good deal from lack of funds, which cripples it in two ways. It prevents various developments both useful and necessary upon the colony itself, especially those which would provide the men with work in winter. Secondly, the lack of funds will not allow of the beginning of the Oversea Colony, an essential part of the scheme, which would insure the drafting of reformed colonists to another land. Their training is often lost, or seems to be lost, for lack of proper completion and the correlation of the different parts of the 'Darkest England' scheme. Gen. Booth has had 8,000 square miles of land surveyed with a view to establishing this Oversea Colony, land of astonishing fertility, with tin, coal, and timber upon it. In passing judgment on Hadleigh we must remember that the loom of time has not yet woven the complete pattern; that the human material the colony works upon is not of first-class quality; and lastly, that more than 50 per cent. of the colonists seem to turn out well, and a considerable number may be said to have shown improvement.

On an average, the colonists seem to stay from six to eight months on the colony, a period by no means long. Often, on leaving, they have a sum of £3 or £4 with which to start life afresh. One or two boards of guardians have sent the Governor able-bodied paupers to set to work, paying five shillings weekly for each man. England spends £10,000,000 annually on a gigantic failure known as the administration of the poor laws. It seems astonishing that she should not be alive to the need of subsidizing the Hadleigh Farm Colony, especially in view of the fact that wretched land-laws and bad social conditions have produced the social failures with which the Farm Colony deals. In Australia the different governments have subsidized three Salvation Army farm colonies, established on Hadleigh lines. The Governors of Australian provinces evince the greatest interest in the experiment, not only in the form of a subsidy, but in personal visits and in moral support. One might almost fancy that the advent of the York baby was of infinitely more importance to the solid but sentimental Briton than a social experiment of such magnitude as the one I have faintly indicated.

C. S. Bremner.

## THE FOURTH CENTENARY OF CORREGGIO.

London, August 4, 1894.

Four centuries have elapsed since the birth of Correggio. Parma is celebrating the event by industrial exhibitions and agricultural shows. We can celebrate it in our own way by trying to go back of the almost delirious adulation on the one hand, and of the Ruskinian vituperation on the other, of which Correggio has been the object.

Surely criticism may occupy itself with other tasks than praise or blame. It should endeavor first of all to discover and define the artist's real capacities and qualities. Then, if our interest be merely personal, we can abandon ourselves to liking or disliking; while if it be historical, we know what to think of the age which adored or abhorred the artist in question. What, then, was the quality of Correggio's genius as revealed in his works? To appreciate this quality we must first note with what other artists Correggio shared the Italian field of painting, and what influence went to form him.

At the beginning of the sixteenth century, Italy saw the rise, in every school, of painters in whose work the element of beauty and of real life so far outweighed the elements which were merely characteristic of their own school and epoch that their pictures, even now, can be enjoyed with no special preparation. To appreciate Raphael, or Michelangelo, or Titian requires none of the education in history and in the art that one must have to appreciate such masters of the fifteenth century as the Vivarini, Pier dei Franceschi, or Botticelli. Correggio is one of the "modern" artists, and holds among the painters of the district between Bologna, Ferrara, and Parma the place that Raphael holds among the painters of central Italy, Michelangelo and Andrea del Sarto among the Florentines, or Titian and Lotto among the Venetians; and he is as much the outcome of the artistic endeavor of that part of Italy as Andrea, Raphael, and Titian are of Tuscany, Umbria, and Venice.

Correggio may have got his rudiments from some local master in his native town, or in the neighboring town of Modena; but in his very earliest paintings he shows himself as the unmistakable pupil of Costa and Francia, in whose workshop at Bologna he must already have been before 1509. In that year Costa went to Mantua, and probably took Correggio with him, for several pictures painted by Correggio in the next few years bear witness to the study of certain works by Mantegna which he could have seen in Mantua alone. At Mantua also he came in contact with a painter who saved him, perhaps, from becoming merely a perfected Costa or Francia. This was Dosso Dossi, an artist of great imaginative power, with a mastery of color as splendid as that of any Venetian, and with a skill in the treatment of light and shadow at first almost unrivalled. He communicated an ardor to the young Correggio—whose own nature was from the first sensitive and lyrical—which prevented him from painting all the rest of his life pictures merely dreamy, sweet, and antiquated, such as Costa's. It was to Dosso, too, that Correggio owed the first impulse to that study of effects of light and shadow, and of aerial perspective, in which he afterwards went beyond everything that had been done before him.

The nine or ten pictures which Correggio painted before his twenty-first year show with remarkable clearness just what was his own personal quality and what he owed to his masters and to Dosso. The forms and types, nearly all that has to do with the mere design, come from Costa and Francia, while the treatment of light and shadow and much of the coloring is distinctly Dossoesque. But the intensely felt religious emotion, impregnated with poetry, which is expressed in the faces and in the landscape accompaniments, is his own, and is as perfectly distinct from the dreaminess of Costa as from the fiery fancy of Dosso. These earliest works are his most genuinely religious pictures, and in all art it would be hard to find their equals for delicacy and sincerity of feeling. Their aim is not, like that of the religious paintings of earlier generations, to inspire us with contrition and awe, but to put us in sympathy with the marvellous poetry and the deep humanity of the story of Christ. All through his life Correggio's nature continued unchanged; it remained sensitive

and lyrical. When he had a subject to paint, he chose to dwell entirely upon the elements of feeling in it, and to express them with the utmost rapture. This may be called the law of his being, and he is completely satisfactory when the subject gives full scope for his genius, and less satisfactory when the subject does not lend itself to a rapturously emotional treatment.

In his youth, his lack of skill, his tentativeness, his own immaturity, hampered him. He had not yet that mastery which afterwards enabled him at the same time to express all the rapture of feeling within him and to make it seem real. This required an extraordinary skill in draughtsmanship, and, above all, an understanding of light and shadow, which he attained only later, although early enough in his brief life. At first it was as if his only instrument had been the harp and he expressed only what the harp could express. But his means of expression increased until at last he had in his hands an instrument as powerful and as responsive as the orchestra. So in his early pictures, his expression of emotion was restrained and quiet, and was admirably suited to the religious subjects which he then treated. But in such a picture as the "Madonna with St. Francis" at Dresden, painted in his twenty-first year, the emotion is already a trifle too much for the subject. He represents the Madonna and saints, wishing to keep to the architectonic form of the conventional altar-piece. But the figures have so much feeling of their own to express that they stand uneasily within the bounds of the prescribed composition. In such a picture, however, as the "Zingarella" at Naples, painted only a little later, where he had nothing to express but the emotion of a mother passionately caressing her child, no touch of exaggeration is felt. So also with the "Nativity" in the Uffizi, painted a few years later, where there is nothing but a young mother trying to attract the attention of her little baby. Correggio is in fact faultless as an artist whenever the emotion he had to portray was purely human and joyous, no matter how refined or how ecstatic.

He spent the twelve most productive years of his life, from 1518 to 1530, at Parma, and there he found ample opportunity for the kind of painting in which he could give full swing to his genius for the expression of intense feeling. In the choir of San Giovanni he painted the Coronation of the Virgin. The Madonna here does not, as in the usual treatment of the subject, kneel like a meek handmaiden, crushed with the honor that is being conferred upon her, but throws herself into it with rapture, as into a joy of which she means to possess herself to the utmost. The St. John in the same church seems likewise to abandon himself to the ecstasy of his inspiration. In the cupola of the cathedral he painted his famous Ascension of the Virgin. She is surrounded by figures all striving to be on a level with her own intense exultation as she gives herself up to the unspeakable bliss of rising to the highest heaven. The abandonment to the utmost possible human joy is far greater here than even in Titian's "Assunta." Every one of the whole host of accompanying angels seems an embodiment of the jubilant triumph which the Virgin herself feels, and which sweeps through the whole universe at the same moment.

Having such a preference for a rapturously emotional treatment, Correggio was at his best only in such subjects as these, and not in subjects which required the expression of sorrow or of resignation. So, in a picture like the "Martyrdom of Placidus and Flavia" (in the Parma Gallery), Flavia abandons herself in an ecstatic vision, and is therefore one of the finest figures Correggio ever painted, while Placidus, who tries to look believing and resigned, succeeds only in looking jesuitical. In his one Pietà, also, Correggio is far from being at his best, although the dead Christ is a splendid figure, just because in him there is nothing that suggests sorrow or pain. Again, with such a preference for an emotional treatment, he naturally ended by choosing subjects in which there was nothing to fetter his full expression. These he found in the love stories of the gods; and in his "Danaë," in his "Io," and in his "Leda," he portrays human beings so utterly given up to an all-possessing emotion that they tremble with it like the ripple of water under a breeze.

It was his passion, too, for the expression of joyful feeling that led Correggio to seize every chance to paint *putti*—little children as artless and simple as real childhood, but bearing far greater joys than childhood ever felt. His first commission at Parma was to decorate the parlor of the Convent of San Paolo; and this he filled with *putti* peeping from behind trellises, sporting with garlands, and playing with instruments of the chase, all in eager sympathy with the huntress Diana, who forms the centre of the composition. His success in this, no doubt, gained him the commissions that kept him so long in Parma; for, from its beginnings, the Renaissance had made the *putto* the symbol of its own joy in life and of its own emotions, and a painter who put into his *putti* all the life, simplicity, and restlessness of real childhood, and at the same time all the immense rapture and joy in mere existence that Italy was feeling in the beginning of the sixteenth century, could not fail to be appreciated.

This intense and rapturous emotion might have become cloying in the end if Correggio had not always been as unstudied and as unconscious as he was emotional. In his mere craftsmanship, too, he seems to have been the most unconscious of artists, never dreaming that he would be admired or blamed for his astonishing foreshortenings, or for his broad, almost modern, treatment of light and shadow. In this, indeed, he had scarcely a rival, even among the later Venetians. None of them, not even Tintoretto, treated effects of diffused light with such success as he. In his ripe years he loved effects of broad daylight and landscapes sparkling with sunshine, as if he could not have light enough to bring nature into complete harmony with his own rapture. His landscapes seem therefore to pulsate with joy under the full sunlight, and he gives fields and trees that look of gayety which they have in the early summer.

His coloring was throughout on a level with the intense joyfulness of his feeling and with his sunny landscapes. Distinct from the Venetians, he was in no way inferior to them, except that color and brushwork did not with him, as it did with the Venetians, become a distinct instrument of expression. But where he is unrivalled, either by them or perhaps by any other Italian painters, is in the flesh painting of the one or two perfectly preserved pictures which we still have. Flesh that looks so real as that of the "Antiope" in the Louvre, it would, perhaps, be hard to find anywhere else.

Correggio's genius, as we have seen, was throughout emotional and lyrical. Lyrical feeling rarely goes with the power of unemotional observation such as good portraiture requires. It is not surprising, therefore, that not a single portrait by Correggio exists.

It happens that the English poets afford striking parallels to the Italian painters. Thus, there is a decided similarity of genius between Shakspere and Titian, and between Michelangelo and Milton. A lover of these poets cannot help finding the corresponding painters much more intelligible. But centuries had to elapse before emotions so intense as those Correggio felt found expression in literature—in Shelley when he is at his best, and in Keats when he is perfect.

BERNHARD BERENSON.

# Notes.

GINN & Co. announce for next month 'The Roman Pronunciation of Latin; Why we use it, and How we use it,' by Prof. Frances E. Lord of Wellesley College. They will also publish in their College Series the 'Odes and Epodes of Horace,' edited, with introduction and notes, by Prof. C. L. Smith.

The long-awaited 'Shakspere Concordance' of Mr. John Bartlett is now promised by the Macmillans for issue early in September. The 400,000 entries witness to the aim at completeness, while the care taken to secure minute accuracy is shown in the fact that references are made, not alone by act and scene, but as well by line, according to the numbering of the Globe edition of Shakspere. The same firm's new edition of Mrs. Oliphant's 'Makers of Florence' will be in four volumes, sold separately, which will be devoted, respectively, to Dante, Savonarola, the Castle Builders, and the Piagnoni Painters.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will issue in the autumn a volume of poems by Francis Howard Williams of Philadelphia, mostly unpublished hitherto. From their press also will speedily appear part ii. of 'Social England,' edited by H. D. Traill. This instalment carries the narrative to the death of Henry VII.

From the Scribners' list of forthcoming books we single out the third and concluding volume of Pasquier's 'Memoirs'; 'Johannine Theology,' by Prof. G. B. Stevens of Yale; 'William Shakspere: A Study of Elizabethan Literature,' by Prof. Barrett Wendell; Mrs. Alice Morse Earle's 'Costume of Colonial Times'; 'The Making of the Ohio Valley States,' by Samuel Adams Drake; 'Musicians and Music Lovers, and Other Essays,' by William F. Apthorp; and finally, the Sherman Letters, being the correspondence between the General and the Senator.

Another American general, R. E. Lee, is to be the subject of the next biography in the "Great Commanders Series," published by the Appletons. This volume is to be done by Gen. Fitzhugh Lee, whose military and personal relations to the Confederate chief argue special equipment for the task.

The problems of the theatre are among the most interesting just now in Greek archæology. We note the announcement by Klincksieck, Paris, of an 'Étude sur l'organisation matérielle du théâtre athénien,' by O. Navarre, Maître de Conférences à la Faculté des Lettres at Toulouse. As to the stage-question, we imagine that, notwithstanding the publications of Bodensteiner, White, Pickard, Capps, and many other able students, no one who has not studied the theatres in Greece itself will make up his mind before the appearance of the long-promised work of Dörpfeld and Reisch.

Under the title of 'Shylock and Others'

(London: Fisher Unwin; New York: Scribners), Mr. G. H. Radford has gathered eight little essays closely akin to the paper on *Falstaff* contributed by him to the first series of Mr. Birrell's 'Obiter Dicta.' The paper on *Shylock* is refreshingly free from the pedantry which weights down so much Shaksperian criticism; and those on the "Sources of 'Hamlet'" and "*Hamlet's* Madness" are useful in drawing attention to what many commentators ignore—the extent to which the great dramatist was bound by the plots he borrowed from his predecessors.

Bernard Palissy is one of those men who, as Töpffer used to say, are famous but little known. That he was an artist, that certain ware bears his name, that a legend has arisen about him, is the sum and substance of what the great majority of his countrymen know of him. M. Ernest Dupuy, in his 'Bernard Palissy' (Paris: Lecène, Oudin & Cie.) tells his public of the man, the artist, the scholar, and the writer—for Palissy was a writer of uncommon power and much originality. But, above all, as M. Dupuy well remarks, Palissy was a high-souled, noble-minded man, and for this reason, if for no other, his name will live in French annals. The study now given us is very full and detailed, a little too much so at times, but so conscientious and interesting that one easily forgives occasional over-developments. A glossary of words peculiar to Palissy and a brief bibliography add to the value of the work.

'Alfred de Vigny et la Poésie Politique,' by M. L. Dorison (Paris: Perrin & Cie ), is a careful study of the poet's beliefs as expressed mainly in that remarkable collection, 'Les Destinées.' M. Dorison has become very familiar with Vigny, and he has set out clearly the doctrines which "Le Mont des Oliviers," with its terrific closing stanza, and "La Maison du Berger" contain. The whole book is a particularly earnest effort to distinguish Vigny's aims and to prove that the poet sought to express a new symbol of life, perceiving that the old forms were worn out and that new generations, with new needs, required a new creed, a new object to be attained. This study of Vigny from the political and social point of view is indispensable to students of Romantic literature in France. It exhibits plainly the fact that the school possessed thinkers.

In 'Vie et Science' (Paris: Colin & Cie.) M. Henri Berr discusses, under the form of letters exchanged by an old philosopher of Strassburg and a Parisian student, the great questions which underlie daily life. Serious in tone, earnest of purpose, M. Berr succeeds in being interesting; and the frivolous, particularly the thoughtless, the careless, would profit by the perusal of this little book, which contains much food for reflection within a small compass.

'Savinien de Cyrano Bergerac' forms the subject of a volume signed G. Ant. Brun and published by the house just named. It is a thesis for the doctorate, crammed with information, attractive in parts but not very entertaining on the whole, though the subject lends itself to a brighter treatment than has been accorded to it. It is useful as a work of reference.

If we had any reason for being interested in Signor Angelo Conti, his book on Giorgione (Florence: Alinari Bros.) would be absorbing. He begins with a chapter on style, and ends with an epilogue on art and criticism, and, in between, discourses of the "Supreme Vision," the "Insufficiency of the Symbol," of Bach and Wagner, of Pater and Goethe, alluding once in a while to Giotto, Leonardo, Rembrandt, and even Giorgione. We thus learn that Signor Conti has "cultured" tastes and interests, but we do not see why he should entitle a book about himself 'Giorgione.' The illustrations, by the way, are good, and among them, almost as if by accident, are a few of genuine works by Giorgione.

A London bookseller named Tregaskis has two or three times taken many copies of the same book and sent them to as many bookbinders all over the world, and then exhibited the result in his own shop, the Caxton Head. The last book chosen was the Kelmscott Press edition of Mr. William Morris's 'King Florus and the Fair Jehane,' with initials and borders designed by the translator. Sixty-seven copies of the work are described in the catalogue as having been bound all over the world, in London and Paris and Venice, in Japan and Java, in Siam and Persia, in Montreal and New York and Memphis, Tenn. The binding designed and executed by Mr. Otto Zahn in Memphis, though a little stiff in outline, is thoroughly workmanlike. Excellent facsimiles of it and half-a-dozen other covers give value to the publisher's catalogue, to which is prefixed a futile introduction by Mr. Cyril Davenport, F.S.A.

The twenty-fourth annual report of the Lenox Library in this city enters into minute details concerning the chief acquisition of the year, the library of the late George Bancroft, which was let slip by Congress. It is of priceless value to the student of early American history. Purchases from the private library of the late George H. Moore also procured some rarities in the same line, and these and the Bancroft collection enabled the library to complete its series of the Jesuit *Relations* of New France in the original editions without a break (1632-1673). The Rev. Dr. Wendell Prime gave freely his remarkable Cervantes collection in 435 volumes. Some precious early printed books of the fifteenth century were acquired, one on vellum with miniature paintings over woodcuts, whose only known fellow is in the National Library at Paris.

The number of historical monographs now appearing on the subject is gratifying in direct proportion to the neglect of all our text-books, the newest like the older, to give anything like a consistent view of the cause of the revolution of 1860. The twelfth in the Publications of the Indiana Historical Society is a collection of "Slavery Petitions and Papers," showing the persistent attempt of a part of the inhabitants of the Territory of Indiana, from 1796 to 1807, to obtain of Congress a suspension of the Northwest Ordinance so far as it prohibited slavery. The compiler is Mr. Jacob Piatt Dunn, the historian of the State in the American Commonwealths series. Congress was more than once advised by its committees to accede, but there was a natural reluctance so to do in face of the approaching prohibition of the slave trade; and the anti-slavery settlers also put in a strong counter-petition. The humanitarian arguments advanced for admitting to the territory this "evil" forced upon the colonies by sordid England—as that it would improve the fare and treatment of the slave and tend to his gradual emancipation, while relieving the South of the dangers of insurrection—were as hollow as the economic, viz., that Indiana (in spite of Ohio's example) could not be developed by free labor. Our late President's grandfather, we are pained to observe, cut a prominent figure among the promoters of this movement for "cheap labor," in a region "where laborers cannot be procured to assist in cultivating the grounds under one dollar per day, exclusive of washing, lodging, and boarding; and where every kind of tradesmen are paid from a dollar and a half to two dollars per day." Many were tempted to "remove to the Spanish dominions, where slavery is permitted, and, consequently, the price of labor much lower."

Something new and instructive may be gleaned from a rather confused and limited performance, 'Slavery in Rhode Island, 1755–1776,' by William D. Johnston, whose paper issues from the Historical Seminary of Brown University. For instance, there was, in 1743, an act "for the more effectual punishment of negroes that shall attempt to commit rape on any white woman"; which implies that lynching was not the habit of the Rhode Island community. Mr. Johnston is quite as laudatory of the Quakers as the facts will warrant; but had his narrative come down to the period before the civil war, he would have had to record subserviency to Southern trade and Southern summer residents, and hostility to abolitionists, on the part of the Friends in Newport not at all distinguishable from like displays by the "world's people."

Much better is the 'History of Slavery in Connecticut,' by Bernard C. Steiner, Ph.D., one of the Johns Hopkins University Studies. There are many natural parallels between the customs and legislation on this subject of Rhode Island and Connecticut. Mr. Steiner has not exhausted the accessible sources, and he sometimes falls into error, as in regard to the Rhode Island Anti-Slavery Society of the eighteenth century, its date of formation and its membership. He has overlooked the original documents showing the genesis of Prudence Crandall's enterprise, and some of the larger consequences of the previous movement to found a colored manual-labor school at New Haven. Slavery was not finally abolished in Connecticut till 1848, but the persecution of Miss Crandall occurred in the period of gradual emancipation and at the time of the passage of a personal-liberty bill applicable to fugitive slaves. The *Amistad* trial is well related by Mr. Steiner.

A recent publication of the Weather Bureau in Washington is the summary of the international meteorological observations which appears as Bulletin A. The daily simultaneous observations of which this is a summary were taken in accordance with the plan formulated at the Meteorological Congress in Vienna in 1873. From 1875 to 1887 inclusive, these simultaneous observations were taken at all the signal stations in the United States, at nearly five hundred places in other portions of the world, and on nearly six hundred vessels in all seas, the whole aggregating upwards of 150,000 monthly reports, representing more than 5,000,000 daily observations. The preparation of the charts was begun by Major H. H. C. Dunwoody in 1886, and continued at intervals for five years. Nearly half of the charts were published in connection with the Chief Signal Officer's report in 1891. The work, including the preparation of the text, has been continued by Mr. E. B. Garriott, under the direction of Major Dunwoody, the whole being completed about a year ago, at which time it received a limited distribution. The plates number sixty-one, presenting the normal average barometer, temperature, winds, and changes in barometric pressure, various comparisons of these data, and storm frequency and storm-tracks. The work seems to have been well done in its details and the plates are well printed. The principal criticism which

may be urged against it is that no weight has been given to the observations; series including few observations of poor quality, in regions where observers were scarce, being counted as of equal value with large series of excellent ones. With regard to the storm-tracks, a method based on the statistics of areas of a given number of degrees square was used, no allowance being made for the decrease of these squares in size with increasing latitude, the result of which has tended toward a deflection to the south of the storm-tracks. The value of the compilation for the use of the forecaster of weather might have been enhanced had a different principle been followed in the reduction.

The Marine Biological Laboratory at Wood's Hole, Mass., has just concluded its seventh summer session, the most successful in its history. The number of students and investigators in attendance was 133, representing 70 colleges and high schools. Courses of instruction in zoology and botany were offered, a new building for the accommodation of the students in the latter course having been erected. The important part played by the Laboratory in the development of the biological sciences in this country is evidenced by the fact that no less than 58 of those in attendance were carrying on research in zoölogy, botany, or physiology, and that several important investigations were completed during the summer. A number of the lectures delivered at the Laboratory during the session will, as in former years, be published in book form.

—In her interesting little book, 'The State and Its Children' (Methuen & Co.), Miss G. M. Tuckwell shows the great silent revolution which has been accomplished during the present century in the attitude of the State towards the children. At the beginning of the nineteenth century, saving the power of death only, it is not going too far to say that a father had absolute rights over his child. The course of legislation has greatly modified the old parental position. A child cannot now in England work even as a half-timer below the age of eleven, nor as a whole-timer until the age of thirteen, when he must possess a certain certificate of elementary education, the standard varying with the neighborhood; without this certificate he or she may work as a whole-timer at the age of fourteen. Whole time varies; in many factories it is ten and a half hours daily, except Saturday, exclusive of meals. In England, what is known as the "domestic workshop" is very common. Work is taken home by a parent to finish, and such work-places are excluded from the scope of the factory acts. Children, therefore, may be, and often are, set to work in them. Compulsory education rescues them from this fate to a certain extent, though the parent can evade the compulsion a good deal by irregular attendance. Parents can be punished by law for keeping their children in a filthy condition, for starving them, or beating to the extent of ill-usage.

—Miss Tuckwell shows further that much fewer children are sent to prison nowadays than in past times. Reformatories and industrial schools are built to receive youthful criminals and those charged with an offence punishable by imprisonment, but not previously convicted of felony. A young person may not be sent to a reformatory under the age of sixteen, and must, to the author's regret, have undergone more than ten days' imprisonment in jail. Children sent to industrial schools must be under twelve and guilty of some offence; or children up to the age of fourteen for whom the State must make provision. Such children must have parents undergoing a term of imprisonment, or be found unmanageable in the workhouse, or require to be removed from the company of thieves or prostitutes, or be truants in whose neighborhood exists no truant school. Miss Tuckwell finds that the parents of these young wards of the State are mostly worthless and egregiously selfish persons, allowed, by the immense respect England still retains for parental rights, to constantly interfere in arrangements made for the benefit of their children. They readily abandon them when helpless, and with audacity claim them as soon as they have become, or are on the point of becoming, wage-earners. English colonies, like England herself, have tried the barrack system for children, only to discard it because of its wretched results in physical depression and disease, in mental and moral apathy. Like several of our own States, South Australia will not permit parents to interfere with the welfare of children over whom the Government has been compelled to assume control. It is strange to find that English mine regulations permit a boy between twelve and thirteen to work for fifty-four hours per week in the mine. Working aboveground such boys would be allowed to work only half-time. Miss Tuckwell desires as practical reforms that no children under fifteen years of age should be permitted to work, and that the standard of exemption should be fixed by law and not left to the often unenlightened views of local authorities.

—In a recent number of the *Ephemeris Archæologike*, published by the Greek Archæological Society in Athens, Prof. John Williams White discusses the interesting question whether the so-called "Pelargikon" existed as a fortification in the time of Pericles and subsequently. In the early history of Athens, it undoubtedly defended the western and southern slopes below the Acropolis, and, together with the enclosing wall of the summit, constituted the chief security of the early settlement, in the same manner as the Acropolis of Mycenæ or of Tiryns. It continued to serve the same purpose, every one is agreed, as late as the sixth century A.C. Dr. Dörpfeld and others maintain that, after the invasion of Xerxes, it was repaired and retained its ancient uses from the time of Pericles even as late as the period of Herodes Atticus. Prof. White strongly combats this view, asserting that the Perlargikon was not restored, and that the Acropolis from the age of Pericles existed as a region consecrated to the worship of the deities, and as a secure place of deposit for treasure, but not as a fortified defence of the city. He examines in detail the opposing arguments and the passages from Thucydides, Lucian, and Aristophanes on which they are based; and, to our mind, makes good his position with perfect clearness and conclusiveness at every point, by a number of converging proofs. Finally, he points out the superfluousness of such a defence, after the "long walls" were built from the Peiræus, and the ugliness of a massive, rudely built enclosure obscuring to some extent the superlative beauty of the Parthenon and the Propylæa. As the modern Greek tongue is not a gift of grace to professors of ancient Greek, it may not be amiss to compliment Mr. White on the ease and lucidity with which he handles a language that has proved itself adequate to every demand of modern thought and science.

—The story of "La Nônne Alferez," which M. José-Maria de Heredia translates from its Spanish original (Paris: Lemerre; New York: Meyer Frères), has at first sight quite the look of the adventurous and picaresque romances of cloak and sword common in the seventeenth century. But it is not a romance at all. The nun lieutenant was a real personage of flesh and blood, and herself wrote these memoirs of her stormy life. The record of her baptism still exists. She is mentioned by many of her contemporaries; her portrait was drawn with pen and brush; the first and second parts of her 'Relación' were printed and reprinted during her lifetime, and she even attained the honors of the stage, as the heroine of the 'Monja Alferez' of D. Juan Perez de Montalvan, pupil of the great Lope. Two hundred years later, 1829, M. Joaquin Maria de Ferrer published, through the house of Jules Didot, the full text of the 'Historia' after the manuscript of the historian Muñoz, accompanying it with numerous notes and a wealth of "pièces justificatives" of all sorts and kinds. This book is now of very high rarity, though it appears that De Quincey must have had a copy of it, and have drawn from it his story of the 'Spanish Military Nun.' De Quincey's well-known book gives an account of the facts of the life of Caterina de Erauso sufficiently full to make it unnecessary to go into any details here. But, compared with his original, his book is dull indeed. His story creeps, leaden-footed, where Caterina's own relation flies. She used her pen with the same directness that she used her dagger, and her sentences go as straight as her pistol-shots. M. de Heredia has done well in rescuing from the thickening shadows of oblivion such a vivid and alert piece of writing as this is.

—Baldassare Castiglione's 'Cortegiano,' far from being a quaint and merely curious treatise on sixteenth-century etiquette, introduces us to a group of fascinating people discussing many of those questions of polite ethics, urbanity, and culture that have occupied our own eighteenth-century essayists. Castiglione should be regarded as the precursor of Addison, Steele, and Swift, more even than of Montaigne, for the great charm of the 'Cortegiano' is its note of personality, its touching on the various foibles and prejudices of the interlocutors. The *dramatis personæ* are always kept in character, so that the discussions are more like certain "psychological" novels of to-day than like the ordinary Socratic dialogue. But hitherto only the specialist had sufficient acquaintance with the characters as they were in life to appreciate the force, tact, and humor of the author's presentation. The ordinary reader was repelled from the book by the quantity of names and things utterly unknown to him. Even when his curiosity was roused, he could not easily satisfy it, because, in the lack of all those aids in the shape of innumerable dictionaries that the student of the ancients has, the beginner in Renaissance studies finds himself helpless the moment he leaves the broad highway hedged with glittering generalities. A well-annotated edition of the 'Cortegiano' was, therefore, much wanted, and nothing could satisfy the want better than that of Signor Vittorio Cian, published a few months ago at Florence by G. C. Sansoni. Signor Cian is a well-known specialist on the subject of Castiglione, an edition of whose unpublished letters he is now preparing. He has prefixed to the text a biographical dictionary of all the interlocutors. The notes are copious, and although many are of a philological nature, most are explanatory and interpretative, no allusion being left unnoticed, no point not cleared up. To the be-

ginner Signor Cian's 'Cortegiano' is indispensable; to others it makes a delightful classic many times more delightful.

—Another but little less recent book, which plunges the reader into the very midst of the Urbino "Salon," is 'Mantova ed Urbino, Isabella d'Este ed Elisabetta Gonzaga nelle relazioni famigliari e nelle vicende politiche,' by those ripe and cultured scholars, Alessandro Luzio and Rodolfo Renier (Turin: L. Roux). A book of this kind, in which people of the Renaissance are made to describe themselves, to reveal their passions, interests, and foibles, to explain their relations to one another—a book in which the author never enters except to introduce a useful date or an illuminating note—is an untold relief after the cartloads of rubbish that have appeared in recent years about the Renaissance in the abstract, written frequently by people with a bare smattering of Italian and next to no acquaintance with Italy. The personality that stands out clearest in this model work is that of Isabella d'Este, the brilliant Marchioness of Mantua. She anticipates not only the French *marquise* of the last century, but even more our American great ladies. We see her devoted to horseback riding as well as to diplomacy. A new hair wash or receipt for the complexion interests her no more than a fresh sonnet or the last good story. She was as devoted to travel as many of our countrywomen, and, like some of them, she seemed happier and more herself without her husband. A winter in Rome to her was like a winter in Paris in our days, and in the Rome of Leo X. Isabella d'Este found no lack of excitement and amusement, and of course she received the homage of all the wits and men of fashion. Art was perhaps the greatest of her passions. She was among the first to appreciate Michelangelo. Mantegna, the Bellini, Perugino, Costa, and Titian painted pictures for her cabinet, and it is due to her influence that Mantua became what it did, the model of a European court—one that Louis XIV. could not help imitating to the minutest details.

## THE END OF EMIN PASHA.

*Mit Emin Pascha ins Herz von Afrika:* Ein Reisebericht mit Beiträgen von Dr. Emin Pascha, in seinem Auftrage geschildert von Dr. Franz Stuhlmann. Im amtlichen Auftrage der Kolonial-Abtheilung des Auswärtigen Amtes herausgegeben. Karten, Portraits, etc. Berlin: D. Reimer. 1894. 8vo, pp. xxi, 901.

The last expedition of Emin Pasha was rarely fortunate in its historian. An unusual combination of qualities, thorough scientific training, literary skill, keen powers of observation, and a kindly interest in everything human, has enabled Dr. Franz Stuhlmann to write one of the best books on Africa of which we have any knowledge. Few travellers have pictured more vividly than he the incidents of the journey, the distinctive characteristics of the regions traversed. None have surpassed him in the scrupulous fidelity with which he has described the various customs, habits of life, appearance, etc., of each native tribe which he encountered. It is this painstaking and picturesque collection of ethnographic facts about a race which is fast disappearing or transforming before the inrush of a new civilization—not the importance of the expedition, for that accomplished little or nothing worthy of note and ended in disaster—which gives the work its great value. The connection of Emin Pasha with the expedition adds, of course, vastly to the interest of the account, though scarcely anything to its intrinsic worth. The picture which the author draws of this ill-fated man is, the reader feels, to the life. Whether it will add to his reputation as a wise organizer and leader is a matter of grave doubt. Dr. Stuhlmann, on the other hand, has shown himself to be an admirable traveller and well fitted to govern the natives. The only weakness which we have noted is an undue, though not unnatural, prejudice against the English, which is frequently manifested. The references to Stanley—mostly fragments of Emin's conversation—are amusing, though it should be added that there are only generous words of praise, both from the author and from Emin as well, for Stanley's geographical work. This is the more noteworthy as in Germany they are accustomed to "shrug their shoulders" over it.

The aim of the expedition which, a thousand strong, left Bagamoyo, opposite Zanzibar, on April 26, 1890, was in general terms to strengthen and extend the power of Germany within its sphere of influence. Emin was the leader, and Dr. Stuhlmann, who had been for two years in Africa studying its zoölogy, was taken on to aid in the scientific work. At Mpwapwa they met the notorious Dr. Carl Peters returning from his raid through Masailand and Uganda. He strongly advised Emin to make all possible haste to Lake Victoria in order "to secure the neutrality of Uganda and the Equatorial Province," or, in other words, to thwart the supposed designs of England in these regions. This advice was followed, as well as Dr. Peters's method of treating hostile natives. To punish attacks upon the expedition, whether provoked or unprovoked does not appear, Emin burned villages—for one offence nineteen—killing and wounding the inhabitants and looting their cattle. In this way the Germans too frequently assert their authority in their African territory, with the natural result that it is being turned into a wilderness. On reaching the lake, Dr. Stuhlmann was sent to destroy the station of an Arab slave-trader—a more laudable act, though one which Capt. Lugard believes to have led to Emin's murder two years later. After the founding of the station of Bukoba on the west shore, the doctor went to Uganda, ostensibly to buy boats, but in reality to watch the course of events with the intent of gaining some advantage for Germany. This can hardly be regarded in any other light than a discourteous act to the English, whose agent, Capt. Lugard, was at that moment endeavoring to come to an understanding with the king and his chiefs. The German's presence must have made his task more difficult, as during these negotiations Mwanga actually offered to place himself under German protection and to hoist the German flag. Though this offer was declined, blood-brotherhood was made between the king and Emin's representative, who soon after returned to Bukoba. Advantage is taken of this episode to give an interesting account of Uganda, its people and their history.

Disappointed in his hopes of extending German influence in this direction through the Anglo-German agreement giving the sole control of Uganda to the former power, the Pasha now turned his whole attention to his former province, and first to his Sudanese, who were still where Stanley and he had left them two years before on the western shore of Lake Albert. "He hoped, if he could reach his people, to join forces with them, in order, if circumstances permitted, with their aid to make his way through Monbuttu westward, and, if possible, to take possession of the Hinterland of the Cameroons." In carrying out this plan, as indeed in almost all his proceedings after leaving Mpwapwa, though Dr. Stuhlmann is not perfectly clear on this point, Emin did not have the sanction or approval of the Government, nor of his companion, who regarded this plan as "magnificent" but impracticable. Stuhlmann's advice was to explore the little-known region between Lakes Tanganyika and Victoria, the original object of the expedition. But Emin obstinately refused to listen to him, and they started, though with greatly reduced numbers, for Lake Albert. The route was very nearly the same that Emin had travelled before with Stanley. On the way Dr. Stuhlmann made an unsuccessful attempt to climb Mount Ruwenzori, not being able to reach the snow-line. On July 21, 1891, the lake was reached, and negotiations with Selim Bey, the commander of the Sudanese, began at once. They were unsuccessful, though a considerable number of Selim's people, mostly men incapable of bearing either arms or burdens, with their families, joined the Pasha. After three weeks' delay they started again, the expedition now consisting of 320 persons, 96 of whom were women and 39 children. It was the height of folly with such a force, and lacking ammunition, food, and supplies, to attempt to cross the forest in which Stanley's perfectly equipped expedition had nearly perished. It is hard to acquit Dr. Stuhlmann of great blame in not compelling Emin to give up his mad project. He says that he remonstrated with him, and Emin's only answer was the permission to go back if he chose. The Pasha himself was determined to press forward "into uncertainty and danger, only in order to be useful to his fatherland, and to show the world that he also alone, without Stanley's help, could lead an expedition." In these naïve words of the author we find the ruling motive of Emin's conduct—intense jealousy of his rescuer. For this he was willing to sacrifice what was probably of more value to him than his life—the opportunity to give to the world the results of his scientific labors, so zealously and successfully pursued through many years.

The next three months were spent in vain efforts to push through the forest, first to the west and then to the north, but Emin was continually baffled by the feebleness of his force and the want of food and guides. The story of these last days is perhaps the most pitiful in all the annals of African travel. Emin had become nearly blind, and, through sickness and privation, reduced almost to helplessness. Yet he struggled on with a persistence, partly heroic, partly despairing, unwilling to acknowledge defeat, though his enemies were not men, but disease, hunger, and the forest. At length he was compelled to return to his former camp by the lake, where, to add to his misfortunes, smallpox broke out among his people. After vainly endeavoring to stamp it out, he separated the well from the sick, and ordered Dr. Stuhlmann to lead the former back to the German station on Lake Victoria, promising speedily to follow him. On the 10th of December, 1891, they parted, Emin's last words being, "We will hope to meet again in a month! If, prevented by force, I should not come, then think of my child!" It was with great reluctance that Dr. Stuhlmann left his leader under such circumstances. "Many times during those wearisome days," he writes, "the thought darted into my head to seize the command of the

expedition and to carry him forcibly to the coast. But, apart from all other scruples, I should have had to risk his doing himself an injury." The rest of the melancholy story is soon told. Three months later letters—the last dated January 12, 1892—were received from Emin at Bukoba. From these and the report of the bearer, it appeared that, though the Pasha's health had improved, the smallpox had spread to the natives, many of whom had died and the rest had fled, so that it was impossible for him to march. There were with him at this time twenty-two men, "besides many women and children." Again the closing words were a greeting to his little daughter Ferida. His diary, which the Belgians recovered from the Arabs, records that he remained in this camp until March 9, when he left in company with a party of Manyema slave-hunters who were returning to their home on the Congo. Dr. Stuhlmann thinks that he was compelled to take this course, starvation being the alternative. He safely crossed the great forest in a southwesterly direction, and was within a few days' march of the river when he was murdered, on October 20, by the leader of the band. The remainder of the expedition, it may be said here, under the lead of his companion, reached the coast in July without any noteworthy incident.

In this work Emin Pasha is invariably treated with the deference due to a superior officer and a distinguished man of science. Possibly more than justice is done to his powers as a leader, his patience and tact in dealing with the natives, but not too much to his tireless zeal in the pursuit of knowledge, his forgetfulness of self in the thoughtful care for his companions, his far-reaching views and ambitious aims. At the same time the picture is not one-sided. It is evident that Emin was capricious, irritable, not always sincere, jealous and invincibly obstinate in attempting to carry out even hopeless plans when once he had formed them. It was to this trait mainly that the final catastrophe was due. The general impression left, however, is of a man of more than ordinary interest and one peculiarly adapted to the rôle of an African explorer. In respect to the charge made against Emin that he turned Mohammedan, Dr. Stuhlmann writes: "He did, it is true, in his province outwardly observe the Mohammedan customs, but at heart he remained a good Protestant. When during our travels our tents stood close together, I could hear frequently in the evening how, before he retired, he prayed for a long time in the Protestant way."

Three of the chapters of this work were written from his dictation—accounts of the events in his province after his departure and of the negotiations with the Sudanese, and a valuable description of the A-lur, a negro tribe dwelling on the upper Nile. The latter is a good specimen of the immense stores of information which he had gathered, much of which probably perished with him. In the similar descriptions of the different tribes which were encountered by the expedition, and which form a considerable part of this volume (the other scientific results are to be published separately), Dr. Stuhlmann shows how much he has profited by his leader's instructions and example. They are models ot simplicity and of careful detail, while the numerous illustrations of dwellings, tribal markings, weapons, and household utensils render them unusually intelligible. The chapter on the Pygmies, of whom the expedition saw a considerable number, at one place finding a settlement of between one and two hundred huts, is a monograph of peculiar interest and value. From numerous measurements our author found their height varied from 1.24 metres to 1.50 metres, though Emin held that all above 1.40 metres were of a mixed race. That they are not misshapen, the admirable photographs of the two women who joined the expedition clearly prove, nor do they show less intelligence than the average negro, though they have no knowledge of making fire by stick-rubbing. A down-like hair, two to three millimetres long, which looks in the distance like silk, covered the whole body, which was without ornament. Their language, when talking together, was like the twittering of birds. Stuhlmann saw no evidences of the cannibalism with which some writers have charged them, and is inclined to believe that they are the autochthons of Africa and of the same race with the Bushmen.

Among the negroes whom Dr. Stuhlmann describes, there is one, familiar to the readers of Stanley's latest books, who stands out pre-eminent, Uledi, the Zanzibari porter. He accompanied the great explorer in his last two expeditions across the continent, during which, according to Stanley, "on thirteen occasions he saved human life," and "at the call of duty he was ever the foremost." Of this expedition he was also the mainstay, the one always to be relied upon in times of difficulty and danger. Tactful and kindly in dealing with his fellows, ignorant of fear, "the faithful Uledi," as Stanley calls him, "the admirable (*trefflich*)" in Dr. Stuhlmann's parting term, is probably the very flower of his race.

Mention has already been made of the numerous illustrations by which the value of this work is greatly enhanced. Among them are copies of photographs of scenery and the vegetation, especially of the forest, and excellent portraits of the leaders and some of the more noted natives, as Uledi and the murderer of the Pasha. There are also two admirable maps, one showing the route, the other, ethnographical, showing not only the present dwelling-places of the various races, but their lines of migration, with insets indicating the geology, the comparative density of population, and the agriculture of eastern equatorial Africa. In every respect of excellence in typography and general make-up, this splendid volume is an honor to the German Colonial Government which authorized and aided in its publication. Their policy of giving to the world in such a perfect form the results of the labors of their officials is one which it would be well for England more frequently to imitate.

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*Cock Lane and Common Sense.* By Andrew Lang. Longmans, Green & Co. 1894. xvi, 357 pp., 8vo.

Under "Cock Lane" in this title Mr. Lang refers to what are ordinarily termed "spiritualistic manifestations," ghosts, telepathy, *et id omne genus;* and under "common sense" he seems to include everything ranging from flippant scepticism to philosophical caution in accepting results which appear to violate recognized physical laws. In the preface he avows that he is not conscious of any bias in favor of common sense—a statement which is fully upheld by the subsequent text. The innocent reader, misled by the ostensible seriousness of the preface, will be apt to suppose that the collection of clever essays which follows is intended to be taken seriously. Occasionally it would seem as if Mr. Lang was sufficiently carried away by his subject to be momentarily serious in spite of the adroitly veiled sarcasm which characterizes the bulk of the book, and which soon convinces the careful reader that the author is quietly laughing in his sleeve at the absurdities which he chronicles and discusses.

The book is neither an advocate of the reality of the marvellous nor a consolation for the sceptic. Scientific treatment is explicitly disavowed at the outset, with the implication that, as an amateur, the author's opinion on such points is "of less than no value." But he does not hesitate to characterize modern spiritualism as "for the most part an organized and fraudulent copy of the old popular phenomena, with a few cheap and vulgar variations on the theme." On the other hand, he frequently pauses to deprecate the unwillingness of people who have "a bias in favor of common sense" to spend their time investigating matters which, in their nature, are incapable of exact analysis, and of which the outcome would leave both parties thinking as before. Absolutely destitute of any scientific spirit, the book has spirits of other sorts in abundance whose pranks are amusingly detailed. After a lengthy introduction follow chapters on Savage and on Ancient Spiritualism; Comparative Psychical Research; Haunted Houses; Cock Lane; Apparitions, Ghosts, and Hallucinations; Crystal Gazing; Second Sight; Ghosts before the Law; A Modern Trial for Witchcraft; Presbyterian Ghost Hunters; The Logic of Table-turning; and the Ghost Theory of the Origin of Religions. Lovers of the marvellous, which includes practically all mankind, will find here plenty of it, not obtrusively discredited. The anthropologist may gather items for his studies, the sceptic may enjoy the evidences of the weakness of the human intellect and the perennial credulity of the multitude; he alone who seeks for the author's conclusions will be disappointed. When all is said and done, like the balls of the Indian juggler, behold! they have vanished into the blue above.

There is no index, which is to be regretted, for the text is a mine of disconnected facts difficult to refer to. Four of the essays in the main have been previously printed, but have been recast and extended for the present volume.

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*Romantic Professions, and Other Papers.* By W. P. James. Macmillan & Co.

Mr. James's volume assures us that speculation on unconsidered trifles is not a wholly idle exercise and that it is even a source of pleasure and profit, if only the trifles be judiciously selected. Almost every one has noticed the limitations of profession and occupation prescribed for the hero of romance; the fitness or unfitness between names and characters in novels; the insistence on youth as a requisite for exciting romantic interest; but few have stopped to inquire into the justice of accepted premises, or to look about for a possible philosophical basis. Mr. James does both, in a desultory fashion, without much attention to sequence of ideas and with no pretension to subtlety, yet with enough originality and fulness of illustrative reference to give his apparently frivolous themes an air of considerable gravity and importance. Here and there he ventures a declaration of literary faith, and a collocation of his stray dicta makes a wholesome creed, perfectly intelligible to simple souls wandering benighted in the fog of professional declamation about the meaning and mystery and mission of art. In the paper entitled "The Nemesis of Sentimentalism,"

which is really a criticism of Flaubert's 'Mme. Bovary,' and, with the exception of Mr. Henry James's, the best that we know in English, he takes occasion to say, apropos of Flaubert's careful observation of life:

"Art, ideal as it necessarily is, cannot do without observation, but its kingdom cometh not with observation alone. It penetrates to the spirit and reveals the significance of the things observed. 'Mme. Bovary' is art by its intensity of vision, by its inevitableness, by its style."

Then, in reference to a wholly irrelevant incident in 'Anna Karénina,' much commended by Matthew Arnold as a piece of life itself, Mr. James utters what ought to be a self-evident proposition, but unfortunately is not:

"Between life and a book there must always remain a great gulf fixed. To merely copy in art the apparently meaningless, anomalous, or unintelligible things of life, on the plea that such things do actually exist, is to mistake the whole aim and scope of art."

Equally mistaken is literal transcription of the dulness and humdrum of life, and we could wish that our host of aspiring realistic novelists would take to heart Mr. James's remarks thereon. His occasional thrusts at anatomy and physiology in fiction are also creditable to his feeling for art and his common sense. On the unimportance of accuracy in historical novels when compared with interesting story and dramatic passion (that is, in behalf of Scott and Dumas), he speaks with a courage that nowadays is quite foolhardy, and we share his melancholy foreseeing of the time when "we shall all eat of the tree of knowledge, and be as professors of history, knowing fact from fancy."

For form and clever tossing of thought, the last paper, "The Great Work," is the best. Mr. James is demonstrating that no urging from without ever makes a man produce a *magnum opus*, but, on the contrary, frequently hinders him from doing the good work easily within his scope. As a final instance he cites 'Amiel' in a passage worth quoting because it is spoken in flagrant contempt of many outpourings of refined literary sentiment:

"The typical martyr was the unhappy Amiel. Had not his friends insisted upon his regarding himself as a genius, he might have lived a prosperous life as a Swiss gentleman and father of a family, doing his duty in that state of life in which it had pleased God to call him as a lecturer to ladies. But once he got into his head that he was a genius from whom great things were expected, his life thenceforth was the life of the impotent man longing, yet powerless, to struggle down into the troubled waters of literary production into which others continually plunged before his eyes. So he maundered into a *journal intime*. When people talk of the slavery of journalism, at least let it be confessed that it is better to be the slave of any respectable public journal than the slave of a *journal intime*."

This is not all Gospel truth, but may well give the undiscriminating adorers of Amiel pause.

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*Studies in Oriental Social Life*, and Gleams from the East on the Sacred Page. By H. Clay Trumbull. Philadelphia: John D. Wattles & Co. 1894.

In reading Mr. Trumbull's studies in Oriental life we are reminded of restorers of antiques at Rome. Some of these artists are well-nigh creators or resurrectionists. Give them a well-preserved Roman nose, and, under their manipulation, it will swell up into the fair proportions of a classic bust or even statue. Some years before the British occupation of Egypt in 1881, Mr. Trumbull spent a week in Jerusalem, and a little time north of that city, with perhaps a month in journeying thither from Alexandria by way of Mount Sinai. These weeks in sacred lands have given birth at last to an octavo almost too ponderous to be accepted as mailable matter. The genesis and exodus of the work are noteworthy.

Certain phases of life as Mr. Trumbull saw them on his brief tour gave direction to his after reading, both sacred and secular. Much of the Bible seemed to him either illustrated by his observations in the transient pilgrimage or illustrative of them. More than seven hundred texts of this sort, scattered through fifty-two books, are referred to in his text, and are marshalled in an index of fifteen columns. Then, at least fifty-two other volumes are cited as authorities, though often, as it happens, for proving what nobody disputes, or what nobody cares to see proved. Readers will feel that the secret of being dull is to say everything, and that twice.

One of Mr. Trumbull's chapters is "Hospitality in the East." The only provocation for this dissertation of seventy pages was a cup of coffee given him near Jezreel by a sheikh whose "house of hair" he passed by, and for which no payment, as he supposed, would have been accepted. In most cases of this sort, while chiefs would disdain personal remuneration as Elijah did the silver of Naaman, their underling Gehazis are ready to grasp, or even demand, such returns; and, so far from being cursed, like Gehazi, find their masters eager for a share of their gains. In the outset Mr. Trumbull declared that "in the East hospitality has a preëminence in its obligations and in its significance not recognized to the same extent elsewhere in the world." But the latter end of his treatise on hospitality forgets its beginning. The virtue at first claimed as the exclusive prerogative of Orientals shows itself as Occidental also. It appears "in its highest form—as superior to the demands of personal vengeance or of religious prejudices—in the traditions of the Irish people" (p. 122), and in Tripoli (p. 118). More than this; besides that the duty of hospitality was a religious obligation among the Romans, to whom we owe the word itself, we are told that "its claims among the American Indians are recognized in much the same manner as among the Orientals" (p. 138). Mr. Trumbull's philosophy would make hospitality a matter of longitude; his facts show that it marks a certain stage of culture, or, according to his quotation from Bruce, "that it is the virtue of barbarians, who are hospitable in the ratio that they are barbarous," etc. The sheikh who prepared coffee for Mr. Trumbull, having come from beyond Jordan, had probably never before encountered a Yankee party, and was impelled by a natural curiosity to make the most of the interview. His cordiality seemed the greater to Mr. Trumbull, who was ready to believe his sentimental ideal of hospitality realized. But one wonders how such an ideal could have survived certain shocks to which it was subjected. Thus, our traveller had a written contract with his dragoman in which it was agreed that a certain sum should pay all expenses, including every variety of gratuity to everybody. But we find the dragoman, who was wealthy, begging a baksheesh, and that in the shape of Mr. Trumbull's valise. When promised that such a gift should be sent him from America, the beggar, through a go-between, made it known that he would much prefer the value of the valise in hard cash at once. When this sum was paid him, he still begged that an additional baksheesh might be sent him from America. What spirit of hospitality can coexist with such meanness? A hundred Oriental wayfarers have been assailed by extortioners importunate for more than they had agreed to receive, where a single one has tasted a hospitality amounting to so much as a cigar—a gift not unknown from the entirest stranger among Occidentals. *Experto crede Roberto.*

Mr. Trumbull gives us a taste of his quality as a Biblical critic in his remarks on the spoiling of the Egyptians by the Israelites when those slaves left their masters. In his judgment the gold and silver thus obtained (which sufficed, among other uses, for casting the golden calf, and also adorning the Tabernacle till it might be termed a golden house) should be deemed analogous to the tips that are paid to Pullman porters, or the baksheesh which he paid his Oriental servitors—"tokens of friendship and proofs of faithful service." Mr. Trumbull tells us that during our great war he was a prisoner at the South, and he may himself have known Old Shady, who sings, "Good-bye, Massa Davis, good-bye, Massa Stevens, 'scuse dis nigger for takin' his leavins'"; but did he ever hear of a dusky runaway who added insult to injury by appealing to his master to defray the expenses of his journey North? Throughout, our author, while his faith in miracles is strong, is full of theories which make them appear superfluous, and which seem more improbable than the miracles themselves. His make of mind appears to be that of those post-Homeric poets who on the one hand tell us that Achilles, by being dipped in the Styx, became invulnerable, and on the other never let him show himself on the battle-field till he is clad all over in armor of proof.

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*Congregationalists in America:* A Popular History of their Origin, Belief, Polity, Growth, and Work. By Rev. Albert E. Dunning, D.D. Special Chapters by Rev. Joseph E. Roy, D.D., on Congregational Work and Progress in the West and Northwest; Rev. Francis E. Clark, D.D., on Congregationalists and their Young People; Rev. Howard A. Bridgman, on Congregational Literature; and Rev. Alonzo H. Quint, D.D., on Ecclesiastical Councils. Introductions by Rev. Richard S. Storrs, D.D., LL.D., and Major-General Oliver O. Howard, LL.D. New York: J. A. Hill & Co. [1894.] Pp. 552.

This lengthy title indicates the character of the volume under review. It is designed to present the story of the religious body of which it treats to the general reading public, and especially to the members of the denomination from which it takes its title, rather than to students of New England history. In furtherance of this popular intent it has aimed to secure the weight of names honored for one cause or another in the communion to which it distinctly appeals, by its double introductions and supplementary chapters; but the essential portion of the volume is the work of the Rev. A. E. Dunning, editor of the Boston *Congregationalist*. In his chapters the principal writer has told the story of American Congregationalism in a pleasant way that will make the work not without value to the average intelligent reader for whom it is designed; and as Dr. Dunning seems more at home as he approaches his own age, his chapters grow in strength and worth as the volume advances.

It could be wished, however, in spite of the principal author's declaration that he has "not allowed" himself "to take the space or to burden the pages with references in detail to authori-

ties," that he had made greater acknowledgment than a mere mention of their names and works in a "List of Authorities" of his indebtedness to other writers on New England and Congregational history whose ideas and language he has liberally reproduced. Nor is the work without evidence of careless writing and proof-reading, as illustrated, for instance, in the citation of a 'History of Connecticut' by "J. Hammond Trumbull" (instead of Benjamin Trumbull) in the "List of Authorities"; in the statement that the much-discussed ballot at the choice of Higginson and Skelton at Salem in 1629 was a "printed ballot" (p. 104); the implication (p. 156) that the New Haven Church and court were formed in 1638 instead of 1639; the assignment of Gilbert Tennent's farewell sermon at Boston to 1841, and of the opening of Andover Seminary to 1708 (pp. 251, 387, doubtless slips of the proof-reader); the declaration that "the first treatise against Trinitarian doctrines written by an American was published" in 1803 (p. 290); the transfer of the name of the Baptist divine, George Dana Boardman, to the *emeritus* theological professor of Chicago Seminary, George Nye Boardman (p. 389); or the representation that Horace Bushnell was an occupant of "the pulpit of the First Church, Hartford, Conn." (p. 395)—a church that always opposed Bushnell during his active ministry.

More important, but none the less open to serious criticism, are the statements that the "Great Awakening" with which the names of Whitefield and Edwards are associated, "may almost be said to have created in this country those nobler sentiments of humanity, one fruit of which, after a century, was the overthrow of slavery" (p. 261); and that "a candid study of the early history of New England can lead to no other conclusion than this, that the most powerful motive in originating the war of independence was a religious motive" (p. 265). It could also be wished that an apparent desire to avoid controverted problems had not led Dr. Dunning to speak with uncertain voice on such questions as the circumstances of the formation of the Salem church, the extent of the indebtedness of the New England Puritans to the Pilgrims for their ecclesiastical polity, or the witchcraft excitement, and also designedly to omit any consideration of that which has been most interesting in the modern history of Congregationalism—the debates which have turmoiled the sessions of the "American Board" and perplexed the authorities of Andover Seminary.

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*A System of Legal Medicine.* By Allan McLane Hamilton, M.D., and Lawrence Godkin. Illustrated. Volume I., pp. 657. New York: E. B. Treat. 1894.

Law touches the profession of physic in almost every phase, so that the individual, from the rôle of murderer or victim to the other end of the scale as the client of an insurance company, falls within the range of the newer science known as legal medicine. As law has the organized machinery of society at its disposal, and as medicine is chiefly occupied with individuals in their personal relations, the former moulds the action of the latter when they come together, except on the rare occasions when the facts of the laboratory withstand the theories of the bench. But, after all, the bench usually wins, and it is less a conflict than a rivalry of methods in attaining the truth. The literature of medical jurisprudence is voluminous. The most valuable part is within the present century, and the bulk of it is of Continental origin. The earlier details are more curious than edifying, for the law no longer takes cognizance of witches, and the science of the past becomes obsolete under the advance of exact methods of investigation. For the purposes of our own people the bearing of the principles of medicine and of natural science upon the law, and especially upon statute law, or, more correctly, the coloring that the law applies to them, must be of British and American origin. The first modern work of importance was the 'Questiones Medico-legales' of Zacchia (1621), followed by more than a score of German works, beginning with Alberti Halle (1739) in the next, and by twice as many in the nineteenth century. The French gave out two dozen, the European peninsulas as many more, and the outlying countries another dozen. These figures refer only to works of importance in this century. The leaders on the Continent were Louis, Orfila, Casper, and Tardieu. Ogston, Tidy, Guy, Christison, and Taylor were the British authors; the 'Manual' of the latter running for forty years from 1844 through numerous editions, and being very popular with American students. At home, Beck, Reese, and Wharton, and Stillé in the general subject, and the unrivalled Wormley in the micro-chemistry of poisons, have held the field. Each of these books was the product of one or, at the most, of two minds. For those who read Japanese, 'Saiban Igaku Teiko' (Tokio, 1822) is interesting as showing the relations of the two sciences in the Empire of the Rising Sun while it was yet free from Western, except Dutch, influence.

The 'System' under review is the result of collaboration, often employed in general medicine, but not previously in this specialty, and the coworkers are of both professions. Naturally, perhaps necessarily, some of the topics overlap. The material presented is so enormous that it is impossible to discuss it in detail. Of the essays proper, that on the "Identity of the Living" is probably the least satisfactory. The long essays on death and on homicide and wounds by Dr. Francis A. Harris and Dr. Lewis Balch are the most important in connection with the ordinary demands of a coroner and of a criminal jury; and in the former of these the method of reconstructing an unknown victim from certain dismembered fragments is curious and useful. Some of the other essays are of great value, notably that by Prof. Babcock on "Blood and Other Stains." We are glad to see it laid down that the most that can be established in relation to the measurement of blood corpuscles is that the stains are of mammalian blood, the diameters are consistent with human blood, and that they may be other blood. Prof. Vaughan's experiments demolishing the trustworthiness of Dragendorff's method for the determination of morphia in the liver and other organs are here published for the first time (we believe) in a text-book. The color tests for morphine, in the absence of its crystals, it appears, cannot be depended upon in the presence of putrefactive indol where tissue decomposing in the absence of oxygen is examined. Vaughan has also independently discovered the possible escape of arsenic as gas, an observation made long ago by Hünefeld, but not practically developed.

Here and there reference is made to left-handedness in the probable assailant; but in the stress properly laid upon careful observation of the body and of the other inanimate surroundings, this particular indication might be more emphasized. Because so few people are left-handed, a very good clue is afforded when a sinistral sign is discovered. It once occurred to the writer to express the opinion that a fatal blow over the eye had been made by a moderately obtuse weapon of small size probably wielded by a left-handed man. Subsequently it appeared that the man who had the best opportunity to offer the violence was left-handed, and was in the habit of carrying his pistol by the barrel, and of making back-handed blows with it. There was little moral doubt that the murder was committed by this man striking the other a lateral blow with the hammer of his pistol as he walked with him on his right. The medico-legal aspects of self-cocking pistols, by the way, are overlooked. A man's body was found lying on the back in bed with a pistol wound behind the right ear, and a self-cocking revolver, with two chambers exploded, firmly grasped in the right hand, which was extended along the right thigh. The second bullet was found in the ceiling a trifle to the front of a vertical line from the centre of the body. It was a question whether the bullet in the ceiling was a trial shot, or whether it was due to pressure on the trigger as the arm was extended automatically. It probably was the latter, but had a second person been in the line of fire it might be thought that there was murder as well as suicide. Numerous variations of this complication are possible.

Dr. Harris believes that cadaveric spasm occurs, and cites Ogston as having witnessed eleven cases. There is no question as to its occurrence, and death by gunshot is its most common antecedent. Doubtless every active campaign furnishes illustrations. Near Bristoe Station, Hooker drove back Stonewall Jackson August 26, 1862, in a sharp fight (that plays no part in Jackson's invariable victories), and the next day in a small grove a number of Confederate riflemen were still to be seen in the picturesque attitudes of firing in different postures as death overtook them. Groups of such subjects are not common, but they have occurred.

The short but interesting essay of the legal editor cites with approval the Leeds method of doing away with the scandal of medical experts appearing for or against a prisoner. By it all the medical witnesses freely confer with each other before the trial; and thus the whole truth comes out, usually without cross-examination and always without the suspicion of prejudice. As he properly remarks, this method requires a high degree of intelligence and honor in the witnesses themselves, but it certainly is an attainable standard.

In one or two of the articles, notably by members of the bar, there is a levity of style hardly compatible with so serious a subject; and among the medical writers the somewhat common error of the factitious *calvarium* (which also has crept without authority into a standard dictionary) for *calvaria* (fem. sing.) should have been corrected by the editor, if not by the proof-reader.

This great volume might be the basis of almost endless comment, but there are limits we may not pass, and then we are deprived of the assistance of an index, which will probably be supplied in the second volume, though, where the bulk is so great, we think a separate index should have been furnished, even if it had to be repeated in the general.

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*The Lover's Lexicon.* By Frederick Greenwood. Macmillan & Co.

No benefactors of the human race have commanded so little love as the makers of diction-

aries. In the present, when a dictionary represents the work of scores of scholars, they, of course, cannot be loved any more than another soulless corporation; but in the past, who among us ever cast a crumb of affection to Johnson, or Larousse, or Noah Webster, because of their years of patient toil in our behalf? When we consider the dreadful doubts that have been set at rest, the angry passions that have been soothed, the apparently interminable discussions that have been cut short by recourse to dictionaries, such indifference to their makers is an appalling example of thankless ingratitude. The only exception to this universal heartlessness we can think of is found in Boston, where Worcester occasionally excites a sentiment akin to worship when he happens to give a Bostonian pronunciation without the fatal abbreviation *Amer.* If we have not emphasized the rarity of a dictionary which compels love for the author, the foregoing remarks may be taken as a wanton slander on our kind, and the connection with 'The Lover's Lexicon' will be completely missed. The qualities that make us love any man through his book are tenderness, generosity, and kindly humor, and the constant though not obtrusive presence of that wisdom which is born partly of experience, but more largely of intuitive perception of the secrets of the heart. Such gracious presences flit about and fill the pages of 'The Lover's Lexicon,' and it is the *embarras de richesses* only which prevents our making the assertion good by quotations. On the title-page Mr. Greenwood enumerates the classes to whom his "hand-book" is particularly addressed, and to these we add, all lovers of good literature, all who would fain forget for a while our natural depravity, and linger willingly on our less conspicuous inheritance of faithfulness, tenderness, naïveté, and even innocent absurdity.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bangs, J. K. The Water Ghost, and Others. Harpers. $1.25.
Crockett, S. R. Mad Sir Uchtred of the Hill. Macmillan. $1.25.
Dumas, A. The Conspirators. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Evetts, B. T. A. New Light on the Bible and the Holy Land. Cassell. $3.
Following the Star. Philadelphia: American Sunday School Union. 90 cents.
General Catalogue of Bowdoin College, including an Historical Sketch of the Institution during its First Century. Boston: W. B. Clarke & Co. $1.
Hawthorne, Hildegarde. The Fairest of the Fair. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus. $1.25.
Hunt, E. Geometry for Grammar Schools. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Hunt, Violet. The Maiden's Progress: A Novel in Dialogue. Harpers. $1.
Janvier, T. A. In Old New York. Harpers. $1.75.
Jones, Sarah J. Godfrey Brenz. Philadelphia: American Sunday School Union. 80 cents.
Kendall, May. Songs from Dreamland. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Létang, Louis. Le Roi s'ennuie. Paris: Calmann Lévy.
McClelland, M. G. The Old Post-Road. Merriam Co.
McVickar, H. G. The Purple Light of Love. Appletons.
Munroe-Ferguson, V. Music Hath Charms. Harpers.
Oriental Studies: Papers Read before the Oriental Club of Philadelphia. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.
Piatt, Sarah. Poems. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
Pool, Miss Maria L. Out of Step. Harpers. $1.25.
Rollins, F. W. Break o' Day Tales. Boston: Joseph Knight Co. 75 cents.
Rowsell, Mary C. The Friend of the People. 3 vols. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Scovil, Elizabeth R. The Care of Children. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus.
Sharpe, R. R. London and the Kingdom. Vol. I. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
The *Overland Monthly*, January—June, 1894. San Francisco: *Overland Monthly* Publishing Co.
The Silver Christ. By Ouida. Macmillan. $1.25.
Tomlinson, E. T. The Search for Andrew Field. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Unwin, Prof. W. C. The Development and Transmission of Power from Central Stations. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
Younghusband, Capt. G. J. On Short Leave to Japan. London: Sampson Low & Co.
Woolcombe, W. G. Practical Work in General Physics. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Warden, Florence. A Perfect Fool. International News Co. 50 cents.
Warren, Prof. W. H. Engineering Construction in Iron, Steel and Timber. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.


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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 6, 1894.

## The Week.

THE Republicans are getting a great deal of comfort out of the President's letter to Congressman Catchings and Mr. Wilson's speech. Battered and breathless as they are under the blows they and their tariff have already received, they take great delight in pointing out the purpose of the insatiate Democrats to hit them again. They tell the Trusts and tricksters who managed to keep their tariff favors by grace of Gorman & Co., that there is no "finality" about the business, and no certainty at all that the swag will not be taken away from them next winter. This is really all there is to their cry that the country is to have no "peace." Neither the President nor Mr. Wilson proposes any general overhauling of the tariff. Mr. Cleveland urges only "such modifications as will more nearly meet Democratic hopes." Mr. Wilson foreshadows "not a general engagement, . . . but a steady and resistless pressure that will take one after another of the strongholds of privilege." There is nothing in that to alarm the country, or any person or business that deserves "peace." Do the Republicans want the Sugar Trust let alone? Do they think the people would be distracted and quit manufacturing and buying and selling if legislation were set on foot at Washington next winter to force that Trust to take its hands out of the Treasury? No one will believe that who observes with what popular enthusiasm the Democratic congressional conventions all over the country are taking up that issue. The President's letter has evidently given them, what they did not have before, a platform to stand on in this fall's elections.

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Everybody must see that there will be much greater ease and propriety in piecemeal tariff amendments next winter than ever before. The old system was one of a grand log-rolling "combine." This is what the Republicans have meant by their grave talk about interfering with the "system." Any particular duty might be an outrage and a fraud, but if it was a part of the "system," you must not touch it. In other words, if you took away one conspirator's booty, he would make a great row and insist on everybody else giving up his plunder too. But now the old "combine" has been hopelessly broken, the sugar bounty can no more lock arms with wool protected by 90 per cent. duties and the Steel-Rail Trust, and say, "Touch one of us and the whole partnership goes to pieces." The partnership *has* gone to pieces. With its own plunder taken away, it will not be in a condition to make an effective fight in behalf of some other man's plunder. There is, in fact, no reason why the excrescences of the new tariff should not be cut away one after another, with the general applause of the country, and without any of that terrible disturbance which the Republican organs now foresee. The only real disturbance is in the bosoms of the men who have bought their tariff favors as of yore, and who will not, we should think, feel any too grateful to the alarmed newspapers which are pointing them out as a shining mark for the tariff-reformer's aim.

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In insisting upon free raw materials as of the essence of tariff reform, President Cleveland stands not only for party honesty but for hard business sense. We are already beginning to see that free wool is going to do for woollen manufactures in this country what free raw silk has done for the silk manufacture and free hides for the boot and shoe industry. The woollen manufacturers are preparing for a better business than they have known in years, and are already setting up machinery for weaving grades of cloth which never before could be made in this country on account of the prohibitory duties on the wool necessary to make them. At the same time, the price of American wool is advancing—it has gone up from 10 to 30 per cent. in some lines within the past sixty days. This is the simple business fact which is too much for the arithmetic of those who dwell in the shadow of McKinley and Tom Reed. The latter's Portland organ does not deny that the price of American wool is advancing, but asks how that fact can be reconciled with the law of demand and supply. Bless the innocent hearts of these theorists, don't they know that American wool has not been treated all these years as a part of the "supply" at all? It has been regarded as a sort of national fetish, to be baled up tenderly, and spoken of only with a patriotic quaver in the voice, and kept from defiling contact with foreign wool; but as a component part of a manufactured product it has not been considered at all. But at last the woollen manufacturers have a tariff which is actually going to enable them to make woollen goods, and the demand for raw material at once springs up and the price of wool advances all over the world. The Ohio wool-growers are likely to put uglier questions than ever to McKinley this fall. It will take all the resources of his giant intellect to explain to them how it is that, while his increased duties knocked down the price of wool, free wool instantly means money in their pockets.

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Wanamaker leaves the Philadelphia public in no doubt as to his conviction that a tariff is a tax, and that the removal of duties lowers the prices of goods. For a number of days past he has been advertising the great "bargains" which he is enabled to offer by reason of the new law. On Tuesday, for example, he made such announcements as the following:

> "Everything that free-wool and tariff influences can do to put prices on a lower level has been much more than discounted in the handsome new dress stuffs that are crowding to the counters every day. This fifty-inch serge, for instance—black and navy blue, worth 50 cents by any measure of dress-goods value, never before heard of at less—the price is 37½ cents.
>
> "This all-wool camel's-hair serge—navy blue, black, brown, modes—only a little while ago we could barely meet the demand at 50 cents; the price is 25 cents."

The ex-postmaster-general's advertisements have attracted the attention of his former chief's home organ, and provoked an outburst of wrath. Mr. Harrison's spokesman, the editor of the Indianapolis *Journal*, even goes so far as to say:

> "In trying to make the public believe that these and other reductions named in the advertisements are due to the new tariff, Mr. Wanamaker, or his advertising agent, is guilty of disingenuousness amounting almost to lying."

But there is no occasion for anger. Even if the new tariff does make things cheaper, is it not true that "a cheap coat means a cheap man under the coat," and will not the American people rise in a body at the first opportunity against any party which thus threatens to cheapen humanity?

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The Treasury closed its August accounts with a balance of more than $8,000,000 on the right side for the month. Thus far in the fiscal year the receipts are $17,000,000 greater than a twelvemonth ago, and the expenditures $2,000,000 less. Nearly all the improvement has come from the swollen internal revenue. That will now slacken, but the customs receipts will, in their turn, bound upward, and the chances are that the Treasury will be able permanently to chase the wolf well down Pennsylvania Avenue. We think that the Treasury and the country during the past year and a half have got all the sweet uses out of adversity that they are likely to, and will not be hurt at all now by a reasonable amount of prosperity. The signs are now most flattering for a good fall business.

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The National Labor Commission closed its sessions at Chicago on August 30, after hearing more than a hundred witnesses,

although it will give anybody else who desires a hearing an opportunity to appear before it in Washington later. It can only make recommendations, and it is given out that it will most likely advise the creation of State boards of arbitration to settle differences between employers and employed. Apropos of this, it is interesting to note that Massachusetts has such a board, and that neither was it able to avert the present strikes in New Bedford and Fall River, nor does it seem capable of doing anything to hasten the end of the controversy, which it is disposed to leave to the operation of natural laws.

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It is evident that those who blame Mr. Pullman on account of the recent strike and the present condition of things are moved by their feelings, and not by their reasoning powers. That the Pullman Company was building cars at less than cost when the strike took place is not denied. It is admitted, too, that the strike was ordered not on account of any present reduction of wages, but on account of a refusal to advance wages to the rate of last year, although the company could not get back a new dollar for an old one in its present work. It is said that the company had a large reserve fund and a large income derived from sleeping-car service all over the country. If that is true, it might be an argument for raising the wages of the Pullman car porters and conductors. Senator Sherman indicated that in his opinion that was the right way to get rid of the surplus. No argument for raising wages in a non-paying business can be derived from the fact that some other branch of business carried on by the same company makes a profit. Mr. Pullman has no right to make gratuities of the money of his shareholders, who are largely widows, orphans, school-teachers, and other persons of slender means. These people are not seen in any of the present dissensions, and it is accordingly assumed that Mr. Pullman ought to distribute their money in a free-and-easy way, whereas a moment's reflection will show that he is a trustee and that he has no right to take an unbusinesslike step, and that in the nature of things he must be the judge of what is businesslike and what is not. The truth is, that the feeling against Mr. Pullman is mostly personal. He carries his head too high. He does not see some people even when they are directly in his way. A man may bestow all his goods to feed the poor, yet if he does not appear to take a personal interest in them they will be very likely to hate him, and will construe all doubtful points to his disadvantage.

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Despite the opposition of the congressional campaign committees of both parties, Republicans and Democrats in various districts continue to "fuse" with the Populists. The Republicans go into such combinations in the South, and the Democrats in the West. In the Ninth Texas District a fusion has already been arranged, and in Alabama the Republicans and Kolbites will vote together again for Congressmen in November, as they did for State officers early last month. In North Carolina the Republicans on Thursday decided, nearly six to one, for fusion, or "coöperation," as it is there called, with the Populists on the State ticket. The Democrats appear to be most thoroughly demoralized in Iowa, where they join with the Populists in several districts, and in one support Weaver, who was the Populist nominee for President in 1892. Happily there are signs that these combinations will generally be as great failures as the Kolb-Republican alliance in Alabama a few weeks ago. In most cases self-respecting Republicans and Democrats will content themselves with refusing to support the fusion candidate, but the Democrats in the district where Weaver is running are setting a good example by circulating and signing a paper announcing their open opposition, on the ground that Weaver is not a Democrat, and that his platform is directly opposed to Democratic principles. In view of the probability that the next House of Representatives will be close, it would be a terrible misfortune if the Populists should carry enough districts to hold the balance of power; and both Republicans and Democrats throughout the country should do everything in their power to encourage the decent members of their parties in standing out against "combines" wherever they are attempted.

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In several States the duty of electing a United States Senator next winter has led to peculiar developments. In Pennsylvania a fight is made against Cameron, and candidates for the Legislature are asked to pledge themselves against his return to Washington. Camden is the offensive personality in West Virginia, and the protest against his re-election has been so strong that his defeat is said to be already assured. No election of Senator is to be had in Maryland, yet Gorman has made himself so obnoxious to the decent elements of his party in that State that they are combining against his creatures in every way possible. If he were up for re-election, it is clear that distrust and hatred of him would prove a rallying-cry in the legislative canvass. In New Jersey the movement is not so pronounced, yet the feeling that the representation of the State should no longer be vested in the person of Senator McPherson is strong and widespread among respectable Democrats. McPherson is not openly a candidate, nor is Sewell on the Republican side. Yet the latter is as much disliked and dreaded by the better Republicans as McPherson is by the Democrats, and the result is a general desire in both parties to pledge their candidates for the Legislature against "unfit nominees for the United States Senate"—McPherson and Sewell being the men tacitly aimed at.

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The election in Arkansas on Monday was the first in which a certificate of the payment of a poll-tax was made a prerequisite to voting. "In consequence," says a despatch from Little Rock, "the negro was practically eliminated from the contest." But one trial of the system does not show how it will work always. In the three-cornered controversy this year the success of the Democrats was certain, and there was no inducement for either Republicans or Populists to pay the taxes of men who did not feel interest enough in the election to pay their dues themselves. It may be different when the time comes, as it doubtless will, that the whites of the State are pretty evenly divided. If a Mahone ever turns up in Arkansas with a campaign fund of $25,000 or $50,000, the negro vote will not be so thoroughly eliminated as it was on Monday. It may even happen, as it did in Virginia, that the poll-taxes of the blacks are more generally paid than those of the whites, and the Arkansas Democrats may finally feel constrained, as did those of Virginia after the rise of the Readjuster party, to repeal the tax law for the sake of their party.

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Mr. Levi P. Morton's letter addressed to the Republicans of New York is a very straightforward composition. It means just what it says, namely, that if he is nominated for the office of Governor he will accept the nomination, and if elected he will serve. If he is not nominated he will give his cheerful support to anybody who is nominated. That is certainly a safe position, and it does not involve any humiliation if some other candidate is nominated. Mr. Morton is not a great man and he does not pretend to be. He is a safe man, and he has a certain amount of strength in his own party which proceeds from the feeling that he was unjustly treated at the Minneapolis convention two years ago. Of course everybody is asking whether Platt is for Morton or for Fassett. Everybody knows that he is not for Choate, because he cannot control Choate. Probably he will be for Morton if, as the time for the convention approaches, Morton seems to have a preponderance of strength, or he will be for Fassett under like conditions.

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Secretary Morton of the Agricultural Department remains a surprise to the

professional politicians. Having advocated retrenchment during the canvass, he has been trying to enforce it ever since he entered the cabinet. The surest way of saving money which he saw was by shutting down on the absurd system of distributing seeds of the most common varieties of plants by the wholesale. The law provides for sending out only such as are "rare and uncommon to the country, or such as can be made more profitable by frequent changes from one part of our country to another"; and its obvious intent was to help the work of experiment in raising plants where they were not indigenous. Instead of this there has grown up a huge warehouse for the free distribution of ordinary seeds, which are sent by Congressmen "where they will do the most good" in making agricultural constituents friendly to them. Last year this branch of the department cost $140,000. This year Mr. Morton informed Congress that he could send out all the seeds which the law authorizes for $30,000. Congressmen were filled with indignation at this proposition to save more than $100,000; and, in their resentment, insisted upon marking up the appropriation higher than ever before, to $160,000. But the secretary would not give up. The act appropriated this sum "for the purchase, propagation, and distribution, *as required by law*, of valuable seeds, bulbs, trees, shrubs, vines, cuttings, and plants." Mr. Morton asked the attorney-general what this italicized clause means, and Mr. Olney replies that it undoubtedly refers to the earlier restriction of such purchases to "rare and uncommon seeds." So the secretary of agriculture at last wins his fight for economy.

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The bulletin published by the Census Office, now in charge of Mr. C. D. Wright, in relation to "farm and home-owners" and mortgage indebtedness in this country comes appropriately on the heels of the same Mr. Wright's article in the *Yale Review* showing the practical worthlessness of all such statistics. No one ought to scan these figures without at the same time having in his hand the great bulletin of Superintendent Porter, issued in 1891, in which he explained his method of operation. In brief, this was to collect neighborhood gossip and opinions of the oldest inhabitants as to how much people owed and what rate of interest they were paying. Doing this for 102 selected counties and averaging up the results for the whole country was Porter's idea of the way to make a census. He admitted that the probable error might be as high as 15 to 20 per cent., but maintained that, even so, his figures would be of incalculable value. The results given out in that year were easily shown to be simply grotesque, and while as much cannot confidently be said of the complete tabulations now gathered and summed up, it may be confidently said that they are to be accepted only with the greatest caution, and after independent testing. To set about lashing them into the support of party and theory, as the *Tribune* hastens to do, is to darken counsel by figures without knowledge.

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The Massachusetts Bureau of Labor Statistics has issued a report on the condition of the unemployed in that State based upon a thorough investigation during the past year. The results are rather disappointing. Interesting figures are presented giving the proportion of the unemployed by months during 1893, which show that more than 22 per cent. of those at work in the spring were without employment in September, when the worst effects of the depression were felt. The Citizens' Relief Committee in Boston disbursed $136,568 among this class last winter, the male applicants numbering 7,460, who had 22,284 others dependent upon them; and it is rather surprising to find that most of them were in the prime of life (only nineteen past seventy years of age), and had lived in the city many years. Despite the thousands in the cities who complain that they can get no work, the demand for agricultural labor has been in excess of the supply, and farmers have to employ intelligence offices to secure men at such good wages as $20 to $30 a month with board. Several methods of relieving the unemployed are discussed in the report, but little seems to be expected from the adoption of any of them. As the Massachusetts Bureau of Labor Statistics has always been the most intelligent in the country, it would appear reasonable to expect a contribution of positive value to the discussion of this problem, but the impression left by a reading of the report is that most of the people who are out of work are so shiftless and worthless that not much can be done for them.

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The particulars of the debate upon the "Miners' Eight-Hours Bill," which was recently defeated in the British House of Commons, show the enormous practical difficulties to be surmounted before any such measure can be successful. The advocates of the bill insisted that it should be made of universal application in coal-mining, upon the ground that if any exceptions were made, it would be impossible to enforce it. But the opponents of the bill contended that the conditions of mining were so different in different places, that the attempt to apply a uniform rule would result in the greatest inequality. In order to prevent the possibility of evading the prohibitions of the bill, it was so drawn as not to limit the work to forty-eight hours a week, or an average of eight hours a day, but to forbid working more than eight out of any twenty-four hours. Furthermore, the period of work was reckoned from the moment when the miner began his descent into the mine to the moment when he completed his ascent out of it, or from "bank to bank," in miners' parlance. It was shown that in many old mines the enforcing of this restriction would limit the time actually spent at the face of the seam to five hours or even less; under which conditions such mines could not be worked at all. The coal-miners of Durham and Northumberland took a vote among themselves upon the act, with the result that four-fifths of them were found to be opposed to it. Against such an opposition as this no government could enforce the proposed act except under martial law. Coal-miners are a rugged and stubborn class, and they have never been slow in fighting vigorously for what they have considered to be their rights. If the police should be called in to prevent them from earning their customary wages by working their customary time —which, by the way, averages only about 7½ hours at the face of the seam —a contest would take place that would put the theories of socialism to a very severe test.

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The French socialists have always found the peasant proprietors deaf to their wisest charming. In the cities, especially the manufacturing cities, it has been comparatively easy to get the landless and the houseless to agree to turning over all the property of other people to the state for common use; but the thick-headed agriculturist, with his feet on his own soil and his own roof over him, has not been able to see it in that light. His stubbornness on this point has at last forced a complete change in the socialistic plan of campaign so far as the country districts are concerned. In their future appeals to the peasant electorate the socialist orators are to pose as the most ardent defenders of the right of private property. Their fine collectivist theories are to be dropped for the sake of collecting a few votes. Such, at least, is the new programme, according to their eloquent leader, M. Jaurès. He says that there is to be an especial effort to win over the farming population to the socialist party, and that the burden of complaint will be, not that private property is robbery, but that taxes and trade combinations are ruining the farmer. It is not the peasant's labor which is spoliated like the artisan's, but the products of it, and good prices and low taxes will never come until the socialists obtain control of all the capital and manufacturing plants of the cities. The French farmers will scarcely be taken in by this.

### *A NEW ERA IN AMERICAN MANUFACTURING.*

THE old lady who crossed the equator with a nervous clutch on the ship's rail, to brace herself against the expected jar, was in a mental attitude not unlike that of some American manufacturers as the day drew near when the new tariff was to go into effect. They had been so often told that that day would mean ruin to them that they half expected to be ruined on August 28, no matter how prosperous the sea through which they had been sailing on August 27. But they have now got over the imaginary line without a bump, and it is not strange that they are beginning to think that all the evils which lie beyond may also prove imaginary.

Yet the transition is, after all, a momentous one, and it is not too much to say that many branches of manufacture in this country are entering upon a new era. The change in mental attitude alone is immense, and will be even more marked and telling as the days and months go by and demonstrate that goods can be made in this country without the gracious and supernatural intervention of McKinley. Of course, it will take time to break up among certain manufacturers the habit of lifting up their eyes unto Washington, whence cometh their help. But four years will accomplish wonders in this direction, and the leading organ of protection now reluctantly admits that no increase in duties can be had before 1898. In that period men will buy and sell and get gain. The present outlook is that they will do it on a large scale; but if they are able to do it on a small scale or on any scale at all, it must work a revolution in their inherited idea of the dependence of business prosperity upon high customs duties.

This revolution is already started, and is manifesting itself in striking ways. One way is the astonishing bursts of frankness on the part of manufacturers and trade journals. Truths which revenue reformers have been whispering in a corner, erstwhile protectionists are now proclaiming from the housetops. Here is a plain-spoken writer in the *Wool and Cotton Reporter* who tells the woollen manufacturers some homely truths to which reformers have in vain tried to get them to listen. He affirms that, though it is true that there have been a great many failures among woollen manufacturers during the past ten years, "nine-tenths of these failures would have occurred had the tariff been double what it was or is." The trouble is in the underling manufacturers themselves, he maintains, and not in their tariff stars. They are slack and behind the times in their business methods and mill equipment, and "want the laws of the country made so that they can make the greatest possible amount of money in the shortest possible time, and without any risk." This is the class of manufacturers who are "continually complaining and crying for more protection." They are the incompetent and lazy, who would naturally be driven to the wall in any business, to the great relief and profit of the competent and energetic; and yet they "cannot be forced out of the business as long as the Government protects them as it has done in the past."

Another manufacturer, taking up the question of ability to meet foreign competition under the new tariff, declares that "the old rattle-trap mills," filled with obsolete and worn-out machinery, cannot meet foreign competition or domestic either. On the other hand, mills "built to be operated," and equipped especially for some special lines of goods, under trained and scientific oversight, are on a paying basis and will continue there, no matter what the tariff rates. In line with this is the assertion of Rhode Island experts that some manufacturers in that State are able "to compete with Englishmen on their own terms." And a trade report on the New York woollen-goods market for the last week in August says that the buyers—of whom the market is "full"—are acting on the fact that "the supply for the spring season is to be drawn from domestic sources." This is due to the improved processes of manufacture and to a reduced cost of production, brought about by the hard times, and more than sufficient to overcome any tariff changes which have been made.

All this is a refreshing change from the doleful plaints of the alarmed manufacturers which we have heard in such a depressing chorus all these years. Equally refreshing is the good advice which trade journals are giving to the manufacturers within their special provinces. They are at last beginning to appeal to American inventiveness and pluck as the qualities which are going to enable us to meet our foreign enemies at the gates. The need of establishing technical schools is also wisely insisted upon, and the necessity of putting ourselves on a level with foreigners in the application of science to industry. Here has been the real superiority of the foreign manufacturer. An American manufacturer in straits has rushed madly off to Washington to get his duties doubled; the German has put a dozen more skilled chemists and Chemnitz graduates on his pay-roll, despatched polyglot drummers to all parts of the world to get orders, and thus been able to snap his fingers at our tariff.

That is the kind of thing that the American manufacturer will now have to do. He will have to conduct his business without the expense of a branch office in the ways and means committee-room. Instead of mortgaging his mill to defeat a tariff-reform Congressman, he will mortgage it, if necessary, to buy the newest machinery and latest patented devices and to employ superintendents who know their business. With free raw material he will not need to ask favors of anybody, or dread competition of any sort except the competition of superior skill. If the Yankee cannot hold his own in that particular, then all his boasting is vain. There is no doubt that he can, or that Mr. Gladstone is right in predicting the transference to this country of the industrial supremacy of the world, when once American inventiveness and practical skill and business talent are given a fair field and no favors.

### *OUR FOREIGN COPYRIGHT RELATIONS.*

THE recent proceedings in the German Parliament with a view to the abrogation of the copyright convention between that country and the United States again call public attention to the anomalous position occupied by our country in regard to literary property. It will be remembered that the Revised Statutes were amended by an act passed March 3, 1891, to go into effect July 1 of the same year, so as to grant a limited legal protection in the United States to the literary and artistic property of foreigners under certain alternative conditions. These conditions, set out in section 13 of the act, are to the effect that whatever advantages the new act insures shall apply to subjects of a foreign state only (*a*) when such nation permits to citizens of the United States the benefits of copyright on substantially the same basis as to its own citizens; or (*b*) "when such foreign state or nation is a party to an international agreement which provides for reciprocity in the grant of copyright, by the terms of which agreement the United States of America may at its pleasure become a party to such agreement."

It is difficult to construe this last clause. Evidently the framers of it had in mind the International Copyright Union and the inclusion of the United States therein. This union is founded on an international agreement for reciprocity of copyright, and, according to article 18 of that agreement, any country which within its own limits assures legal protection to the rights which are the objects of the convention, may be admitted to the union upon request; such accession implying adhesion to all the articles and admission to all the advantages of the treaty. But the second article of the convention stipulates that "the authors of any one country, or their assigns, enjoy for their works in all the other countries of the union, *whether such works are or are not published in one of these countries*, the rights which the respective laws now accord, or may in the future accord, to natives." It is clear, therefore, that the United States cannot subscribe

to the Berne treaty or become a party to the International Copyright Union so long as our law makes not only publication, but actual manufacture, within the United States, a condition to obtaining copyright; or that such adhesion to the treaty would have to be construed as nullifying the American-manufacture clause in the copyright act, so far as the authors of the countries now parties, or hereafter to become parties, to that treaty are concerned.

Just what was intended, therefore, by the insertion in section 13 of the copyright act of the words "at its pleasure," it is difficult to conceive, but apparently they were included upon a notion that the United States should be admitted to the Berne treaty upon the basis of the act of March 3, 1891; and for this view we have the authority of the Department of State in a letter addressed to the Swiss minister by Mr. William F. Wharton, acting secretary, who says:

> "It seems necessary to interpret them as signifying that the [international] agreement must admit of the adhesion of this government on the basis of the law in which they are found. In other words, the agreement can be said to permit the United States to become a party 'at its pleasure' only when such agreement admits of the adhesion of the United States, and extends to it the benefits of the conventional guarantees in return for the privileges which the present law affords."

That is to presuppose that the United States would be admitted into the international agreement to profit by the advantages offered by it, without being required to be bound by the stipulations binding upon the several other governments which are parties to the convention—an idea which proved futile.

The foreign governments interested contended, on the other hand, that, as the United States had been invited to join the Berne convention, and could at any time do so by signifying a desire to accept the articles of international agreement, the second condition expressed in article 13 of our copyright act was virtually complied with so far as the states within the International Copyright Union were concerned, and applications were made for the extension of the benefits of the act of March 3, 1891, upon this basis. But this interpretation was denied by the Department of State, whereupon France, Belgium, Great Britain, and Switzerland renewed application on the ground that the alternative stipulation contained in article 13 was fulfilled, because their respective laws already afforded to natives of the United States copyright upon substantially the same basis as to their own citizens. The Department of State having certified to the truth of this claim, after an examination of the copyright legislation of each country, President Harrison thereupon issued the first copyright proclamation, extending the application of the copyright law to the citizens of the above-named countries, including the British possessions, under date of July 1, 1891, the very day on which the copyright act went into effect. Upon similar grounds, a proclamation was published, also by President Harrison, in behalf of Italy, on October 31, 1892; and President Cleveland, by proclamations of May 8 and July 20, 1893, extended copyright protection to the citizens of Denmark and Portugal respectively. Negotiations were also entered into with Spain, but up to this time have not resulted in the promulgation of a proclamation.

Germany also had contended for a copyright proclamation on the ground of membership in the International Copyright Union, but this reason was declared insufficient. Neither was the alternative condition of section 13 of the copyright act satisfied; for while the laws in force in the German empire extend the protection of copyright to such works by foreigners as are issued by publishers in Germany, the statutes are declared applicable to the literary and artistic works of natives, whether published in Germany or elsewhere. Hence it was necessary to formulate a copyright treaty, which was signed at Washington, on January 15, and ratified on April 15, to go into effect on May 6, 1892—the first, and thus far the only, copyright treaty entered into by the United States. Article 1 of this convention provides that citizens of the United States shall enjoy in the German empire the protection of copyright as regards works of literature and art, and security against the illegal reproduction of photographs, on the same basis as such protection is accorded to subjects of the empire; while article 2 stipulates that in return the citizens of Germany shall be admitted to the benefits of the act of March 3, 1891. According to article 3, the treaty may be terminated at the end of three months after the day upon which either party thereto gives notice of withdrawal.

This treaty met with much opposition in Germany at the time of its proposal, on the ground that, under a show of reciprocity, the United States demanded a whole in exchange for a part. This complaint was not without foundation. The usual course has been to stipulate that the privileges guaranteed by a copyright convention shall not exceed in one country the rights secured by the laws of the other country to its own citizens. The benefits of our copyright act, however, were not offered in exchange for equivalent privileges to be secured to citizens of the United States under the laws of the German empire; but, upon the ground that under our laws foreigners could obtain copyright upon substantially the same basis as our own authors, we demanded that the same rights and privileges as were secured to the natives of Germany by its laws should be extended to our citizens. This was not an offer of equal exchange. The United States term of copyright, forty-two years, is one of the shortest in modern legislation, and the rights secured are saddled with such onerous burdens as simultaneous publication and remanufacture in the United States, while the statutes are clumsily framed and contradictory, and upon points of practical importance there is uncertainty, and consequent possibility of loss. The German statutes, on the other hand, are admirably drafted, the rights guaranteed are well defined and easily defended from trespass, and the term of protection extends thirty years beyond the life of the author, while no formalities are required except registration. It looked to Germans, therefore, not unreasonably, as if the United States had deliberately schemed to secure every possible advantage with the least return, and the demand of a double copyright-fee from foreigners seemed to accentuate our ungenerous spirit. The two years in which the treaty has been in force have served only to justify these objections, and to demonstrate that the sole advantage secured to Germans is protection to art works, maps, and musical publications, while it remains practically impossible to obtain protection for books, and they, together with whatever is published in German periodicals, are still free plunder for American literary pirates, who have not been exterminated.

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### *THE NEW ENGLISH TAXES.*

Now that the income tax has actually been imposed upon us, it may afford those who will be especially inconvenienced by it a modicum of consolation to contrast their condition with that of the corresponding social class in England. This class has been afflicted with an income tax since 1842, and, although the hope was formerly extended to it by successive chancellors of the exchequer that the revenues of the Government might increase so as to admit of the discontinuance of this tax, the rise of socialism has now extinguished this hope. Not only has the prospect of relief been cut off, but the present burdens have been materially increased by the revenue act which has lately gone into effect. In addition to the income tax, what are known as "death duties," or taxes levied upon accumulated property whenever there is a change of title by will or intestacy, are henceforth to be charged not only upon personalty but also upon real estate. These duties are progressive, and upon large estates so high as to indicate the adoption of a distinctly hostile policy against the great families of the English landed aristocracy. The taxes are therefore not so much a fiscal as a political measure, and it is from that point of view that we propose to look at them.

It is true that some claim has been made that "symmetry" required that

as taxes were levied upon the personal property of a decedent, his real property should also be mulcted. This argument ignores the fact that real property is subject to local taxation, or "rates," in England, from which personalty is exempt. It also ignores the principle of the distribution of the incidence of taxation. No economist will deny that if mortgages are effectively taxed, the rate of interest will be raised to borrowers upon the security of real estate, and that the value of real estate will experience a corresponding decline. It is still more evident that a direct tax upon real estate causes a diminution of its value. It does not increase productiveness, while it subtracts from income. The possessor of real estate upon which a tax is imposed which he did not anticipate when he came into possession, inevitably suffers an impairment of his revenue. But the steady decline in the price of wheat and other agricultural products has notoriously diminished the rent-rolls of the great families of England to an extent which has seriously embarrassed many of them, and this added burden will undoubtedly give the *coup de grâce* to not a few.

It is common for theorists upon taxation to speak of the acquisition of property by descent or will as something like a windfall, part of which, as in the case of treasure-trove, may be seized by the tax-gatherers. It is generally the case, as a matter of fact, that the death of an ordinary man is not a pecuniary blessing to his family, but a serious disaster; while in the case of families of wealth, although the title may be in a single individual, the property is regarded as a family possession. The death of the nominal owner, therefore, can seldom improve the circumstances of those for whom he provided; and it is beyond question that the Government, in exacting a tax upon the inheritance of the widow and orphans upon the death of the husband and father, generally deprives them of a part of that income of which they have previously enjoyed the possession though not the title.

The family ownership of property is peculiarly an institution of the English aristocracy. The great estates are all "settled" in such a way that the tenant in possession, after he has satisfied the charges upon the property for the benefit of the female members of the family and its younger sons, has but a moderate income left. The new law, however, allows no exemption on this account. There may be half-a-dozen changes of title in a generation, and should such an event occur—and it is far from unprecedented—the entire income of a large estate for that period would be confiscated by the Government. Taxation was carried to this extreme under the later Roman Empire, but it is doubtful if anything like it has been seen under any civilized government. The Duke of Devonshire, in a speech full of dignified pathos, not long since explained to his tenants and neighbors at Buxton that it would be impossible for his family henceforth to contribute as they had done to public improvements. With an honorable pride he declared that neither his predecessors nor himself had looked upon the revenues of their estates as a means of exclusive, or personal, or selfish gratification. He made it no boast, and claimed for it no merit, that he and they had not only regarded it a duty, but had found it a pleasure, to devote a large, and in some cases the largest, portion of this revenue to objects in which the tenants and the general public had an interest. But as the exactions of the Government upon his death would amount to from six to ten, possibly to twelve, years' net income from the property, it required no calculation to see that its maintenance upon the former principles ceased to be possible.

This result is admitted to be probable by all, although many upholders of the new taxes regard it as lamentable. Lord Farrer, in a very earnest, although very feeble, defence of the budget, deplores the divorce from the popular party of the great houses who for more than a century "have loved the people well." He adds:

> "Nor can any one travel through this beautiful England of ours without feeling how much of its beauty, of its charm, of all its inherited 'wealth of hall and bower,' of park and moor and field and forest, traversed by pleasant paths and open to enjoyment by the whole community, is due to the proper pride, the wealth, the taste, and the liberality of successive generations of noblemen and squires who have spent in adorning the country the means and efforts which in other countries have been devoted to seaside villas or to urban palaces. It will be an evil time for town-dwellers in England when Yorkshire and Sussex, Cumberland and Devonshire, are cut up into ten-acre villas or three-acre allotments."

Lord Farrer endeavors to console himself for the coming downfall of the great families by the reflection that rich men will buy and maintain the country-seats which these families will be compelled to relinquish. Doubtless this will be so; but the sentiment of loyalty cannot survive the change. The lands once owned by the nobility of France are all occupied and their castles tenanted; but a rich *bourgeoisie* is not an aristocracy.

## *RAILWAY STATISTICS.*

THE report of the statistics of railways for the year ending June 30, 1893, issued by the Interstate Commerce Commission, comes with a reasonable degree of promptness considering the delays and difficulties encountered by the statistician in getting uniform and complete reports from our rail carriers. 'Poor's Manual' for the year 1893 has also been recently issued. The manual and the supplement to the *Financial Chronicle* occupy fields of their own which the federal volume does not cover; nevertheless, the interstate figures are better for broad generalizations and for comparisons of States and of railways by groups: it is these general statements which are now under discussion.

The first table printed by the commission is very suggestive. Of course the need of railways is measured by the character and quantity of the traffic furnished, but, in estimating on this need, the proportion of miles to area and to population is also an important factor. We select representative States to show the varying conditions:

| | Number of miles of line per 100 square miles of territory. | Number of miles of line per 10,000 inhabitants | | Number of miles of line per 100 square miles of territory. | Number of miles of line per 10,000 inhabitants |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Mass..... | 26.4 | 8.9 | Nebr'ska | 7.2 | 49.2 |
| New York.. | 16.8 | 12.6 | Kansas.. | 10.8 | 58.7 |
| Penn..... | 20.6 | 16.6 | Wash't'n | 4.1 | 74.7 |
| Ohio..... | 20.5 | 21.5 | Califor'a | 3.0 | 37.2 |
| Illinois..... | 18.6 | 25.6 | Texas... | 3.5 | 38.7 |
| Minnesota.. | 7.4 | 43.8 | Alabama | 7.1 | 22.8 |
| Iowa..... | 15.3 | 41.8 | Georgia. | 8.3 | 25.3 |

The differences in the length of railroad to population are interesting. The Eastern States are apparently satisfied with a mileage but a fourth or a fifth of the number of miles built in our newer States in proportion to the number of people. Washington and Kansas are pre-eminent for this seeming overplus of railroad lines, though the former State does not rely exclusively upon agriculture. The farming States, again, are to be judged in part by the character of the crops—corn, for instance, justifying more miles of railway than cotton. Yet when allowance is made, the high figures for some of the Western States indicate a large railway mileage built for strategic purposes and in advance of the needs of the people. In time, of course, the ratio may become as low as at the East, yet the population of Kansas and Nebraska must double without any addition to the railway lines before an approach to that condition would be made. In part this difference is equalized by the facilities afforded and the cost of the railways of the two sections, the capitalization per mile at the East being double. The column of miles according to area being in inverse proportion—showing much less mileage at the West—reveals that the Western States are still sparsely populated, and have room for the people which the overbuilding of railways presupposes will come in the future.

Out of 1,890 railways in the United States, but 752 are independent companies—an increase of 40 over 1892. This brief statement shows how rapidly consolidation into systems is going on. Some good observers, indeed, believe that the problem of insufficient net earnings can be solved in no other way. A

fact looking in the same direction is that 42 companies have over 1,000 miles each, those 42 controlling 56 per cent. of all our railway mileage.

Though Congress in 1893 passed a law making automatic couplers and train-brakes obligatory after 1898, progress in equipping cars is slow, only 216,923 freight-cars out of a total of 1,013,307 being fitted with such couplers.

The total number of men employed in railway service on June 30, 1893, was 873,602. The annual increase in population is about 2.50 per cent.; the rate of increase in railway employment during the year was 6 per cent., while, if we count in the families, the percentage would be much larger. "Clearly," remarks the statistician, "there is no tendency as yet for the railway industry to lessen its claim on the laboring population of the country." Those employees figure out but a little over 5 per mile—a low average as compared with Europe, and one which speaks well for the efficiency of the American workman. The total railway capital reaches an enormous sum, which may be briefly stated thus:

| | Amount. | Per mile. |
|---|---|---|
| Common stocks | $3,982,009,602 | $28 184 |
| Preferred stocks | 686,925,816 | |
| Bonds | 4,504,383,162 | |
| Miscellaneous obligations | 410,474,647 | 31,545 |
| Income bonds | 248,132,730 | |
| Equipment trust notes | 62,699,282 | |
| Other debts | 611,610,171 | 3,692 |
| Total capital | $10,506,235,410 | 63,421 |

Of this total it appears that $1,563,022,233 of stocks and bonds were owned by the railways on June 30, 1893, an increase during the year of $171,565,180. $1,135,784,339 thereof were shares of stock; another indication of the tendency towards amalgamation in some form. It is of melancholy interest to note that nearly 15 per cent. of the above bonds and 61 per cent. of the above stocks received no return during that year.

The annual traffic per mile of railway shows a steady increase, whose average haul was 125 miles for freight and 24 miles for passengers. We hear so much of "through" business in these days that we are apt to forget until reminded by such small averages that the greater part of our railway traffic is "local," and is not carried very far. The average passenger journey is 15 miles in New England, 32 miles in Ohio, 38 miles in the South, 28 in the Northwest, 76 in Montana and Wyoming, 54 in Kansas, 50 in Texas, and 35 on the Pacific Slope. New England manages to crowd 61 passengers into each average train, while others must be content with 30 or 34, the average for the whole United States being 42. The average number of tons in a freight train is largest (238) for the Middle States, and smallest (121 and 137) for New England and Texas, the average for the United States being 184 tons. The relative economy of operation in different States and on different roads is thus shown. The percentage of operating expenses to revenue reveals a gradual increase, being 65.3 per cent. in 1888 and 67.8 per cent. in 1893. This steady encroachment of expenses on earnings is indicated in another way by the gradual decline in the average rate per ton-mile from 1 cent in 1888 to 8.7 mills in 1893—a small difference, but one productive of serious financial results when applied to so large an aggregate.

The record of accidents is humiliating. During the year, 2,727 employees and 299 passengers were killed, and 31,729 employees and 3,229 passengers were injured. Collisions, derailments, and accidents at stations account for the injuries and deaths of passengers. Employees were killed and injured principally by coupling cars and falling from trains, making a seriously large total. The transition period when the standard coupler is slowly coming into use is more destructive to switchmen than even the old link and pin. Train brakes when generally in use will also lessen the risks of employees. Compared with the ratio of safety in England, railroading in the United States is a venturesome employment, for safety to passengers and men is costly and railway incomes are limited.

## TOLSTOI ON PATRIOTISM.

PARIS, August 15, 1894.

A MOST singular sequel to the famous demonstrations at Cronstadt and at Paris which consecrated what is commonly called the Russian alliance, is to be found in a small book of 180 pages, which might be termed a pamphlet, by Count Leo Tolstoi. It bears the suggestive title of 'The Christian Spirit and Patriotism.' It appeared at first in some Russian review; I have it before me in an anonymous French translation. It has already created some sensation, as does everything coming from the pen of the celebrated author of 'War and Peace.' That extraordinary novel has for its theatre the Russian soil during its invasion by Napoleon and the "grande armée." When Tolstoi wrote it, he was not yet thoroughly imbued with the ideas which have found expression in his latest works; he had not yet discovered his "road to Damascus." Still, you can see in 'War and Peace' very peculiar views on the pretended art of war, on the value of strategical combinations, on the futility of the military plans of the best generals. Tolstoi speaks with many details of all the generals who had to resist the French invasion; he speaks also of Napoleon and his marshals—he makes them, in fact, live before us; but he evidently believes that war is a great game of chance, that the elements have as much to do as the men with its grand results. This theory is carried to its extreme in 'War and Peace'; it contains a part of the truth, but it is not the whole truth.

Tolstoi felt already, many years ago, a sort of contempt for military glory; this contempt was changed into horror when he became a reformer. The author of 'My Religion,' which is merely the religion of the Gospel, of what the first Huguenots in France called the "pur Évangile," has now become a systematic non-resistant, and in this quality he has declared war on war. This new state of mind explains his attitude on the question of the Russian alliance, for, in his opinion, this alliance is fraught with war. He begins his attack in these terms:

"The Russians and the French have known each other for centuries; sometimes they were on amicable terms, but more often, unfortunately, their Governments made them fight against each other. Suddenly happened this odd thing: because, two years ago, a French squadron came to Cronstadt, and its officers, having landed, ate and drank much, saying and hearing meanwhile lying and stupid words; and because, in 1893, a Russian squadron, in its turn, came to Toulon, and its officers, going to Paris, ate and drank much, hearing meanwhile words even more lying and foolish—for this double reason, this is what happened: not only the persons who had drunk and eaten and made speeches, but even those who had been present at these festivities, nay, all those who had not been present, but who had heard of them and read accounts of them—millions of Frenchmen and of Russians—began suddenly to think that they had quite a singular affection for each other, that all the Russians adored all the French, and that all the French adored all the Russians."

Tolstoi goes on in this vein; he gives extracts from articles published in the *Novoe Vremya* on the subject of the visit of the Russians to Paris. The reports of this interesting event given to the Russians were so detailed that the writers of the *Novoe Vremya* even gave to their readers the menus of the dinners offered to the Russian admiral and his companions. "They published also," he says, "the speeches which were pronounced; but the menus were more varied than the speeches." The same idea was expressed in a hundred forms: We love each other; our object is not war, it is not revenge. No, our object is peace; we wish to insure tranquillity to Europe. We love the Emperor and the Empress of Russia; we love also M. Carnot and Mme. Carnot. We love the army, we love the navy, but we also love peace. Many were the decorations exchanged, many the presents made to the Emperor of Russia, to Admiral Avelan, to his sailors; the milk of human kindness seemed to flow in everybody's veins. It is not difficult for Tolstoi to show that under the veil of this sudden mutual dramatic and sensational affection, there was in reality something which did not find an outward expression. The Russians and the French were animated not so much by affection as by a common sentiment of animosity; the name of Germany was never pronounced, but the thought of Germany, of the Triple Alliance, of the dangers which might arise for France in case this Triple Alliance ever became offensive instead of remaining defensive, the relief experienced in France since it was felt that the alliance of the three Emperors was for ever broken, and since the Emperor of Russia had manifestly shown that he would keep his hands free, make himself as strong as possible, and use eventually his increasing strength in favor of peace—all these sentiments, conscious in some, unconscious in many, contributed to give to the manifestations at Paris an importance which may be overrated, but which it is impossible to deny.

The general feeling among the people was a very simple feeling: "The Russians make us a visit; let us receive them well. We are no longer alone in Europe, as we have been since 1870; we have at last a friend." And nothing could be more spontaneous than the general decoration of the capital during the visit of Avelan. In the most humble streets, at the windows of the poorest people, you could see the French and the Russian flags together.

This genuine friendliness of the people had really something touching. It is only too easy for Tolstoi to point out many ridiculous incidents of the Russian visit; but there was in the manifestation of joy on the part of the population of Paris a chivalrous element which a man like him ought better to have perceived. The term chivalrous is perhaps too noble and too strong, but I find no other. In every Frenchman's thought the behavior of the Italians, who, with the memories of Solferino and Magenta fresh in their minds, boldly, one might say cynically, entered into the Triple Alliance, was strongly contrasted with the behavior of the Russians, who might reproach us with the useless war of the Crimea and the fall of Sebastopol, yet who would not, notwithstanding the most urgent entreaties, enter into any political alliance with our virtual enemies. The French, rightly or wrongly, credited the Russians with great magnanimity, and they wished not to appear insensible to it. I maintain, therefore, that there was something very unaffected, very spontaneous, very independent of charlatanism in the demonstrations of the French population on the arrival of the Russians.

Charlatanism, of course, in all such circumstances had fair play; the press especially found an admirable occasion for sensational articles and emotional demonstrations. The visit took place not very long after the Panama trial, when it had been found out that the press of Paris had more than its share in the plunder of the Panama Company, all under the name of "expenses of publicity." It therefore seized with great alacrity on Admiral Avelan and the Russians; it felt the need of a diversion; it became very emotional and patriotic. Patriotism was to do for it what Victor Hugo says of love:

"Et l'amour lui refait une virginité."

Admiral Avelan once appeared, in one of the fêtes, having on his right and on his left two gentlemen who had been somewhat prominent in the Panama affair. The admiral wears a beard with two points, and has, at a distance, a vague resemblance to Christ. A witty journalist, at the sight of Avelan with the two persons who were doing him the honors, said: "Look well at this, for no such thing has been seen since the days of Jesus."

Tolstoi compares the Russian demonstrations to the exhibitions sometimes given in certain mental epidemics: the whole affair seems to him a pathological case. This is a mere paradox, which does not deserve to be discussed. Tolstoi becomes more serious when he says that the protestations made in France as well as in Russia in the name of peace cover really projects and desires which are inconsistent with peace. Milliards of francs are spent in military preparations and millions of men are under arms in Europe. "The devil," says Tolstoi, "is the father of lies." He denounces as a lie this sudden affection of the Russians for the French, of the French for the Russians. He does not spare his own country:

"On the eve of the Turco-Russian war we witnessed a similar outburst. The Russians suddenly began to love I don't know which Slavic brethren. These Slavic brethren we had ignored for centuries, and really the Germans, the French, the English have always been and are even now infinitely nearer us than these Montenegrins and Serbs and Bulgarians. Then, also, we began to give fêtes and receptions which were magnified by these Aksakoffs and Katkoffs, who are justly looked upon in Paris as models of patriotism. Then, as now, there was talk of nothing else than of the love which the Russians suddenly felt for the Slavs of the Balkans. Then, exactly as it was yesterday in Paris, people met at Moscow, ate and drank and said foolish things, and felt moved with great sentiments, and spoke of unity and of peace; . . . and finally, Alexander II., who really did not want a war, consented to it. Hundreds and thousands of men died, and millions of men were reduced to a savage state and deprived of all Christian sentiments. Well, what took place in Toulon and in Paris, what is still going on under our eyes, leads evidently to an even more horrible carnage."

Tolstoi maintains that the people, the working population in all countries, is absolutely indifferent to political questions, which are the exclusive preoccupation of the governments. He maintains that patriotism is an artificial sentiment, fostered by these same governments, and which has no real foundation in the human heart, at least to-day in Europe. Patriotism seems to him the product of education, of literature, of journalism. "What," he says, "is called patriotism in our time is purely a disposition of mind perpetually kept up among the peoples by schools, religion, the venal press which works for the Government; it is also a temporary exaltation which the ruling classes excite by exceptional means in the class of people having the lowest moral and intellectual standard, and which is afterwards represented as the expression of the will of the whole people." "And what," he says again, "is this sublime sentiment which you teach the people? It is merely the preference given by each man to his own country compared to all other countries; it is perfectly well expressed in the German song, 'Deutschland, Deutschland über Alles.' You may replace the name of Germany with that of any other state, and you will have the complete formula of patriotism."

This attack on patriotism is really an attack on what the French call "chauvinism" and the English "Jingoism." It is followed by admirable pages on the Christian ideal of peace and universal brotherhood. It is impossible to read some of these pages without emotion. "Oh! how little would be necessary to deliver men from all the evils which stifle them if only they ceased to lie; if only they would not allow themselves to repeat the lie which is whispered in their ears; if they only told what they think and what they feel! . . . It is necessary that mankind should abandon the ancient public opinion, which has had its time, for the new public opinion. This change is as inevitable as the fall of the dead leaves in the spring." I am sadly afraid that the springtime Tolstoi dreams of is still very distant. The world is still in arms, and the struggle for life seems to become even more fierce.

## THE SEINE, THE MEUSE, AND THE MOSELLE.—I.

Berncastel am Mosel, August 14, 1894.

The basin of the upper Meuse lies between those of the Seine and the Moselle, like the dwindling territory of a little prince between the growing kingdoms of two powerful neighbors. First on one side, then on the other, one of its branches is lopped off, leaving now only a long slender trunk stream between the encroaching headwaters of its rivals. These changes are so manifest that they should not be recorded only in technical, scientific journals; they deserve the attention of a wider circle of readers, and particularly of those who, in travelling, enjoy looking into the significance and development of the landscape as they do into the sequence and meaning of historical events. To emphasize the story of the three rivers, I shall select the most manifest examples of the changes produced by their interaction, and tell first of the full-swinging meanders of the Seine and the Moselle, afterwards of the looser meanders of the upper Meuse, and finally of the reason for this contrast in the diversion of the Aire at Grandpré from the Meuse to the Seine by the Aisne, and in the diversion of the upper Moselle above Toul from the Meuse to the lower Moselle by a branch of the Meurthe. The rivers have of course been named with no regard whatever to these changes, which are only beginning to be recognized by geographers; but a glance at a good map will make the case plain enough.

The Seine from its middle basin to the sea is characterized by a remarkably sinuous course, which fully doubles the river distance from Paris to Havre over the length of a direct line between the two cities, and at the same time certainly adds wonderfully to the picturesqueness of its valley. The swinging curves of the river, and the sympathetic relation between the slope of the valley sides and the turn of the river curves, is one of the beauties of this part of France; but it is a beauty that the hurried traveller is not likely to see. Railroads seldom select fine points of view to guide their tracks, and the through lines from the Channel to Paris avoid the roundabout river course. Highways are much better in this respect; but better still is the combination of a bicycle on the roads and an occasional walk from the roads up the hillsides to outlooks that command the adjacent country. The roads are so good, the maps show the country, the roads, and the towns so well, the towns are so conveniently placed for stopping, their hotels are so sufficiently comfortable for the reasonable traveller, and the prospects on the way are so delightful, that an excursion from Havre to Paris in this manner is to be highly recommended.

For the sake of variety, the beginning of the journey may be made on the steamer that runs up the river with the racing tide from Havre to Rouen; and if fortunate in coming when the boat leaves Havre early in the morning, the traveller will have a long afternoon to continue his view on the wheel from the upper port. Duclair, at the apex of the first great northward bend below Rouen, is the proper place to disembark, about noon, because from the hill just east of the town so many features of river scenery are displayed. On ascending to the summit, the hill is seen to be merely the edge of a remarkably even upland in which the Seine has cut down its meandering valley. Broad vistas open across gently undulating fields, all at about the same level in whatever direction the eye turns, north of the Seine or south of it. Patches of woodland close the view; a few overtopping church spires point the sites of upland villages. The valley is strongly incised in the upland, its average depth being four hundred feet hereabouts. On either side of the north-bend of Duclair is seen a great south-bend, partly traceable by the course of the river itself, and easily recognized for a greater distance by the steep slopes of the valley with their white chalk quarries or their dark belts of trees on the outer side of the river curves. Between these south-bends and stretching towards the observer is a long sloping spur of the southern upland, projecting into the north-bend of Duclair, covered by the forest of Mauny on its higher southern part, but occupied by fields and villages where it gradually descends close to the level of the river at its northern end. Similar spurs from the northern upland project into the adjacent

south-bends, bearing the forests of Roumaire and of Jumièges on their shoulders, and slanting gently down to low fields and villages near their southern ends by the river. The high necks of the spurs are often narrower than their lower fields, which broaden into the river bends, so the northern and southern uplands are as it were dovetailed together for many miles up and down the winding Seine.

A marked feature of the district is the persistent manner in which the river swings on as long a curve as possible around the sloping spurs, throwing its current close under the steep bluff that descends from the opposite upland. This behavior so plainly suggests that the valley, steep on the concave slopes, descending gently on the convex spurs, has been cut down in the plateau by the river itself, that one wonders why earlier observers felt obliged to call on the agency of the sea to explain it. The river not only fills its curves, but it is expanding them by undercutting the steep bank and withdrawing from the sloping spurs; and of this fact, the view from Duclair offers a peculiarly interesting bit of evidence. Here coming down to the Seine by a narrow valley from the northeast is a little stream named Ste. Austreberte, like the village at its head ten miles away. Duclair lies at its mouth. Continuing in the same direction there is a dry valley for about three miles cutting obliquely across the next western spur, and thus isolating its southern part, which holds the forest of Jumièges, from the northern part which is crowned by the forest of the Trait. The local railway and the highway both follow the dry valley, thus making a short cut through the spur on the way from Duclair down to Caudebec. Now when you are on the ground, nothing can be plainer than that the Ste. Austrebert formerly ran on through this abandoned valley, mouthing at its further end in the next north-bend of the Seine near the village of Yainville; and further, that the change from that condition of things to the present has been caused by the lateral gnawing of the Seine, whereby it has expanded the Duclair north-bend and worked sideways into the neighboring channel of the Ste. Austreberte, then saying to the little stream, "Don't bother yourself about running further down your own valley, but come and join me here." It is one of the prettiest little examples of shifted streams that I have ever seen; and it illustrates perfectly the robust habit of the swinging Seine.

If you arrive early at Duclair and lose no time in going up the hill back of the town, you may, on descending, take your bicycle and run eastward past St. Martin and then southward by a not very good road, but passable, to Sahurs, at the southern end of the next eastward spur; there you may ferry over to La Bouille and lunch at a little café garden overlooking the river in that picturesque village. According to your rate of travel and your variety of objects, go on in the afternoon along the valley and see Rouen; or leave out the larger cities and cross over the narrow neck of the next spur by a zigzag road—pushing your bicycle up and coasting down—to Elbeuf and beyond as far as you choose. Don't go too far. Start early, take a good rest over the warmer hours at noon, and stop before dark, without too much perseverance in surely reaching the point you chose in the morning to stop in overnight. All the way up the valley, the Seine tells the same story, throwing its vigorous current close under the steep concave bluffs, and always edging away from the fields that descend so smoothly from the sloping spurs on the other side; not only filling its meanders, but enlarging them. The incident of the Ste. Austrebert is, however, not repeated by the Seine itself, although it is imminent in the case of the Epte, which enters from the north between Vernou and Bonnières. The highway on the north side of the valley between the little villages of Gasny and La Roche-Guyon crosses the narrowed neck of the spur now remaining between the river and its branch, and here the larger stream may some day cut through and take out the smaller one. The view down the two slopes to the Seine and the Epte from the sagging crest of this ridge-like neck is extremely suggestive of events to come. East of Paris, the detailed topographical maps show that the Marne has literally abstracted the Grand Morin below Meaux, thus indicating that the vigorous action of the trunk river is shared by this large upper branch.

Now crossing to the Moselle, it teaches the same lesson, but by another parable. This beautiful river leaves the open country of Lorraine and runs on its way to the Rhine in a deep and narrow valley between the plateaus of the Hunsrück on the southeast and the Eifel on the northwest. Like the lower Seine, its course here is most serpentine, and, like the Seine, it swings boldly round the outer curve of its meanders, leaving sloping spurs within the loops and cutting steep bluffs on the outside of its turns. Whether the Ste. Austrebert incident is here precisely repeated or not, I cannot say; but, curiously enough, the Moselle has played on itself the same trick that the Seine has played on the Ste. Austrebert. To see this well illustrated, it is best to go down below Trier and stop a day at the village of Mülheim or Lieser—or go on to the neighboring town of Berncastel if something more than village fare is desired. The river here runs with a strong steady current; in floods, it rises into the villages on its banks, and in some of the hotels you may see record of the height reached by the water above the first floor. To gain a view of the valley, go to Mülheim and walk southward for a mile or more up the road leading to Monzelfeld; you will there gain a height of five hundred feet over the river and the problem will be spread before you in a lovely picture. Something of the rolling uplands, several hundred feet above your station, may be seen both north and south; they hold out-of-the-way villages, and a primitive, hard-working, agricultural people, as I saw in crossing the Hunsrück to the Rhine. At about the level of our station, there is a very even and well cultivated platform, three or four miles broad, stretching up and down the course of the river; this marks a former valley plain, cut out of the rolling uplands by the Moselle before the land hereabouts was raised so high as it now stands. In consequence of a comparatively recent uplift of the region, the river has eroded its present deep and relatively narrow trench below its former valley plain; and the habit of meandering that was learned on the flat valley plain is still persisted in, thus producing the serpentine meanders for which the trench of the Moselle is famous; yet just below us the river runs for several miles on a tolerably direct course from west to east. One is always impressed, in looking at such a scene, with the immensity of time required for the river to cut the deep and narrow valley that it follows; it is seldom that a proper recognition is gained of the much greater immensity of time that was at an earlier period required to cut down and widen out the high level open valley plain, by which the rolling uplands on either side are broadly separated. Yet certainly a valley is narrow before it is wide; it must be young before it is mature. However long a time has elapsed during the erosion of the winding trench of the present Moselle in the uplifted land, a much greater time was needed for the erosion of the wider valley plain before the land was uplifted; but this only by the way.

The sweeping curves of the Moselle must be closely scanned. The Berncastel bend is full in sight and shows the broad river between the sloping spur on the north and the steep concave bluff on the south. Just as well as the Seine, the Moselle is cutting into the bluffs and leaving widened fields on the slope of the opposite spur. Here and there small lateral streams come down from the rolling uplands in steep-sided ravines, and these often guide the roads or paths that lead up to the villages on the high country. But in contrast with these narrow lateral ravines, the view before us shows two larger valleys joining the Moselle from the south, back of Mülheim, and two others coming from the north, back of the opposite village of Lieser. On looking closely, the two larger valleys back of Mülheim are seen to join at their heads, about two miles back from the river, forming a horse-shoe curve, open towards the Moselle and including an isolated hill within their circuit. The same is true of the two valleys back of Lieser. The curve of these horse-shoe valleys is the same as that prevailing in the meanders of the Moselle; the breadth of their floor is practically the same as that of the present river valley. Around the toe of each shoe, the concave bluffs of the enclosing hills are perfect matches of the concave bluffs that rise from the curves of the Moselle, even to the vineyards on the sunny slope around the northern shoe, and the forests on the shaded slope around the southern shoe. Inside of each shoe, the isolated hill descends gradually into the curve toward the encircling bluff, in proper river-made fashion. But along the horse-shoe valleys, there are now only small streams coming in from the back country; the floor of the valleys, about a hundred feet over present river level, is occupied by fertile fields, with close-packed villages here and there. Now is it not plain that the Moselle must have flowed around these horse-shoe curves, before it gained its present direct course between them? In that earlier time, it formed here a strong double loop, like a close-pressed letter S, but when the valley was cut down to within about a hundred feet of its present depth, the encroachments of the meanders at the ends of the S wore through its middle, and then the present straight course between Mülheim and Lieser was adopted. If further proof of this is wanted, it is found in the relative position of the horse-shoe valleys; the arm of the southern shoe being just opposite and in line with the west arm of the northern shoe.

It is curious that the guide-books of the region do not urge visitors to seek this delightful and impressive view, and explain to them a little of its meaning. Of course the ruined tower over Berncastel must be visited; the entrenchments of two centuries ago on the old valley plain above Traben are doubtless worth seeing; but why not give a due share of attention to the river ruins as well? They have been well known to geologists for years past; others like them are known elsewhere on the Moselle; but the traveller, even the intelligent traveller, runs past them blindfold. The recognition of these old river beds and bluffs—now fields and vineyards—adds wonderfully to the enjoyment of the region. As at Duclair on the Seine, so at Mülheim on the Moselle

it is worth while stopping to see how fully these vigorous rivers are up to their duty of swinging round their meanders and widening their valleys on curves of true form.

W. M. D.

# Correspondence.

## SUNDRY QUESTIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A constant reader for many years of your paper, who has learned much therefrom, and who cares more to reach the truth than to justify the theories of any political party, would regard it as a favor to himself and to many of your readers if you would answer the following five questions:

(1.) Was it not as justifiable for President Harrison to allow the Sherman Silver bill to become a law as for President Cleveland to allow the Gorman tariff to become law?

(2.) Is not the Democratic party as censurable for allowing a small minority of its representatives to force upon it a highly protective tariff as the Republican party for allowing a minority to compel it, in the case of the McKinley law, to adopt higher rates on certain articles than the majority approved?

(3.) Is not President Cleveland as wrong in failing to support the principles of civil-service reform which both he and his party have solemnly avowed, and in using patronage to influence legislation, as Senator Gorman in yielding to the influence of rich corporations and blocking his party's tariff legislation?

(4.) If a business revival shall follow the enactment of the Gorman tariff, but not so great as that which followed the passage of the McKinley law, will the lesser revival show the Gorman law to be better than the McKinley?

(5.) If those branches of business which are given by the Gorman tariff a protection satisfactory to Senator Aldrich and other reasonable protectionists shall prosper, and those branches which are deprived of all protection shall not prosper, can such a result fairly be made an argument against protection?

A Tariff Truth-Seeker.

Boston, September 1, 1894.

[Several of the questions asked by "A Tariff Truth-Seeker" we shall not attempt to answer, for two reasons. In the first place, the questions do not admit of answer, and in the second place it would be idle to answer them if they did. None but the Almighty can measure the relative turpitude of failing to support civil-service reform and of yielding to the influence of rich corporations. When any person is brought to the alternative of choosing between two evils, he may have to determine which is the less; but no such alternative here exists. Nor can business revivals be nicely measured and compared and referred to tariff laws as their causes. After the McKinley act was passed, we had fine crops in this country, while the harvests abroad were bad. We also had a Silver act and a Pension act. This year our crops are not of the best, while the yield in Europe promises to be excellent. For the solution of problems arising under such various conditions the best resort is to Mill's 'Logic.' So as to the relative prosperity of different branches of business. One of the arguments against protection is that, even if it makes a branch of business prosper, it is by taxing the whole community. Hence if such prosperity could be demonstrated to be due to tariff duties, it would make no difference with the free-trade argument.

The first two of our correspondent's questions admit of scarcely more definite answers. As to the first one, the answer depends upon the views held concerning the merits of the two bills. If the Silver bill was a good measure for the country, and if Mr. Harrison thought so, he was certainly justified in signing it. If it was a bad thing, but Mr. Harrison thought it was a good thing, he may or may not have been justified. If it was a bad thing, and he knew it, but knew that Congress would pass it over his veto, he may perhaps have been justified in signing it. As to Mr. Cleveland and the present law, his conduct in not affixing his signature has very little moral significance. He did not sign the bill, because it was not just the bill that he wanted to sign; but as he knew that it would be a beneficial measure to his country, he did not veto it. We do not understand how any comparison can be instituted between cases that have so little likeness as these. When it comes to "arraigning" an abstract entity, such as a political party, we confess that we find the same difficulty as Burke did in drawing an indictment against a whole people. But our correspondent assumes in his question facts which do not exist. The McKinley bill was not forced upon the party by the action of a small minority who declared that they would defeat the bill if they could not shape it as they wished. The Republicans could have passed it in any shape satisfactory to the majority, and did pass it in a shape satisfactory to them. Proof of this is furnished by the unanimity of the party organs in commending the measure, compared with the numberless protests now raised by the Democratic journals against the measure which half-a-dozen Senators compelled the party to accept rather than abandon reform altogether.—Ed. Nation.]

## OUR FIRST POET.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In his account of the celebration of Bryant's one hundredth birthday, did not your correspondent make a not unimportant omission in speaking of the poets who achieved reputation in the first half of the century? Among the poets who might possibly be regarded as the "first" American poet it appears to me that the name of Richard Henry Dana should not be forgotten. Dana has some claim to be called the Nestor of American poets. Older than Halleck, his life (1787-1879) overlapped at both ends the life of Bryant, though his poems were not published until ten years after the appearance of "Thanatopsis." His poetry, though meagre in quantity, is more than respectable in quality. If essentially a "one-poem" poet, he cannot be dismissed with writers of the calibre of Hopkinson, Key, and Payne. The "Buccaneer" surely surpasses in literary excellence "Hail, Columbia," "The Star-Spangled Banner," or "Home, Sweet Home," even if it does not rival those homely productions in popular esteem; and in originality and imaginative quality it is, in the judgment of some, superior to anything Halleck ever did. Upon its first appearance the "Buccaneer" was greeted by distinguished English critics as the most original contribution to American poetry that had yet appeared. Some of Dana's minor poems, as, for example, the "Beach Bird" and the "Pleasure Boat," are very sweet and graceful. It should not be forgotten, moreover, that Dana was the one to whom "Thanatopsis" was submitted for publication, and who was responsible for its appearance.

Emerson Opdycke Stevens.

Cleveland, O., August 28, 1894.

## HISTORY FOR OHIO SCHOOLS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While glancing over the shelves of a bookstore recently, my eye fell upon a little volume entitled 'One Thousand and One Questions and Answers on United States History.' As I was turning the leaves at random, I noticed the following question on the administration of Jefferson: "What laws were first repealed?" The answer was, "The unpopular laws against foreigners and the freedom of the press." I concluded that it might be worth while, for amusement, to look a little further into the work of a writer on United States history who was ignorant of the method of demise which befell the famous Alien and Sedition Laws. A little further on I discovered that John Marshall "*performed the great task of modifying the laws adapted to the colonial times to suit the altered form of government in the national period.*"

I was striking "pay dirt," so to speak, in my search for amusement, and I kept on. The query, "With whom was the idea that the world is round original?" is answered: "Sir John Mandeville, *in the first book ever written*, declared the fact, A.D. 1356." Turning but a single leaf, the question is asked: "What was the belief in the thirteenth century respecting the shape and size of the earth?" and answered, "They began to admit the rotundity of the earth, but greatly underestimated its size."

This discovery that the people of the *thirteenth* century were beginning to admit the truth of an idea which, according to the answer of a preceding question, did not originate until the middle of the *fourteenth*, prepared me, in a measure, for the following:

"(159.) What of Professor Morse's invention?

"(*Answer.*) He invented the magnetic telegraph, which was the *grandest event during Polk's administration.*

"(160.) What was the first news ever sent on the wire?

"(*Answer.*) *The announcement of Polk's nomination.*"

But the most startling information is yet to come (p. 76):

"(369.) What was the Bland silver bill?

"(*Answer.*) *It demonetized silver and made gold the sole standard of our currency!*"

As the *Nation* is not professedly a humorous paper, it might seem out of place to bring this nonsense to its columns, but there is a serious side to the matter. This is one of a series of

books which are sold to our country school-teachers at almost every teachers' institute in Ohio and probably in adjoining States. It has been on the market since 1882, and it bears the imprint of a Cleveland firm doing perhaps the largest book-business in Ohio (The Burrows Brothers' Co.). When such a book can meet with sufficient sale to call from its author (one B. A. Hathaway) similar works in at least seven other branches, with the promise of more to follow, one is tempted to wish that we could have reënacted what this would-be historian calls the law "which punished freedom of speech and of the press with fine and imprisonment." W. H. JOHNSON.

GRANVILLE, O., August 28, 1894.

## OFFICIAL INTELLIGENCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I was desirous of ascertaining what relation exists in the several States betweeen taxation and the suffrage franchise. My books of reference do not agree in the case of Pennsylvania. To clear this up, I addressed a letter to the Secretary of that State, asking if the payment of taxes was a condition precedent to the exercise of the suffrage franchise. The reply from the Secretary's office consisted of two printed forms, one a letter of transmittal enclosing a blank for use by a foreign corporation doing business in Pennsylvania, and conveying the information that a fee of $10.75 was required for filing the enclosed blank.

These blanks were returned to the Secretary's office with a suggestion that they had probably been sent to me through clerical error, and asking that the information requested be furnished me. They were, however, again forwarded to me with a letter of transmittal, written on the headed paper of the Secretary's office, of which the following is a copy:

PENNSYLVANIA. OFFICE OF THE SECRETARY OF THE COMMONWEALTH,
HARRISBURG, August 27, 1894.

*Frank K. Mills, Esq., Leavenworth, Kans:*

MY DEAR SIR: In reply to your letter of the 24th inst., I would beg to say that the only condition precedent to the exercise of the right of doing business in this State is that a foreign corporation file a statement which I enclose, and pay this Department the fee of $10.75 for doing so. This fee is not at all in the nature of a tax, but is a police regulation which was adopted for the protection of the citizens of this State. Kindly give this matter your further attention and let me hear from you. Yours very truly,

WM. F. HARRITY,
Secretary of the Commonwealth,
per T.

It is a matter of congratulation that the secretaries of other States do not make use of a foreign corporation law to extort $10.00 from their correspondents.

FRANK H. MILLS.

LEAVENWORTH, KANS., August 31, 1894.

## THE MARQUIS OF SALISBURY'S AGNOSTICISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The magnificent address of the Marquis of Salisbury before the British Association, August 6, has some very forcible sentences which will fairly allow a much wider application of them than the author himself has made. Referring to the theory of evolution and the vast problems suggested by it, which science has not even begun to solve, and knows not how or where it could begin to study, he says: "The great danger scientific research is running at the present time is the acceptance of mere conjecture in the name and place of knowledge, in preference to making frankly the admission that no certain knowledge can be attained." Then he adds these most weighty and sensible words:

"We are under no obligation to find a theory if the facts will not provide a sound one. To the riddles which Nature propounds to us, the profession of ignorance must constantly be our only reasonable answer. The cloud of impenetrable mystery hangs over the development and still more over the origin of life. If we strain our eyes to pierce it, with the foregone conclusion that some solution is and must be attainable, we shall only mistake for discoveries the figments of our own imagination."

Instead of "to the riddles which Nature," say to the riddles which *religion*, "propounds to us, the profession of ignorance must constantly be our only reasonable answer," and we shall have a truth quite as widely and practically important. So, instead of "the origin of life," let us say, "the cloud of impenetrable mystery hangs over the development and still more over the origin" of *religion*. Then the following sentence describes exactly the way in which all the theologies in the world have been manufactured. "If we strain our eyes to pierce" this mystery, "with the foregone conclusion that some solution is and must be attainable, we shall only mistake for discoveries the figments of our own imagination." Exactly so were the theories of the Nicene and Athanasian creeds devised—those theories of "Trinity and Incarnation" which Mr. Gladstone, in the August *Nineteenth Century*, speaks of as "the central truth of the Gospel," which he says is testified to by some four hundred millions of Christians, but of which—in spite of Mr. Gladstone's assertion—the Apostolic age *demonstrably* knew nothing. One needs only to study without bias, and purely for the sake of getting at the truth, the methods and the state of mind of the men who made those creeds, and he will be compelled to see that they went to work upon the language of Scripture and the traditions that were around them exactly as Lord Salisbury describes—"with the foregone conclusion that some solution must be attainable." Evidence for their theories there was none, and in the nature of the case there could be none; the mystery of the Divine nature is at least as impenetrable as that of the origin of life. X.

NORTHAMPTON, MASS., August 29, 1894.

# Notes.

THE third volume of Mr. James Ford Rhodes's History of the United States after 1850 is now getting into print, and will be published by the Harpers in the course of the winter. The interval between this and the succeeding volume will be partly spent by the author in procuring much-needed physical rest abroad.

The University Press, Cambridge, England, has committed to Mr. W. J. Stillman a volume in its historical series, viz., the History of Italy from 1815. Mr. Stillman will have the assistance of Senator Chiala, author of a series of publications of diplomatic documents on the epoch in question, and will moreover have access to Signor Crispi's unrivalled collection of notes and documents relating to the period after 1848.

Macmillan's autumn list of announcements we can give but in chosen examples, following with one exception the divisions by authors adopted by the firm. American:—'American Book-Plates,' by Charles Dexter Allen; 'The Production of Ex-Libris,' by John Vinycomb; 'The Life and Art of Joseph Jefferson,' by William Winter; 'Architect, Owner, and Builder before the Law,' by T. M. Clark; 'Weather and Forecasting Methods,' by Thomas Russell, U. S. Engineers Office; 'Chronological Outlines of American Literature,' by Selden L. Whitcomb; 'History of the English Language,' by Prof. Oliver Farrar Emerson of Cornell; 'Selected Poems by Aubrey De Vere,' with an introduction by Prof. Woodberry; 'Text-book of Anatomy and Physiology for Nurses,' by Diana Clifford Kimber; 'Mental Development in the Child and the Race,' by Prof. J. Mark Baldwin of Princeton, the first volume being of "Facts and Theories"; 'A Course in Experimental Psychology,' by Prof. J. McKeen Cattell of Columbia; 'A Dictionary of Chemical Solubilities—Inorganic,' by A. M. Comey; 'A Corner of Cathay,' by Adele M. Fielde; 'History, Prophecy, and the Monuments,' by Prof. J. F. McCurdy of Toronto, in two volumes; 'Sketch of the Political History of England,' by Goldwin Smith, and an enlarged edition of his 'Essays on Questions of the Day'; Paulsen's 'Character and Historical Development of the Universities of Germany,' translated by Prof. E. D. Perry of Columbia; Viollet-le-Duc's 'Construction,' translated by George Martin Huss; and 'Raphael's Madonnas and Other Great Pictures,' with text by Karl Károly. English:—The second volume of the third edition of Bryce's 'American Commonwealth'; 'Essays on International Law,' by Prof. Westlake of Cambridge; 'A History of Epidemics in Great Britain,' by Charles Creighton, M.D.; 'A Short History of English Commerce,' by W. Cunningham, D.D.; 'The British Fleet,' by Commander Robinson, R.N.; 'London Up to Date,' by George Augustus Sala; 'Essays and Studies,' by J. Churton Collins, reprinted from the *Quarterly Review;* a new and complete edition of Browning's works, in nine volumes octavo; an Index to the six volumes of Masson's Life of Milton; 'Western Europe in the Fifth Century,' and 'Western Europe in the Eighth Century,' Oxford lectures by the late E. A. Freeman; 'The Letters of Matthew Arnold,' edited by G. W. E. Russell, M.P.; 'The Life of Sir A. C. Ramsay,' by Sir Archibald Geikie; 'The Life of Cardinal Manning,' by Edmund Sheridan Purcell; 'The Life and Letters of R. W. Church, late Dean of St. Paul's'; 'John Russell, R.A.,' "the prince of crayon portrait-painters," by George C. Williamson; 'Sketches in Sport and Natural History,' by the late George Kingsley, M.D.; a second series of 'Studies in Modern Music,' by W. H. Hadow; 'The Uses of Life,' by Sir John Lubbock; Chaucer's 'Canterbury Tales,' edited in two volumes by A. W. Pollard; Lord Berner's 'Froissart's Chronicles' reduced to one volume by G. C. Macaulay; Mazzini's Essays, chiefly political, translated by Bolton King; 'Tales of Naples and the Camorra,' by Charles Grant; the Syriac Gospels, transcribed from the Sinaitic Codex; 'Syriac Literature,' by William Wright; 'Life in Ancient Egypt,' from the German of Adolf Erman; 'Australia,' by Miss Shaw; 'The Meaning of History,' by Frederic Harrison; a translation of Adolf Holm's 'Greek History from its Origin'; 'The End of Elfinland,' by Jane Barlow; 'Wild Animals in Captivity,' by J. E. Cornish; a translation of Schorlemmer's 'Rise and Development of Organic Chemistry'; and 'Modern Book Illustration' and 'Pen Drawing and Pen Draughtsmen,' by Joseph Pennell.

D. Appleton & Co. will publish directly 'Abandoning an Adopted Farm,' by Kate Sanborn.

'The Life and Inventions of Thomas A. Edison,' by W. K. L. Dickson and Antonia Dickson, which has partly appeared in *Cassier's Magazine*, will shortly be brought out, with profuse illustrations, by T. Y. Crowell & Co.

From the Scribners we are to have 'The Wagner Story-Book: Firelight Tales of the Great Music Dramas,' by W. H. Frost, with illustrations by Sydney R. Burleigh; and "The Norseland Series," three volumes by Prof. H. H. Boyesen, chiefly new editions, and a fourth, 'Norseland Tales,' hitherto unpublished.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are passing through the press Mr. Samuel T. Pickard's authoritative 'Life and Letters of Whittier,' which will not preclude a volume devoted to this poet in the "American Men of Letters Series," to be prepared by Prof. George R. Carpenter of Columbia; and the 'Life, Letters, and Diary of Lucy Larcom,' edited by the Rev. D. D. Addison.

The Letters of Emily Dickinson are soon to be issued by Roberts Bros.

'Character Studies, with some Personal Recollections,' is the title of a work by Frederick Saunders of the Astor Library, which Thomas Whittaker has in press.

While the new 'Ritter's Geographisch-Statistisches Lexikon' (Leipzig: Wigand; New York; Westermann) is advancing rapidly, and has fairly entered on C in its fifth instalment, a rival French enterprise has been launched, 'Lexique Géographique du Monde Entier' (Paris: Berger-Levrault & Cie.; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer). The new gazetteer is almost identical in size with Ritter, giving three columns to the page, however, instead of two, and making use of graphic signs for post, telegraph, and railroad stations. For the most of Europe as for the United States, the minimum population of inclusion is 350 (occasionally 250) inhabitants, but the stations just named will be included anyhow, and in this particular no work that has yet appeared can compare with the 'Lexique Géographique.' The specimen page shows an excellent typography, and more titles but a little less fulness than the corresponding tract in Ritter. The complete work will make three volumes of 1,000 to 1,200 pages each.

Another considerable subscription work, that commends itself to lovers of dogs, 'Geschichte und Beschreibung der Rassen des Hundes,' by Ludwig Beckmann (Brunswick: Vieweg; New York: Westermann), is entering on its second volume. It is illustrated with numerous woodcuts.

The indispensable congeries of catalogues called 'The Publishers' Trade-List Annual' duly makes its appearance for 1894 (New York: *Publishers' Weekly*). It is one of the few publications in the world which we prize for its bulk rather than for its quality, and it actually overspreads its predecessor when placed beside it. It is perhaps somewhat remarkable that the binding together of so many catalogues had had no appreciable effect in producing uniformity of style.

'The Image of War, or Service on the Chin Hills' (Calcutta: Thacker, Spink & Co.), by Surgeon-Captain A. G. E. Newland, is the photographic history of a military expedition on the Indian frontier. An admirable series of pictures illustrates incidents in the march of the troops, scenes at the encampments (interesting as showing the strange mixture of races in the men composing the force), and representations of the natives of the different tribes encountered, their dwellings and manners of life, as well as of the scenery of the Hills. The most striking of the groups of scenes in camp-life is that of the "provost-marshal at work." In some of the pictures of the native villages there are to be seen in front of the houses posts, hung with trophies which are not unlike the totem posts of Alaska. The accompanying text consists of disconnected sketches, generally explanatory of the pictures, but also giving a brief account of the expedition. This was composed of four columns of troops operating from different directions, and was sent out in the open season of 1891-92 to subdue the Chins, who were in the habit of making destructive raids into the plains of Assam and Burma. The end was accomplished without bloodshed.

In her two-volume work on 'Primitive Civilizations, or Outlines of the History of Ownership in Archaic Communities' (London: Swan Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan), Miss E. J. Simcox has turned to account the results of recent research in England, France, and Germany. She believes that a complete history of ownership would furnish a complete history of civilization, or of the human race; "for the character of religious beliefs, the state of art and science, and the course of political and social development are all reflected in proprietary institutions." The question of ownership is only one of many features of primitive civilization with which the author deals; agriculture, commerce, industry, classes of society, domestic relations, family and commercial law, forms of government, the succession of dynasties—all receive considerable attention, especially as regards ancient Egypt, Babylonia, and China. The whole of the second volume is devoted to China. The introductory remarks concerning the analogies in the civilization of these three countries and concerning the ethnological affinity of their inhabitants are somewhat vague and desultory; but the body of the work contains much interesting material gathered from a wide range of authorities.

Dr. John Nisbet's book on British Forest Trees was noticed in these columns about a year ago. He has now published 'Studies in Forestry,' being a short course of lectures on the principles of sylviculture delivered at the Botanic Garden, Oxford, during the Hilary and Michaelmas terms, 1893 (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan). The volume contains fourteen chapters, or lectures, and is a concise but well-digested treatise on forestry, both in general, and especially as relating to Britain. The author argues that, on the whole, mixed forests are more beneficial to the land than forests of one kind of tree, and considers it well that the shade of the forest should be so dense that the soil should be protected from sun and wind, and from "a more or less rank and unremunerative growth of weeds." In the eighth chapter he gives good reasons for preferring natural reproduction of forests to the system of planting from nurseries, but admits that sometimes nature may be the better for a little artificial assistance. Now that Americans are waking up to the need of forest preservation and sylviculture, such books as this are likely to prove of use as well as of interest.

Prof. Trimble's second volume on 'The Tannins' (Lippincott) is devoted to the results of the author's investigations of the astringent principles from "nine species of oaks and one species each of mangrove, canaigre, and chestnut." The method of preparation of the tannin is given in each case, and there is some discussion of the behavior of the several tannins with different reagents. Mangrove-tannin comes principally from India; but there is no reason why a limited quantity might not be procured from the shores of the Gulf of Mexico. Canaigre is not a familiar word: it is given to a kind of dock (*Rumex hymenosepalus*, Torrey), which in general appearance is much like the "yellow dock" (*R. crispus*) so common in waste places. The writer states that the tuberous roots have been used by the Mexicans in tanning for over two centuries. The quantity of tannin in the roots is large, since the average is about 30 per cent. Experiments are now being conducted in Arizona to see whether the plant can be profitably cultivated for its production of tannin. Chestnut, both the wood and the bark, yields tannin, and in the mountains of Pennsylvania and Virginia are works for the production of the "extract," which "appears in commerce in both liquid and solid form." That tannins have been the subject of much investigation may be seen from the fact that an index to the literature of them fills no less than thirty pages of this monograph.

John Wiley & Sons publish Dr. A. Worcester's 'Small Hospitals,' whose value is increased by Mr. W. Atkinson's "Suggestions for Hospital Architecture, with plans for a small hospital." The text is full of shrewd advice for the concentration of the energy of a community, and the control of those divergent forces which, even in the best of causes, render brotherly coöperation difficult. Such antagonisms acquire most force in the smallest societies, and call for no small measure of diplomacy. In all this preparatory work the author's advice is sound, and is given colloquially, not *ex cathedra*. There should be a crop of such hospitals if the little book is read as widely as it deserves. The plans are good and economical.

Prof. Berthold Litzmann of Bonn, who enjoys the distinction of being one of the few German professors condescending to take an active interest in the literary movements of the present time, has published an instructive book on 'Das deutsche Drama in den litterarischen Bewegungen der Gegenwart' (Hamburg: Leopold Voss). An outgrowth of public lectures delivered at the university, and appealing to the thoughtful student of literature rather than to the literary historian, the book is a most refreshing oasis in the desert of exhaustive and exhausting monographs, of purely antiquarian interest, in which so large a part of modern criticism is languishing. Prof. Litzmann is a firm believer in the idealism of the great eighteenth-century writers, but this does not make him a worshipper of the pseudo-idealistic formalism of men like Gutzkow and Heyse, and it does not prevent him from feeling the thrill of new life which is pulsating in the boisterous and effervescent "Grün-Deutschland." His instinct for the significant and representative makes him point to Sudermann and Hauptmann as the two men destined to become the regenerators of German literature. There is something naïve and juvenile in his appeal to the latter to cleanse himself from the poison of Ibsenism: for where would Hauptmann be without Ibsen? Still, if Hauptmann really is the great poet he seems to be, he must of necessity outgrow Ibsen and his kin. If for nothing else, this book deserves to be read for the masterly analysis of Hauptmann's first great effusions, "Vor Sonnenaufgang" and "Das Friedensfest." We regret that "Die Weber" did not receive more careful attention from Prof. Litzmann.

Leconte de Lisle left enough verse, of the kind approved by his difficult taste, to fill a volume. Mme. Leconte de Lisle intends to publish these poems about the end of the present year. Several of them have appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, but the most important feature of the volume will be the fragments of the "États du Diable," left unfinished by the poet. It is a terrible picture of mediæval horrors, in which Alexander VI. and the Borgias figure prominently. Lemerre will bring out the book. It appears that the drama "Frédégonde," in verse, which Leconte de Lisle had blocked out, and of which he had completed the first act, was burned by him as unsuited to the stage. He was so diffident concerning the worth of his verse that, despite the pleadings of his wife, he had resolved to burn "Qaïn," that masterpiece of his, had not De Heredia arrived at the critical moment and saved the poem. These details are given by Mme. Leconte de Lisle in an interview with a reporter of the Paris *Temps*.

Mme. Octave Feuillet has published reminiscences of no particular value under the title 'Quelques Années de ma Vie' (Paris: Calmann Lévy). There are some entertaining passages and allusions to certain literary events—such as (and mostly) the publication of her husband's novels or the performance of his plays—a good deal of description of her awe and admiration of Napoleon III. and the Empress Eugénie, for whom she seems to have entertained something of the feeling of Mme. de Sévigné for Louis XIV. This and an account of the dresses made for her by Worth are what strikes one most on reading the well-printed pages; and when the book is finished, one wonders at the very small quantity of matter which can be made into an octavo volume of nearly 400 pages.

The fourth number of the Boston quarto "quarter-yearly Review of the Liberal Arts called the *Knight Errant*, being a Magazine of Appreciation," rounds out the first volume in the space of two years. The editors frankly announce a want of material support, and will publish no more unless their Appreciation is appreciated at its worth in fine linen by a discerning public. The vagueness of the gospel of this magazine is as obvious at the end as at the beginning of its enterprise, and we cannot honestly say we think the sum of doctrine or of fancy which makes up the letter-press worth the cost of so sumptuous a product, whose artistic side has far surpassed the literary. Paper, presswork, and some of the photogravure illustrations have been admirable; but what sort of a Review have we had?

The third annual report of the Massachusetts Trustees of Public Reservations tells a meagre tale of gifts, as might have been expected from the dull, hard year. The document is valuable, however, for its appendix, which reviews the extent and condition of public holdings in the shore towns of the State.

In spite of political unrest and talk of disunion, special efforts are now being made by the Storthing to develop the railroad system of Norway. At the last session of Parliament a liberal initial appropriation was made for additions to the present system, aggregating 490 kilometres. From an article in a Swedish railroad journal it appears that, owing to natural causes, special difficulties present themselves, quite equalling those of the Swiss roads. Of particular interest, from an engineering standpoint, is a section 75 kilometres long, between Voss and Taugevand, near Bergen, which will connect with the trunk line Christiania-Bergen, one of the most popular of the Scandinavian tourist routes. The estimated cost of this short stretch is 14,500,000 kroners (say $4,000,000). It will require 11,464 metres of tunnelling, and 359,000 cubic metres of rock will be blasted. An important element in the running of this portion of the road is the snow, especially in the valleys. Numerous snow-sheds will have to be erected, and on the mountains watch-towers are to be placed at intervals of two and one-half kilometres. This new enterprise is only one of the many results of Norway's increasing popularity as a tourist land.

The *Annales de Géographie* for July opens with an account of the French colony of the Ivory Coast and the Sudan bordering it on the north, by M. Marcel Monnier. For the development of the abundant resources of the country labor alone is needed, and for this the only hope appears to be in the conversion of the negro to Mohammedanism. This propagandism, which is spreading gradually but irresistibly over western Africa, is less of a religious than an industrial nature. The black Mohammedans teach the natives to weave, to prepare skins, and to cultivate the ground, not for daily food merely, but to supply the markets with articles for barter. The manners of the savage are softened, his fetishism is given up, he abandons his hut of branches for a clay house built around a court-yard, and becomes, as it were, a useful member of society. The country contains considerable gold, which is found mostly in "pockets." These are emptied by black slaves, who carry the dirt to be washed to the nearest water, sometimes two or three hours' march distant. The quantity does not seem to be sufficient to cover the expense of European mining. M. Monnier went as far as Kong, an important walled town in the Sudan, and, writing of its great fair held every five days, corrects the exaggerated impressions which have prevailed of the extent and value of the commerce of these Sudanese markets. M. E. Blanc continues his description of the progress of Russian colonization in Central Asia, treating especially of the agricultural development of the country. Cotton is the most important crop, and, with the opening of the new line of railway connecting the Caspian and the Black Seas north of the Caucasus, will probably increase greatly in the future. One province alone, Ferghanah, now sends yearly more than two hundred million pounds over the Transcaspian Railway, or more than twelve times as much as the whole country exported in 1888.

The two sheets in Part 7 of Paul Langhans's "Deutscher Kolonial-Atlas" (Westermann) exhibit the German protectorate in Southwest Africa, and the spread of Germans and German interests in Europe—for which last several small maps are requisite.

From Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, we have the first part of a grand ancient atlas, "Formæ Orbis Antiqui," by Dr. Heinrich Kiepert, assisted by his son, Dr. Richard Kiepert, than whom two more competent authorities could not be named. The form is a large folio, and each map is accompanied by critical text, with references to the sources. Special attention has been paid to longitudes, altitudes, roads (in the Roman times particularly), and spelling of names of places. The scale of these maps is a delight to the eye. Our countryman, Ramsay, has a deservedly prominent place in the references regarding hither Asia Minor. The Aegean, northern Greece, Illyricum and Thrace, the British Isles and Spain, are the other maps in the first group.

The general diffusion of elementary education in Bavaria is evident from the fact that of the 26,383 recruits for the army levied in 1893, only six were unable to read and write. In France 6.43 per cent. of the recruits of the same year did not know the letters of the alphabet. In Saxony the percentage of the illiterate is slightly less, and in Würtemberg somewhat greater than in Bavaria. In Prussia the number varies considerably in different provinces, being smallest in Hanover (0.04) and largest in the districts beyond the Rhine bordering on France (4.01, a sudden increase over 1892, when it was 2.75). Posen also makes a bad showing (1.72) in comparison with Brandenburg (0.15), Westphalia (0.08), Silesia (0.57), Schleswig-Holstein (0.10), East Prussia (0.98), Pomerania (0.22), and Alsace and Lorraine (0.30).

The Russian Government has already decided to establish a medical school for women at St. Petersburg. This step acquires additional importance from the fact that only a few years ago the Ministry of Instruction was strongly opposed to every movement favorable to the higher education of women. The medical institution organized by Prof. Gerie for this purpose was closed in 1884, and all efforts recently made by this gentleman to revive it were utterly futile. The sudden and radical change of policy is due to the influence of Prince Wolkowski, whose excellent address delivered at Chicago during the World's Fair on the relations of intellectual culture to the State will doubtless be remembered by many Americans.

At the summer graduation ceremony of the University of Glasgow, held on July 26, the degree of Bachelor of Medicine and Master in Surgery was conferred on women candidates for the first time in the history of any of the Scottish universities. The two leading graduates in this new departure were Miss Marion Gilchrist, Bothwell, and Miss Alice Lilian Louisa Cumming, Glasgow. Both had been students at Queen Margaret College, now the Women's Department of the University of Glasgow, for seven years—three in arts and four in medicine, their clinical work having been taken in the Royal Infirmary and Sick Children's Hospital. The University degree in arts not being open to women at the time, Miss Gilchrist took in arts the general certificate of Queen Margaret College. She now appears on the University graduation lists as the third in rank of the six candidates who took the degree of M. B. C. M., "with high commendation."

—The *Atlantic* for September contains hardly anything very striking or attractive, although it maintains its usual unexceptionable literary tone. Perhaps the most original article is that on "Old Boston Mary," in which Mr. Josiah Flynt gives a picturesque account of an old gypsy tramp who used to live in a shanty in the outskirts of Boston, and contrives to invest with a good deal of interest a personage probably nothing but repulsive to those who met her in the flesh. "The Kidnapped Bride," by Mrs. Catherwood, is a story full of dramatic fire. Mrs. Kate Chopin has a story, "Tante Cat'rinette," which, as will be guessed from its name, is mostly in dialect. There is also a sprinkling of dialect in Grace Howard Peirce's pathetic sketch entitled "For their Brethren's Sake." "Rus in Urbe," by Miss Edith Thomas, although not much more than a collection of scraps, has many shrewdly humorous observations on a number of amiable human weaknesses. Those who cannot reconcile themselves to the Gallicism "It goes without saying," will read sympatheti-

cally a denunciation of it in the Contributors' Club.

—The best article in *Scribner's* is Mr. Crawford's description of Bar Harbor, which can be read with pleasure even by those who care nothing for the subject. He is here in his happiest vein, brimming over with good things, and shows himself master of the art of expressing effectively what, under less skilful treatment, would be commonplace—as when he speaks of "that mysterious tribe of people who look as if they could not possibly receive a dozen letters a year, and yet who are always assiduously looking out for them"; or, of "queer little dogs in which the absence of breed produces a family likeness." Carl Lumholtz contributes a second paper on the Tarahumari Indians, and contrives to crowd into a small space a great deal of curious detail about their customs and peculiarities. He devotes a considerable portion of his article to a description of their foot-races, in which he says there is more or less cheating, "especially if the Indians have become half-civilized." Thomas Nelson Page contributes the first half of a story, "Little Darby," treating of Southern life in his usual manner. "The Folly of Mocking at the Moon," by Gaston Fay, is a drolly absurd sailor-man's yarn about the sinking of the *Alabama* by the *Kearsarge*.

—The *Century* is a remarkably good number. It opens with an interesting article by Dr. J. M. Rice on "School Excursions in Germany," describing a seven days' trip taken by the school of practice of the Pedagogical Seminary at Jena last summer. This tour is described with much detail, with a view to introducing the custom among us. Like the practical man he is, Dr. Rice has already induced one American school to act on his suggestion, and gives an account of the experiment in the current *Forum*. Another article bearing on the same subject is that on "Playgrounds for City Schools," by Jacob A. Riis, who, after showing how poorly our public schools are provided in that respect, and how much need there is of a better provision, proposes that enough land be condemned around every school-house to make a small park and playground; but as he estimates that the scheme would cost thirteen millions of dollars, there is small hope of its realization. Mr. Joseph B. Bishop, in "The Price of Peace," after repeating the now familiar story of the blackmail levied by Tammany Hall on corporations, points the moral that the men who allow themselves to be blackmailed are in great measure responsible for the corruption of our politics. Prof. Woodberry brings out a second batch of Poe letters, ranging from 1839 to 1843, which throw some light on the literary manners and customs of the time, and furnish further evidence that Poe's habits of intemperance constituted the great obstacle to his advancement in his career. There are two good short stories—"Jake Stanwood's Gal," by Anna Fuller, notable for its energetic movement, and "The Whirligig of Time," by George A. Hibbard, which is a neat bit of parlor comedy. Mr. Timothy Cole's engraving of a painting by Gabriel Metsu should be mentioned, as also the frontispiece from a painting by Cecilia Beaux.

—About one-half of *Harper's* is given up to fiction. The brightest thing in it is Brander Matthews's "The Royal Marine," a sparkling novelette full of witty dialogue and amusing situations. It has some points of resemblance, but more of contrast, to Mr. Crawford's story in the *Century*. Mr. Matthews seems to produce his epigrams more spontaneously than his confrère, and has the advantage of seeing American society through the eyes of a genuine native. Apropos of the Bryant centenary, Mr. J. W. Chadwick gives an account of the genesis of "Thanatopsis," reprinting the original draft as written in the poet's seventeenth year and printed in the *North American Review*, and pointing out some of the emendations of the subsequent editions. Mr. Chadwick also suggests the literary sources of the lugubrious reflections on life and death which could not have been altogether natural to a boy of sixteen. Mr. Alfred Parsons writes of Japan as gracefully as he draws, and Mr. Julian Ralph describes primitive modes of life in West Virginia, which seem almost more remote from our civilization than do the Japanese customs. Mr. Caspar Whitney's "Riding to Hounds in England" will be welcomed by teachers of rhetoric who are anxious to offer their pupils fresh examples of "English as she should not be wrote." Here is one specimen out of many: "Horseflesh maintains a more universal aristocracy, for, as a rule, the average is about the same, each country requiring a standard which all endeavor to reach, whether to be in the vogue, or for the more practical purpose of living with the hounds."

—In 1837 Congress appropriated $30,000 to purchase from Mrs. Madison the "manuscripts of the late Mr. Madison." After the lapse of half-a-century the general public is permitted to know what was comprised in that purchase, and No. 4 of the Bulletin of the Bureau of Rolls and Library of the Department of State contains a calendar of the manuscripts. A cursory examination of its contents gives an exalted idea of the shrewdness of Mrs. Dolly Madison and of the simplicity of the Government officials who perfected the transaction. The "gold-brick" and "green-goods" exchanges are nearly similar, considered from the standpoint of the purchaser. We do not mean to assert that the sale was a job, but the Government was certainly taken in. The Attorney-General decided, many years after, that Mrs. Madison was entitled to what she had retained, but we marvel at the blindness of the official who dealt with her. The real Madison letters were scattered at auction two years ago. There is only one series of letters to Madison in the Department calendar worthy of note—the noble series of Jefferson letters. Turning to Washington, we find *copies* of five or six letters. The originals of many (nearly four hundred) unusually long and interesting letters from Washington, Pendleton, Edmund Randolph, Joseph Jones, John Armstrong, and others were scattered at the sale just mentioned, and could have been purchased for one-half the sum paid for the collection obtained in 1837. In historical value there could be no comparison between the two lots, and yet the Government made no effort to secure the more valuable letters sold in 1891.

—Was it a consciousness of inferior goods that led to a marked falling off in this issue of the Bulletin? In size, it is the largest yet made—upwards of 740 pages. The type is old and much worn, making an indistinct impression. The proof-reading has been done hastily, and is not intelligent. It is a mistake to take an endorsed name as conclusive, and servilely follow manifest errors in printing a proper name. A calendar is a guide, and it should be so prepared that the writer of a letter can be readily identified, and, above all, correctly identified. Such a list becomes a book of reference; otherwise it is liable to mislead and confuse. Compared with the great calendars of the English records, these issues of the Department of State are very imperfect, and this No. 4 is most imperfect of all. Opening at random, we note a few of the errors. Richard *Blond* Lee is mentioned on page 464, *Richad Blond* Lee on p. 598, and Richard *Bland* Lee (correctly) on p. 693. Surely he was sufficiently prominent in his day to merit a proper record. Bossauge, p. 164, is correctly printed Bossange on p. 205. It is not difficult to recognize Epaphras under the misprint Epapheas (p. 175). A little care would have prevented so many differences in spelling names. Battaile and Battoile (p. 154), Ballman (p. 9) for Bollman, Gilmore (p. 28) and Gilmer (p. 320), Hurlbert (p. 32) and Hurlbut (p. 367), Hanson (p. 349) and Hansen (p. 505), Dufret (p. 274) for Dufief, are some that are easily recognized. The same negligence occurs in initials. A. C. Cazenove (p. 202) is A. Cazenove on p. 13. G. Cardelli (p. 187) becomes Antonio Cardelli (p. 12), P. S. Chazotte (p. 204) is Stephen Chazotti on p. 13, and Eben Huntington (p. 366) is made Eberd on p. 32. Dates easily determined are omitted, and some curious instances of unfamiliarity with the history of the times may be found. The long letter of Jay, on p. 377, could have been addressed only to Congress. The date of the resolution of Congress (p. 278) should have been found in the Journals. We hope to see an improvement in No. 5, as it is impossible to estimate too highly the general utility of these bulletins.

—The more that esoteric Japan and the "profound peace" prior to this half of the nineteenth century are studied, the more do Japanese history and human nature appear normal. Riots and turbulent outbreaks were common, and an irregular and intermittent lawlessness was particularly rife in times of famine. In studying this period, Prof. Garrett Droppers met with an interesting form of credit institution, which he has treated attractively and luminously in a paper read before the Asiatic Society of Japan, and printed in volume xxii. of its Transactions. The founder was Ninomiya Kinjiro (born July 23, 1787, died 1856). Though a farmer, he overcame the prejudices of caste, and, in the service of various daimios, was enabled to reduce sensibly the horrors of famine and to raise up lapsed and bankrupt districts to prosperity and abundance. Not as a religious, but as a sober social, reformer, who believed in the unalterable laws of nature, his system, which suited admirably the feudal framework of society, was based on the idea that "we are strong because of social wealth bequeathed to us by the virtue of our ancestors, our state, and our parents." He had no place in his system for the individualism which characterizes the Westerner and this nineteenth century. Briefly stated, the Hotokusha (Compensation-Gifts Association) aims to realize a true social life. It furnishes relief to the poor and orphans, rewards meritorious actions, improves customs and furthers social morality, reclaims waste land, promotes irrigation and plants forests, loans money and pays interest on deposits. In not a few respects, it resembles the Raiffeisen Loan Associations of Germany. The idea of profit or dividend is kept out, and the element of gratuitous service is emphasized. The paper gives interesting proofs of the good working of the plan, which, despite the changed conditions of the country,

still accomplishes great good. Statistics showing 5,520 associations of all grades, with a total membership of 18,980, with capital, rice and grain stores, land, etc., are given. A bibliography for the Japanese-reading student is added, from which we learn that a monthly magazine to propagate Hotoku principles has been published in Tokio since 1892. The very existence of such a society, which loans money without demanding interest, and which does not invariably require security, is a strong proof of the excellent moral character of portions at least of the rural population of Japan.

## MR. GOLDWIN SMITH'S TRANSLATIONS FROM THE GREEK TRAGEDIANS.—I.

*Specimens of Greek Tragedy.* Translated by Goldwin Smith, D.C.L. Æschylus and Sophocles; Euripides. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co.

It is natural for the English University man to recreate himself with versions from the classics; and it is inevitable that the recreations of Mr. Goldwin Smith should be neat and dexterous, and successful—not suggestive of slippers and dressing-gown and the otiosity of self-indulgent old age. Every educated Englishman of a type which we trust is not destined to pass away has a right to such diversions; and few have a better right to publish the results than Prof. Smith. They are a graceful offering at an old-fashioned shrine. We hear that the fashion is passing away even at Oxford, which is now beginning to claim the title of practical; and so Prof. Smith, not feeling quite sure that "Beauty is its own excuse for being," expresses a hope that his translation may be useful in Canada and other regions where Greek is vanishing from the academical course. In the United States it is our nature to refrain from classical versions and diversions, or to keep them locked up in our desks, far from the ungenial frown of the man of business and the man of science, and the piercing gaze of the strong young eagle that has fledged its wings in the technical schools. We are rather ashamed to confess such peccadillos to an unsympathetic public; across the water they are unblushingly displayed in high places and are regarded with an indulgent eye. Yet how frivolous are these relaxations of a Lord Derby or a Gladstone, compared with the serious and elegant leisure of our Platts and our Murphys and our Peffers.

Prof. Smith's venture consists of certain choice passages and scenes from Æschylus and Sophocles which make up a small octavo of about 250 pages, and another volume nearly as large culled from Euripides. He has chosen what he personally liked best. He steers clear of the choric odes almost completely, because he found them very hard material to deal with. "Their dithyrambic character, their high-flown language, strained metaphors, and frequent, perhaps studied obscurity, render it almost impossible to reproduce them in the forms of English poetry"; nay, perhaps, they do not contain much of "the material whereof modern poetry is made."

This formidable description will suggest to the imagination of the plain Englishman certain bogies from which he must thank the translator for a merciful deliverance. It is a description not altogether inapt when applied to some choruses of Æschylus, but strangely wide of the mark if meant for those of Sophocles and Euripides. Of these it would be nearer the truth to say that their lyric style, their highly poetic diction, the variety and beauty of their melody and rhythm, make it difficult, if not impossible, to represent or suggest their charms in English. We are not speaking now of a syllabic reproduction of the Greek metres, for this, as Mr. Auchmuty has lately shown in his "Œdipus at Colonus," can issue only in a literary curiosity. We mean a genuine English equivalent for the Greek rhythms and poetry. This would certainly be a task for great technical skill combined with high poetic genius; and genius, as a rule, scorns this kind of labor. If any one is inclined to think the task impossible, he may be checked at once by recalling Mr. Swinburne's "Atalanta in Calydon," and still more by the haunting memories of his music in "Astrophel." Dryden and Gray in their "Pindaric" odes gave only a slender suggestion of that complex and varied harmony of movement which in the Greek choral ode veers and shifts with every changing breath of thought and sentiment and passion. But Mr. Swinburne can truly say of this very problem, "Solvitur ambulando." The author of "Astrophel" has shown that he can do what he likes with the English language, and make its rugged vocables dance to any tune he pleases. He could undoubtedly achieve the task which Mr. Smith, with commendable taste and caution, avoids. But he naturally prefers to set his own thoughts to his own music.

There is a good reason why the choral odes should, if possible, be reproduced for any foreign reader, namely, that they are an essential part of the total impression of the drama, and essential, therefore, to a clear apprehension of Greek dramatic art. They are often described as "the libretto of a chant"; Mr. Smith uses this comparison, adding that they must have "owed much to the melody and the movement of the dance." How much they owed to the music we have some means of judging from that skeleton of melody lately unearthed at Delphi. If we do not go so far as to say with Prof. Mahaffy that the Greeks were sorry composers, we shall at any rate agree that airs such as this, with all their exotic charm, served only as a slender and brilliant frame for the poetic picture of the words, setting them off certainly but never rivalling or eclipsing them, as the harmonies of an opera extinguish the libretto. In the opera and the oratorio the score is intended to eclipse the libretto; in the Greek representation, the poetry was first and foremost, the music was purely ancillary and subordinate.

We may repeat, then, that the odes are essential not merely as a record of the development of the drama, but as a matter of poetic art. They are often intended to create the mood of the spectator, to supply him with allusive information, to suggest or furnish contrasts or subtle harmonies with the situation that is unfolded in the dialogue. In Sophocles and Æschylus they are generally as necessary and inevitable as the pieces of mosaic in a picture; in Euripides they are more like the jewels worn by a beautiful woman—brilliant but casual and detachable. Yet even with Euripides, it would often be truer to say that they beget the mood, the ethereal atmosphere of emotion and sentiment, through which the spectator is to regard the action of the play.

If asked to name the most adequate bit of work in these volumes, we should lay our finger on that ingenious piece of special pleading between *Creon* and his son in the "Antigone," in which Sophocles, without forgetting his poetry, turns for awhile his audience into a court of law. The finesse and dexterity of this encounter are very much in Mr. Smith's line; and so is the "stichomythia" in which it issues—the flash and gleam, the cut and thrust and parry of responsive single lines, so dear to the Greek heart, and so alien, we may add, to the genuine English drama—so alien, indeed, that FitzGerald felt obliged to renounce it almost entirely. It is, however, an artifice well suited to Mr. Smith's epigrammatic faculty. Epigrammatic felicities are his peculiar gift and property. One might cull a very pretty garland of these from either of the volumes. For example, *Ismene's* warning to her sister:

> "Hot is thy blood, but chill thy enterprise";

and again:

> "High-vaulting virtue overleaps itself";

or this from *Heracles* to *Admetus*:

> "Time will bring balm; thy wound as yet is green";

or the messenger's word to *Œdipus*:

> "Thy name is thy misfortune's monument";

or the wish of *Hippolytus*:

> "Ne'er may wife of mine
> Be wiser than consorts with womanhood";

or this bit of skilful simplicity from a parting scene:

> "*Polyxena*: 'Mother, farewell; Cassandra, fare thee well.'
> *Hecuba*: 'Farewell who may; ill must thy mother fare.'"

Side by side with the discussion in the "Antigone," we should place the sonorous and eloquent defiance of *Prometheus*, and such speeches as the final address of *Athene* in the "Choëphoræ," where in point, vigor, and neatness Mr. Smith's version has the advantage even of Mr. Morshead's. We spare room for a few spirited and characteristic lines in which *Prometheus* reproaches the chorus for their submissiveness, and announces the approach of *Hermes* bearing an ultimatum from *Zeus*:

> "Cringe, if thou wilt, sue, bend the knee to power.
> Little reck I of Zeus. Then let him work
> His tyrant will for his allotted span:
> Not long shall he be monarch of the gods.
> But lo, the Almighty's henchman I behold,
> That errands bears for this new dynasty;
> His lackeyship must some new fiat bring."

The same felicity, with rarer qualities, characterizes the recognition scene between *Iphigenia* and her brother, and the touching passage, of legendary fame, in which *Electra*, beside the urn which she supposes to contain her brother's ashes, deplores his death and her own unfriended lot. Some lines in this go straight to one's heart:

> "Strange hands those rites performed, and thou art here
> A little dust clipt in a narrow urn."

And again:

> "Receive me now in that abode of thine,
> That, *dust to dust*, I may abide with thee"—

which is so neat that we hardly venture to hint its inadequacy for τὴν μηδὲν εἰς τὸ μηδὲν.

There are, however, inequalities in Mr. Smith's performance. He has his moods, and in some he can be prosaic, or suddenly lapse into prose. This may happen anywhere; but the long narratives of Euripides are perhaps the most trying ordeals. Euripides, if never downright prosy, often treads on the verge, in that even, pedestrian style by which he prepared the way for Menander. This level, easy manner, which reaches no great height of inspiration, and yet seldom if ever sinks to bald prose, is a test for an artist like Shelley—a test which he bears so winningly in the "Cyclops." It is a perilous undertaking to tell how "We were engaged in dressing down the steeds," or, of *Jason's* bride, that "Scarce her seat received her fainting form," and "What followed was appalling to behold," or, "A fearful struggle then ensued," without trans-

gressing into commonplace. The sentiment of *Menœcius*,

> "If each man freely would expend his store
> For the promotion of the common weal,
> Our states, from many a present evil free,
> Would see before them times of happiness,"

is honest, sensible prose, slightly disguised in the form of verse. Euripides is not entirely responsible for this, for in other passages our translator shows himself willing to part with a metaphor, or with a touch of color, which warms and vivifies the original. *Medea's* declaration, "My hand I will not weaken," is rendered, "My purpose is unchanged"; "The mistress whom we flatter in thy place" becomes "She who is now our mistress in thy place"; and the "dazzling white foot" of the bride (παλλεύκῳ ποδί) disappears in the descriptive line, "Paced gayly to and fro with dainty steps." These are certainly slight matters and not worth mentioning if they were isolated; our reason for mentioning them at all is that they reveal a tendency which is almost a trait.

On the whole, however, these versions must be pronounced a brilliant success in a field where Mr. Smith is, in some sense, only an amateur. We have lately had many good renderings of masterpieces done into prose; we have, for example, not to mention well-known English works, Prof. Palmer's 'Odyssey' and Mr. Norton's Dante—renderings so dexterous, so delicately close and true, so exquisite in literary quality, that they offer some of the charms of verse, and a fidelity in certain ways which verse can hardly approach. We have been told, in fact, lately, that this is the only safe way to translate poetry; that renderings in verse must of necessity be paraphrases, and must offend the modern scientific craving for accuracy. But, as Mr. Smith truly says, "Prose can never be an equivalent for poetry; therefore, we must run the risks of a translation in verse"; and as FitzGerald said of the "Agamemnon," "This grand play, which to the scholar and the poet lives, breathes, and moves in the dead language, has hitherto seemed to me to drag and stifle under conscientious translation into the living." If we ask Mr. Smith under what conditions we must make our experiment in verse, he replies, "We must translate as far as possible line for line; otherwise, in Greek, we lose the form and balance which are of the essence of Greek art"; and, as a matter of fact, he has generally bound himself by this rule. Here we encounter at the outset a difference of theory between two translators who agree in making the experiment of verse; and it may be worth our while to examine the results of each process.

## THE TSIMSIÁN LANGUAGE.

*Die Sprache der Zimshĭan-Indianer in Nordwest-America.* Von Dr. A. C. Graf von der Schulenburg. Braunschweig: Rich. Sattler; New York: G. E. Stechert. 1894. Quarto, pp. 24 and 372.

THIS large and typographically well-executed work deals with an Indian language which is spoken in two dialects by an interesting people of well-nigh 6,000 souls, resident upon the coast of British Columbia. The Tsimsián are subdivided into fifteen clans, and dwell in about as many compactly built villages along the seashore and along the lower course of the Nass and the Skeena Rivers. They are known to us under the name of one of their villages, Tsimsián, a name interpreted by "on the Ksián," *i. e.*, "upon the Skeena River." The littoral slopes from Vancouver Island up to the Alaskan border are intersected by a large number of fjords, which give ample protection to the enormous number of fish found there. Fishing is the main support of the Tsimsián Indians, who at the beginning of the fishing season desert their winter villages en masse and start for the fishing-camps.

Many of their customs testify to the archaic state of their civil institutions. Children inherit from the mother; the aboriginal totemic clan-system still prevails in full force in spite of long intercourse with the white race. There is, if observers have judged correctly, a middle class distinctly separated by customary law from the commoners, and still more so from the leading class, so that instances are rare in which individuals of the two popular classes have succeeded in making their way into the "upper crust." This implies an hereditary caste, which is seldom observed in Indian communities. The "religions" of the Tsimsián, or rather their ceremonial clubs or societies, are four in number; one of them is named "the dog-eaters," another "cannibals." Their chief deity is the sky, *lakâ*; subordinate to it are the celestial bodies, as sun and moon, mysterious beings beneficial to mankind (*neknók*). They are the mediators between heaven and man.

Attempts were made over twenty years ago to Christianize these people. In 1886 their missionary, William Duncan, removed about one thousand Tsimsián Indians to Annette Island, that they might remain free from corrupting influences, made their town, New Methlakathla, a centre of civilization by erecting a schoolhouse, a marketplace, a hall for meetings, a gospel and law building, and a house for lodging Indian visitors. To engraft the true principle of culture, he endeavored to make them active and industrious workers and producers, established manufactures of soap, rope, woollens, and shoes, the products of which are carried to the international market at Victoria, B. C., at stated intervals, by a schooner especially built for their use. The fact that these Indians find an immediate reward for their industrial exertions gives them a stimulus very different from that furnished by the dull agricultural work going on upon the Indian reservations in the United States.

The principal source of the above ethnography has been the English and German publications of the explorer Dr. Franz Boas of Minden, who was also the Count's chief authority for the Tsimsián grammar. The four Gospels, translated by Protestant missionaries into Tsimsián, furnished data for the grammar, and especially for the lexicon of about 2,800 words, which will be found at the close of the volume. In dedicating the work to his uncle, the deceased linguist Georg von der Gabelentz, Count von der Schulenburg pays a glowing tribute to his merits and achievements. His helping hand is discernible not only in particular statements, but in the plan of the whole work, which is probably due to his teachings. Another grammatical treatise on the same coast language, as yet unpublished, is that of Wm. Ridley, bishop of Caledonia. When its contents are arranged more scientifically and appear in print, linguists will have an abundance of material at their disposal.

Tsimsián forms a linguistic family by itself. Its phonetics are rather simple, and the words are by no means so jaw-breaking as those of the Selish and Kwakiutl dialects adjacent on the south. Words terminate mostly in consonants, and some vowels have an indistinct pronunciation, as in English, but are not nasalized. A tendency towards assibilation is perceptible; guttural consonants are numerous, but labials and dentals are not, and surd explosive sounds are largely in excess of sonant explosives. Consonantic accumulations are observed chiefly at the *end* of words. The principal parts of speech, nouns and verbs, are but imperfectly distinguished from each other. What we call a verb in European languages is in Tsimsián a noun-verb, or, more properly, a noun qualified by a pronoun, which, according to the context, has to be construed either as a personal or as a possessive pronoun. Dr. Boas states that the independent form of the possessive pronoun is identical with the nominative of the personal pronoun. This implies that the expressions *I speak* and *my word* have to be rendered by the same term in Tsimsián. This structure of the sentence is common to many American languages, and prevails, for example, throughout the whole Algonkin family. In the verb there are three main tenses, and some subsidiary tense forms, all expressed by temporal particles and not by verbal affixes, as with us. But the tense-particles of the main tenses are used also in inflecting the noun, and, moreover, the pronouns, as *you*, *we*, *yours*, *ours*, are inflected for tense also. There is no substantive verb *to be* which can be used as a copula; but our verb *to be* is often replaced by verbs approximating the above function and defining *space* rather than anything else—to stay, to remain within, to be in a certain medium, to be so and so, to have, to do. Where the verb *to be* is intended to mean real and not casual existence, the position of the words in the phrase or sentence will indicate it. Temporal particles qualifying a verb stand before it; when qualifying a noun, after it.

Marking absence and presence is a very important object in this and in many other Indian languages. When the verb is in the third person, the article *da* or *dada* has to be added to the noun when presence of subject or object is implied; *ga* or *gaga*, when absence (local or temporal) has to be indicated. The sense of localization and distance from the speaker is much stronger in Indian speech than that of temporal, causal, or any other relation. In some categories, as in the attributive relation, prefixion is the rule. Thus, the adverb stands before the verb and not after it, and the adjective used attributively precedes the substantive it qualifies. Derivation of words, when material and not logical relations are implied, is effected by prefixes, and the same prefixes form verbs and nouns indiscriminately. Personal and modal inflection is performed by suffixes. Plurals of nouns and plurals of verbs are formed in precisely the same manner, and reduplication enters largely into the formation of both. When the object of a transitive verb stands in the plural, the verb assumes the plural form also, no matter whether the subject of the sentence is singular or plural.

Numerals are a fair example of what Indians can achieve in linguistic specializing. The Tsimsián counting system is quinary-vigesimal, and the numerals are rather short when not lengthened by affixes. Cardinals and ordinals assume no less than seven different forms intended as classifiers, describing the shape of the objects counted. One series serves to count when no definite object is referred to. The second counts flat objects and animals, the third round objects and divisions of time, perhaps because the sun and the moon, measures of time, have a round shape. The adverbial numeral is also expressed by this third series. Another or fourth series is em-

ployed to count persons, another objects of long shape, another canoes, another lineal measures. Most of these forms are made by suffixion; so large a number is unparalleled in any other tongue, though many languages express as many or more classes by the addition of separate words.

Count v. d. Schulenburg has shown much assiduity in gathering a large number of texts with German translation, and if the quotations from the New Testament are in good Tsimsián, the collection may be trusted to afford sterling material for study. But translations of foreign ideas are never so valuable for linguistics as are aboriginal mythologic, ethnographic, and historic texts. Count v. d. Schulenburg was doubtless aware of this, and therefore inserted among his specimens several native productions, accompanied by an interlinear German translation. These specimens consist of a satiric song, three native prayers, an historic text referring to Inverness, B. C., and two mythologic pieces —in all thirteen pages, contributed by Dr. Franz Boas. Throughout, the Count avails himself of *two* systems for the notation of Tsimsián, viz., that of Dr. Boas and that of the Gospel translations. This is an almost irremediable mistake, for the differences are at times very considerable, especially in the vowel elements. That the Count never visited this part of the Pacific Coast in person becomes evident at the first glance, and in respect to phonetics he follows the statements of his authorities rather closely, and is never definite as to certain uncommon sounds of the language. The sign *lth* should not be adopted to mark the palatalized sound *l*. His statement that the suffix *th* serves to designate what is "definite" and "exclusive" cannot possibly be made out from the sentences given by him. His examples are sometimes too abundant, sometimes too scanty; the display of them in grammatic categories makes of his book a useful collection of phrases and sentences for grammatic uses, but it cannot be properly called *a grammar*. His own infrequent remarks cannot be regarded as establishing grammatic laws or rules. His classification of the forms of the plural is neither complete nor logical, and his remarks about conjunctions, particles, etc., are a rude jumble. The vocabulary is rich, but consultation of it is rendered difficult by the missionary practice of entering derivatives under their respective roots. For instance, *gumgaud*, to bless, must be sought under *gaud*, heart, sense. Only a few attempts are made in the Dictionary to point out the etymology of the words quoted.

Scientific interest in the Northwestern languages is awakening; we have already monographs on the Eskimo, Tlingit, Haida, Tinné, Niskwali and Klamath, and considerable lexical work has been done for Nez-Percé and for a dialect of Vancouver Island. The main desideratum is native texts describing tribal history, customs, and myths, correctly worded, explained, and commented upon. The Rev. A. G. Morice has done excellent work for three dialects of Tinné spoken in the upper parts of the Fraser River valley, and an annual report of the Bureau of Ethnology will soon bring Lower Chinook texts, gathered from the last living representatives found at the mouth of the Columbia River, by Dr. Franz Boas.

## TWO NOVELS.

*Poor Folk.* By F. Dostoyevsky. Translated from the Russian by Lena Milman. London: Elkin Mathews & John Lane; Boston: Roberts Brothers.

*Lourdes.* Par Émile Zola. Paris: Charpentier; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer, B. Westermann & Co., and Brentanos.

It is interesting, in connection with this translation of Dostoyevsky's famous story, 'Poor Folk,' to recall briefly the circumstances of its first reading. Dostoyevsky, a young man, twenty-three years of age, had completed his course in the Engineers' Institute, and had entered the Government service, like his fellow-graduates. His dislike of this occupation led him, at the end of a year, to abandon it. He had no definite reason or plan of life, but was inspired to write 'Poor Folk.' His only literary acquaintance was Grigorovitch, who had published but one article at that time; and to him he gave his manuscript, that it might be shown to the poet Nekrasoff, who was making arrangements to print a periodical. Having given Grigorovitch his story, he spent the night with several friends rereading Gogol's 'Dead Souls.' It was the custom of the period for students to read and reread Gogol for the dozenth time whenever two or three chanced to meet of an evening. Returning home at four o'clock in the morning, in the brilliant daylight of a "white night" in June, Dostoyevsky sat down by his window, instead of going to bed, and was speedily summoned to the door by the ringing of the bell. Grigorovitch and Nekrasoff, unable to restrain their enthusiasm, had come to congratulate him on his work. Having begun with the idea that the perusal of ten pages would enable them to reach an opinion, they had been led on by interest and emotion to read the whole book aloud, and had taken turns as the voice of each failed. Nekrasoff's voice, they told him, had broken twice with uncontrollable feeling, as he read the description of the poor student's funeral. The next day Nekrasoff announced to the celebrated critic Byelinsky that "a new Gogol" had arisen. "Your Gogols spring up like mushrooms!" retorted Byelinsky; but by the evening, after reading the story, he was as much excited as Nekrasoff, and demanded that the new author be brought to him at once. 'Poor Folk' was published the next year, 1846.

As we read the simple, intensely pathetic story, told indirectly but with transparent lucidity in the letters of Mákar and Varvara, we cannot but share the feelings of the Russian readers and critics of half a century ago. The most elaborate attempt to depict squalid, hopeless poverty; the patient endurance of a wronged, ailing young girl; the kind heart, weak will, and magnificent unselfishness of a broken-down, witless old Government clerk, would be hopeless beside the power of this narrative contained in a series of letters so full of true art that their inherent artificiality never once occurs to the enthralled reader. Old Mákar Dyevushkin can watch the window of his distant relative, Varvara Dobroseloff, across the inner courtyard of one of those teeming tenement-houses whose dirt, discomforts, and queer occupants are lightly but surely described, touch by touch, in Mákar's attempts to convince Varvara that he is perfectly comfortable and undergoing no deprivations for the sake of supporting her. He rarely visits her, fearing that gossip will attack her, and that the world will not understand the pure and disinterested motives which impel him, wretchedly poor and addicted to drink, to starve and suffer in order that he may keep die in the poor young orphan girl, whose relationship to him is of the most distant sort, practically non-existent. As the ingenuous correspondence which takes the place of the inadvisable visits, proceeds, we penetrate the innermost recesses of these two hearts and characters, and of the hearts and characters of all the persons who are mentioned as side issues. At last Varvara marries the rich man who has wronged her in the past, and the story ends with a heart-broken wail from the old clerk who has loved her so faithfully and so disinterestedly. Where all is so perfect, it is hard to single out any passage for special admiration; but the episode, in Varvara's sketch of her life, of the student Pokrosky's funeral, followed only by his loving but degraded old father, is one of the gems of literature. It must be read to be even imagined.

The translation is delightful reading; the language is easy and elegant. But it certainly was not made direct from the Russian, and was made by a person who was ignorant of Russian localities and customs. The use of the German *j* (Djevuschkin, Jermolaev, Jermak) to represent the sound of *i*, or *y*, and the occasional rendering of the name Yemelyan as Emilius, and Aksentiy as Accentius, would seem to indicate that the German version served as original. The use of *child* in circumstances where the French would use *mon enfant*, of Eustace in place of Yevstafiy, and the manner in which the brief, forcible Russian sentences are rearranged or combined, are strongly suggestive of a French original, instead of the Russian. The translator's lack of practical knowledge of Russian leads to a loss of character. On page 5, Mákar writes of getting settled in his new lodging: "I have a bed, a table, a chest of drawers, *and some sort of curtains*." "I have hung up my saint's picture" is the national touch which Dostoyevsky wrote in place of the characterless phrase which we have italicized. "First vespers," instead of "all night" (vesper) service, is in the same category. Varvara tells how her family came from the country to live "in the neighborhood of Petersburg," and how they left that place for the "province of Vasiliev," and thanks Mákar for taking her to "walk on the island." It should read that they came to the "Petersburg quarter" (or ward) of the capital and removed to the quarter known as Vasily Island, and that Mákar treated her to the (for them) expensive luxury of a drive to "the islands," whither their weak health would certainly have prevented their walking as stated. Even people who are well never walk thither. "The cemetery at Volkovo" should read, "the Volkhoff cemetery." Several times the "Nevsky" (Prospekt), which runs at right angles to the Neva River, is mistaken for the river, and rendered, "the banks of the Neva," "by the Neva," "whether he lived on the Neva or on the quay." "On the Neva" means on the Nevsky Prospekt, and "on the quay" means on the Neva bank. "A money-lender who lives in Viborsko" should read, "who lives in the Viborg quarter" (of St. Petersburg). The word appears again, "I crossed Vibortski."

Instances of direct misunderstanding of the text are not rare. For example: "They punished me by making me take my meals in solitude," instead of "by giving me only one article of food." "I saw that he looked on me as his last hope, as it were, for he was engaged in a struggle, God only knows with whom," instead of "He spent his last penny on me, and struggled along himself, God only knows how." "My old lodging was no better than this one; it was but fairly comfortable," instead of, "To tell the truth, my old lodging was incomparably better than this one; it was more comfortable." "Why should I expect to have time for rest?" instead of "Why should we make a fuss?" "Coarse knitting-pins,"

instead of "yard-long knitting-pins." "It is her turn to suffer now," instead of "She will go to destruction." "The new wife turned everything in the house topsy-turvy; there was no living in it, and, moreover, she squandered all the money," instead of "She established her authority over all of them, and there was no living with her." "They change their governess every two years," instead of "This is the third governess they have had in two years." "Watergruel," instead of "Boiled buckwheat groats without butter." "But Sneguev, the porter, said I must not, for I should soil the brush, and the brush was a gentleman in Government employ," instead of "Snegireff . . . said, 'The brush, sir, belongs to the Government.'" A locksmith's apprentice is described as clad in a "stripped calatch," instead of "a striped kalat"; a calatch being a peculiar sort of wheaten roll, and a kalat, a long, loose coat, like a dressing-gown. Varvara's order that her handkerchiefs shall be marked "with tambour work, not with laid work," is translated, "On a frame, not in plain marking"—that is, evidently, not with pen and ink. The name Feodor is sometimes left in its Russian form, sometimes translated Theodore, which might indicate either a French or a German original; while the passage quoted from Ratazaev's absurd novel might have been mistranslated from any language but Russian. "Thou, my guiding star, hast led me so far, and for this even to the Stony Circle," should read "beyond the Belt of Stone"—that is to say, the Ural Mountains, which would have been appropriate to a Siberian love tale like that here referred to.

Mr. George Moore has furnished a very thoughtful and cleverly worded preface, which no reader of Dostoyevsky's story and no lover of Russian literature should fail to read.

Dulness itself is Zola's latest "novel," if such a name can be given to 'Lourdes.' There is no story whatever in the six hundred closely printed pages, for the ethereal loves of Pierre and Marie are so tenuous as to leave the reader absolutely cold. Zola is incapable of treating delicate sentiments; he neither feels nor recognizes them. His coarse, heavy touch crushes whatever is tender; his filthy imagination befouls whatever is pure. So there is no pleasure, no interest in the thin plot—so thin that it vanishes early. But one can do without plot nowadays, so many novelists and essayists and theorists have proclaimed that a story without a story, a bare, flabby, soulless thing, is the only true reproduction of life; so many authors have applied that doctrine and given us dialect instead of character, dreariness instead of excitement; therefore no one dreams of complaining of lack of plot in 'Lourdes.' But Zola has written some powerful passages in other days; the conflict of strikers and troops in 'Germinal,' the doing to death of the old man in 'La Terre,' the Weiss episode in 'La Débâcle' are examples that instantly recur to the memory. There is not one, absolutely not one, in 'Lourdes.' It is dull and dreary from beginning to end. Not the hospital train, conveying its load of horrors and miseries and credulities; not the torchlight procession of the numberless pilgrims; not the ecstasy of Marie followed by the supposed miracle, once inspires Zola to write with an approach to his old-time vigor. The repulsive diseases, the hideous wounds, the incurable sores, the putrescent horrors which the Virgin is expected to cure, are described with all the prosiness of detail and nauseating fulness which are naturally looked for from him; but out of this he has failed to evoke the powerful sensation of oppression, of horror, which alone could justify the catalogue. His characters are weak, shadowy, lacking consistence. Pierre, the unbelieving priest; Marie, the ecstatic girl, leave the faintest of impressions on the mind. The reader does not realize the wild fanaticism of credulous hope and superstitious belief which makes these thousands of sufferers abdicate the use of common sense and crowd to the spring from which their despair expects healing. The author has failed to penetrate the peculiar phase of mysticism which is exemplified in these strange pilgrimages, and it is not to be wondered at that Roman Catholics should feel angered; other believers and unbelievers alike merely feel bored. It does not really matter to them whether miracles are or are not wrought at Lourdes; all they know is that Zola's book is a painfully heavy report, badly digested, badly written, upon a generally sickening subject; all they wonder at is that a man of talent can deliberately perpetrate such a stupidity; all they enjoy is the thought that the numerous admirers of Zola's pornography will be bitterly disappointed also.

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*Songs, Poems, and Verses.* By Helen Lady Dufferin (Countess of Gifford). Edited, with a Memoir and some Account of the Sheridan Family, by her son, the Marquess of Dufferin and Ava. London: John Murray. 1894.

Lord Dufferin, in his preface to this volume, promises that he will give a more detailed account of his mother's life with a selection from her letters. This promise will, we hope, be shortly carried into effect, for the letters of so remarkable a woman must be of great interest. Lady Dufferin was the daughter of Thomas Sheridan, and the granddaughter of Richard Brinsley Sheridan. Of the latter, Lord Dufferin says that the Life yet remains to be written, and that hitherto "no famous man has been more unfortunate in his biographers." He considers that Brinsley Sheridan derived from his mother, who was Miss Chamberlaine before her marriage, "the divine spark which converted the mere talents he may be supposed to have inherited from his father into the genius which made him famous." Mrs. Sheridan wrote two novels and two plays. One of the novels, 'Nourjahad,' was praised by both Mr. Fox and Lord North. Mrs. Sheridan's play "The Discovery" was a favorite with Garrick, and when Brinsley Sheridan's play of "The Rivals" was running at Covent Garden, Garrick was acting in "The Discovery" at Drury Lane; so that, to quote Lord Dufferin's words, "two pieces, by the mother and the son, were being acted at the same moment at the two great London theatres." He adds (p. 17):

"Sheridan opposed the war with America; he deprecated the coalition between Fox and North; he advocated the abolition of slavery; he denounced the tyranny of Warren Hastings; he condemned the trade restrictions on Ireland; he fought for Catholic emancipation; he did his best to save the French royal family. He was also in favor of an eight-hours day."

Sheridan married Miss Linley, the daughter of a musician at Bath. Her beauty is preserved in her portraits by Romney, Gainsborough, and Reynolds. Lord Dufferin says that "one bishop called her the connecting link between a woman and an angel; and another said that to look at her when singing was like looking into the face of a seraph." Reynolds painted her as Saint Cecilia, and he introduced her portrait in his figure of Charity in the painted window of New College Chapel at Oxford. Thomas Sheridan, the father of Lady Dufferin, married Miss Callander, who was as remarkable for her "firm character and abiding sense of duty" as she was for her beauty. Lord Dufferin gives this anecdote of his grandfather: "One day his father, remonstrating with him in reference to some matter, exclaimed, 'Why, Tom, my father would never have permitted me to do such a thing!' 'Sir,' said his son in a tone of the greatest indignation, 'do you presume to compare *your* father to *my* father?'" From the Sheridans Lady Dufferin inherited wit, humor, and gayety. Lord Dufferin says: "The Sheridans, though they fell afterwards upon evil days, were originally an ancient, affluent, and important family," possessing "the Sheridan Country" in the County Cavan. He attributes their "continuous intellectual activity" to the persecutions of Fate which beset them for two hundred years. Literary ability appeared in every branch of the family. A great-nephew of Richard Brinsley Sheridan, Joseph Sheridan Le Fanu, when a child, wrote in a few lines an "Essay on the Life of Man," which ran as follows (p. 22):

"A man's life naturally divides itself into three distinct parts: the first when he is planning and contriving all kinds of villany and rascality. *That is the period of youth and innocence.* In the second, he is found putting in practice all the villany and rascality he has contrived. *That is the flower of manhood and prime of life.* The third and last period is that when he is making his soul and preparing for another world. *That is the period of dotage.*"

Lady Dufferin was one of a family of three daughters and four sons, all remarkable for beauty and talent. Her sisters were the Duchess of Somerset (the Queen of Beauty at the Eglinton Tournament) and Mrs. Norton, whose novels and poems are well known. When very young, she married Commander Blackwood, R.N., afterwards fourth Lord Dufferin and Clandeboye. Her only child, the present Marquess of Dufferin, was born in Italy a year after her marriage, and to her husband and her son Lady Dufferin devoted the whole force of her affectionate nature. The best of her verses were addressed to them.

Some of Lady Dufferin's songs, such as "The Irish Emigrant" and "The Bay of Dublin," are known all over the world. She was acquainted with nearly all the distinguished writers of her time, including Lord Beaconsfield. Her acquaintance with the elder Disraeli was delayed, owing to a quarrel between the father and son, but at length they arrived together, and Lord Beaconsfield, "setting his father down on a chair and looking at him as if he were some object of *vertu* of which he wanted to dispose, . . . said, 'Mrs. Blackwood, I have brought you my father. I have become reconciled to my father on two conditions: the first was that he should come to see *you*—the second, that he should pay my debts'" (p. 59).

In 1862, just at the time of her son's marriage, Lady Dufferin married the Earl of Gifford, the eldest son of the Marquess of Tweeddale. Lord Gifford, who was many years younger than Lady Dufferin, had been devoted to her from a boy; he was now dying, and she consented to the marriage in order that she might devote herself to his comfort and relief. Two months afterwards he died. A few years later she was attacked with cancer. An operation gave her hope of a cure, and for a short time she seemed more than

ever "filled with the delight of living." But the disease soon returned, and her one desire was to conceal from her son her own conviction that the symptoms were fatal. She would not speak to him of her condition, but she wrote a diary for him to read after her death, in which she poured forth her feelings. The following passage relates to her departure from Clandeboye, when the return of her illness had just been discovered (p. 99):

"That last day at Clandeboye was full of sweet and bitter thoughts to me. I walked round the lake and took leave of all the old (and new) places. I sat upon the fallen tree at 'the mother's seat,' and looked long at the Tower. . . . May all those objects be pleasant memories to you. I had a poignant thought of regret in thinking I should see them no more (at least with my earthly eyes), for I have occasional happy fancies of some sort of spiritual presence with those we love that may be permitted after death, and, if so, how continually I shall be with my darling—alone or in company—in your walks or by your fireside—the fervor of my love, my blessing, my whole soul will surely encompass you."

Six months later, in June, 1867, Lady Dufferin died.

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*The Ethics of Hegel:* Translated Selections from his 'Rechtsphilosophie.' With an Introduction. By J. Macbride Sterrett, D.D., Professor of Philosophy in the Columbian University, Washington, D. C. Boston: Ginn & Co.

MORAL philosophy is itself exposed to two opposite moral maladies, for ethical research begins only after we find we are already practically committed to moral positions. If, then, in this research, honesty, benevolence, courage, decency are to be seriously called in question and submitted to debate, how will it comport with any man's social obligations to take part in the examination? If, on the other hand, the investigation means less than that, what is it, after all, but a white-washing commission, a merely formal inquiry arranged to reach a foregone conclusion? Logicians may squirm in between the horns of this dilemma; but certain it is that they indicate two real, two reallest, dangers that beset the student of ethics.

One cannot well deny that Hegel sins in the latter of these ways. He tips us the wink at the beginning of each of his books, to let us know that he is all right. His personal history shows the same thing. His philosophy had to square itself with the Lutheran Church, under penalty of not being adopted as the Prussian philosophy of state. All the right wing of the school (who were the most consistent of the Hegelians) struggle to make it appear that Hegelianism is eminently Christian; and it is true that Hegelianism is, in some points, in striking accord with the sort of metaphysics which prevailed in the ages that formed the creed, and, further, that the precepts of the Gospel, as softened by modern glosses, are not without some resemblance to Hegelian ideas of the conduct of life. But that is all. Nor does the second malady protect Hegelian ethics from the first. For, after having immorally pledged himself not to disturb Christian ideas, Hegel betrays his confiding disciple in this respect. Christianity, namely, purporting to be based on historical facts and personal experiences, demands unquestioning fidelity to certain *sentiments*, while Hegelianism is one of the least sentimental of doctrines, and, whatever sentiments it may approve, approves as a part of a system with a singularly raw and chilly approval. In short, Hegelianism has too much Hegel in it to be in any hearty accord with the spirit of Christ. It would perhaps be too much to demand that, in rising from the perusal of a treatise on morals, we should find ourselves spiritually nourished. Certainly, the 'Rechtsphilosophie' is a repast of bran.

The book of selections before us is by a Christian minister, and is intended to impart to college undergraduates such slender notion of the Hegelian ethics as is consistent with their acquainting themselves with all the other principal ethical theories in the limited time and with the immature powers they can bring to that study which, beyond all others, calls for wisdom and for rumination. Whether under the circumstances the author accomplishes what was to be expected of him is a question that must be answered in the light of the above considerations. Dr. Sterrett appears to be, among that little company of thinkers who have been swept out of the mid-stream of the world's thought and caught in the side-eddy of Hegelianism—all of them having narrow enough horizons—the one whose discipleship is the most slavish. Such a worship is unjust to Hegel—it is almost a libel upon him, because Hegel would be the first to perceive, if he were here to-day, that the logic of history had weighed his system in the balance and found it wanting.

How ethics ought to be taught depends very much upon whether it is to be made one of the earliest studies of the college curriculum or one of the latest. It is to be presumed that such works as compose Prof. Sneath's "Ethical Series," of which this volume is the second number, are to be studied in the last year. The student will, therefore, already have heard something about the Hegelian philosophy and have had a dip into the Hegelian logic. With such preparation, the exposition of Hegel's ethics here given by Dr. Sterrett ought to be intelligible enough, and will enable the student to gain an *unreflective* acquaintance with that system in some detail. Without previous information, the student would be at sea.

About two-thirds of the volume is taken up with extracts from the 'Rechtsphilosophie,' accurately and well translated, and an abstract of the introduction to the work. The other third supplies bibliography, biography, exposition, and comparison with *previous* systems. The idea of the series seems to be that, since Hegel, nothing of any importance has been written about ethics, for we are told it "at present will include six volumes" on Hobbes, Clarke, Locke, Hume, Kant, Hegel. A college student who should be led to believe that in studying these writers he was studying what was most important in the history of ethics, would, we need not say, be duped.

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*On Short Leave to Japan.* By Capt. G. I. Younghusband. Sampson Low, Marston & Co.

THIS British officer, of whom we have heard in Mantchuria and Burmah, presents as the apology for his hardihood in inflicting "yet another book on Japan," that "the latest news of so interesting a country may not be altogether unacceptable." The fresh news he offers is almost wholly in the seventeenth and final chapter, in which he describes, from some actual observations, the army of Japan. He travelled over the beaten tracks, and relies on Chamberlain's 'Things Japanese' and the same author's 'Murray's Hand-Book,' with Mitford's 'Tales of Old Japan,' for perspective and information. He serves up the familiar jokes, Anglican criticisms on Americans, and commonplace reflections upon things which have been described, almost monthly, in book-publications in some European language since 1875. The penultimate chapter will be of interest to Englishmen at home or in India, because of its detail of expenses and hints on travel in the islands.

In the chapter on the Japanese army we have, not an echo, but a clear tone, and the judgment of this military expert is of special value at this time. Under the system of universal conscription in vogue for over eighteen years past, service with the colors is for three years, then nine years in the reserve, and then a last resting-place in the territorial army till the day of final absolution from military service. The age of conscription is from seventeen to forty. The Japanese army now numbers 228,848 men of all arms, or 113,229 in the reserve and 53,187 in the territorial division. The peace strength, therefore, is 56,589, and this, the author thinks, "is the number that may be calculated upon as available for extra-territorial campaigns." Naturally the short-legged Japanese are compared with the Goorkas of the Indian army. The author praises the cleanliness of the barracks and the wholesomeness of the rations. He goes into enough detail of rank and pay, rate of promotion, etc., to give one a good idea of the *morale* of the force, which seems to be excellent. In describing the Murata rifle, the author must have had before him one of the non-repeaters, for the standard arm is a magazine gun carrying ten cartridges. With the infantry drill and bayonet exercise he was well pleased, but, like almost every foreign critic, he has only strictures for the cavalry. Organic causes enable the Japanese to be a better foot-soldier than cavalryman. "Equitation, many maintain, is an inherited quality. Generations of riders beget sons with legs long in proportion to their bodies, and so formed as to fit readily to the horse's back." Added to the thick thighs and short legs of the Japanese men are the heavy shoulders and bull-dog necks of the horses, which are seldom over fourteen hands high, have little speed, are wanting in hardiness, and trip violently even at a walk. Foreign horses have not yet been successfully acclimated. Hence the cavalry is the weakest arm of the service, and the full proportion for the colors has never yet been attained. Capt. Younghusband is all astray, however, when he says, "In all the history of the past, we have not yet been able to find an allusion to cavalry," etc. On the contrary, large bodies of mounted horsemen have taken part in the battles of the great civil wars in the middle ages and even down to the sixteenth century. Both picture and text in native literature are voluminous on this subject. Some interesting discussions concerning a possible war with China follow, the author urging that Japan is worthy of cultivation as an ally of England.

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*The Historic Episcopate.* By Charles Woodruff Shields, D.D., LL.D. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894.

*English Orders:* Whence Obtained. By the Rev. John Bainbridge Smith, M.A. London: Skeffington & Son. 1893.

IT is Dr. Shields's opinion that the chief lesson of the Chicago Parliament of Religions was the necessity of Christian harmony and unity in order to establish the supremacy of Christianity throughout the earth. "Let that lesson go unheeded, and the Christian religion may only have exposed its weakness in the face of its enemies." Dr. Shields's basis of

"harmony and unity" is that of the Lambeth Conference: The Bible as the Ultimate Rule of Faith; The Apostles' and Nicene Creed; Baptism and the Lord's Supper; The Historical Episcopate. The most weight is put upon the last of the four corners of the house. The others would, of course, exclude the Roman Catholics and all the liberal sects, but that could not be helped, and Dr. Shields permits himself a hope that on either side these might approximate to the Lambeth quadrilateral. Exception is taken to Dr. Briggs's "union by confederation," and also to Dr. W. R. Huntington's "union by consolidation," *i. e.*, by absorption in the Episcopal Church. Indeed, Dr. Shields is very careful to make out that his scheme will not be in any special way advantageous or glorious for the Episcopalians.

His own method is that of "unification by organic growth." In his endeavor to explain it he is extremely vague, his predicates tending to identity with his subjects in a treadmill fashion—motion without advance. The nearest approach to anything practical is a kind of double ordination, at once episcopal and presbyterian. The whole discussion has a far-away look, and a blind side for the forces that are operating powerfully and destructively on at least two of the four Lambeth propositions, those relating to the Bible and the creeds.

Mr. Smith's little book 'English Orders: Whence Obtained' is an interesting and amusing comment on the course of Dr. Shields's 'Historic Episcopate.' It is a laborious attempt to trace the line of English Episcopal consecration from the earliest times. Its object is to show that the present archbishops and bishops of the English Church undoubtedly and all but exclusively trace their orders to a Roman source. But this conclusion is not meant to operate in favor of Roman jurisdiction, for it is shown that this was not completed until the time of King John. That it should reach its term in Henry VIII. was a bit of poetic justice that could hardly be excelled. Mr. Smith is at great pains to make out a valid consecration for Elizabeth's Bishop Parker, and it would be churlish at this remove to refuse him and others the comfort which his argument involves. It is interesting to notice that had the Restoration of 1660 been delayed a little longer, the Anglican episcopate would have come to an end, and oh the difference to Pusey and other sticklers for the apostolical succession! The last of the bishops of Charles I. died in 1670.

Mr. Smith's patient compilation does not stand merely for some idiosyncrasy of his own mind. It is an expression of a widespread and deep-rooted sense of the importance of the episcopate as something sacramental, magical. The disinclination of all those who have this sense to any such policy as that suggested by Dr. Shields would be immense, and hardly less that of the average Presbyterian, loyal to the traditions of his church. And some, we are convinced, will find it smacking more of ecclesiastical ambition and the fear of modern thought than of the desire of common work for moral and religious ends. Dr. Shields is undoubtedly right when he asserts a growing tendency to the ecclesiastical spirit. It rejoices his heart. Others will be differently affected.

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*Ricerche intorno alla Vita e alle Opere di Giambattista Cima.* Conegliano, 1893.

THE Italians of to-day, like their Roman ancestors, may be described as a race with a passion for monuments. Having filled their cities, towns, and villages with statues of Victor Emmanuel and Garibaldi, those communities which have had a painter of renown among the number of their citizens are taking every opportunity to remind themselves and the universe of this fact. Last year Borgo San Sepolcro unveiled a monument to Pier dei Franceschi. Bassano is erecting one to Jacopo da Ponte; and Conegliano, not to be left behind, has put up a neat tablet in the arcade of its town-hall to the memory of Cima, and, what is more to the purpose, has published a monograph containing a great deal of fresh information about this strenuous painter. All praise is due to the compilers of this work, Signori Botteon and Aliprandi, for the diligence with which they have searched through their own archives, and for their abstaining from the dithyrambic language too frequently indulged in by Italian municipal critics.

The fresh documents prove conclusively that Giovanni Battista Cima was born and brought up at Conegliano, and not, as Messrs. Crowe and Cavalcaselle supposed, at Udine. It was doubtless this ill-founded supposition that led these critics to see Friulan crudities in works of such classic Venetian merit as the "Madonna and Saints" of Vicenza, or the "St. John" of Santa Maria dell'Orto at Venice. The date of Cima's birth can now be put no later than January or February, 1460, for his signature is found in a document of 1474, and, according to Venetian law, a male attained his majority at the age of fourteen. Cima, it appears, was the family name of the painter, and not, as Boschini imagined, a fatuous pun on his own conceit, nor, as Messrs. Crowe and Cavalcaselle fancied, a reference to Cima's putting mountain peaks (*cime*) in his backgrounds. The painter seems, however, to have been the first to use this form of the name, shortened from Cimatore (cloth-shearer), a name derived from the trade pursued by his ancestors for at least two generations.

Cima did not leave Conegliano definitely until 1489, although the picture at Vicenza of that date proves that he must have had his training and formed his style at Venice. From that date until 1516 we find him living in Venice, twice married, having had two sons by his first wife, and three sons and three daughters by the second. In 1516 he returned to Conegliano, settling down comfortably in the house left him by his father, a house still existing. He died intestate no later certainly than September 1, 1518, and probably a year earlier. He did not, therefore, die young, as Vasari says, although he seems to have been just at the height of his powers as a painter. In no other work do his qualities appear more attractive than in his last, the one in the Brera representing St. Peter enthroned. This picture is even more porcelain-like in the coolness of its tones, is even more transparent in the shadows and firmer in drawing, than the other works of this uniformly excellent master. What he would have done had he lived longer, whether he would, like Catena, have felt the kindling glow of Giorgione, are questions one cannot help asking.

The catalogue of Cima's works contained in this monograph is by far the most complete in existence. Unfortunately, however, it is of no great value, as it has not been compiled by carefully trained connoisseurs, and the authors have not so much as seen many of the pictures described. But, to compensate for this, we have detailed accounts of the history and vicissitudes of the more important works. Particularly interesting are the documents relating to the "Incredulity of Thomas," and its history down to the date of its acquisition by the National Gallery. Until 1818 the picture remained on the altar in the Church of San Francesco at Portogruaro, for which it was painted, but in that year it was sent to Venice to be restored. There it remained until 1833, having had in the meantime a narrow escape from destruction by flood, when it fell and lay in salt water for some hours. Scarcely returned to Portogruaro, the altar-piece began to show signs of peeling off, and in 1852 it was again sent to be retored. This proved useless, as it immediately began to peel off again. In 1861 Sir Charles Eastlake saw it and offered forty thousand francs for it, but the question of proprietorship prevented its sale. It was finally bought for the National Gallery—of course not for the British Museum, as the authors say—by Mr. Boxall, for £1,800, and "in the British Museum they now show visitors what English gold could do to rob Italy of so precious an art treasure."

This monograph cannot be regarded as a final work upon Cima. It makes no attempt to recreate his artistic personality, nor does it try to connect him with the art movement of his time, though it is in this connection that Cima is particularly interesting. Why it is that Sebastiano del Piombo signed himself as a "pupil of Giovanni Bellini" on a picture which betrays no influence but Cima's, is a problem that still remains to be solved. Morelli's supposition that Cima must have been for some time the foreman of Bellini's workshop seems a likely one, but it needs corroboration. Cima's influence on such a fascinating artist as Catena, and on one so sympathetic as Lotto, was certainly considerable, and if all such points were carefully worked out, we should probably find that Cima was more than a mere painter of severe Madonnas and ascetic saints. But the monograph of Don Vincenzo Botteon and Doctor Aliprandi has at least the merit of making an elaborate study of Cima much more fruitful than it could have been hitherto.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Baarnhielm, Miss E. W. The Icicle, and Other Poems. Glen Ridge, N. J.: The Author.
Bramantip, Bocardo. The Abraham Lincoln Myth: An Essay in "Higher Criticism." Mascot Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Bruce, Wallace. Panorama of the Hudson. New York: Bryant Literary Union. $1.
Butler, G. P. School English. American Book Co. 75 cents.
Butler, W. A. Mrs. Limber's Raffle. New ed. Appletons. 75 cents.
Caine, Hall. The Manxman. Appletons. $1.50.
Clifford, Mrs. W. K. A Wild Proxy. Cassell. 50 cents.
Crookes, Prof. William. Select Methods in Chemical Analysis. 3d ed., rewritten and enlarged. Longmans, Green & Co. $8.
Dale, Darley. Lottie's Wooing. Cassell. 50 cents.
Doyle, A. C. Micah Clarke. Harpers. $1.75.
Doyle, A. C. Micah Clarke. [School Edition.] Longmans, Green & Co. 50 cents.
Fabre, Ferdinand. Mon Ami Gaffarot. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Fiske, John. A History of the United States for Schools. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Fowler, J. K. Recollections of Old Country Life. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.
France, Anatole. Le Luys Rouge. Paris: Calmann Lévy.
Frankland, Prof. and Mrs. Percy. Micro-Organisms in Water. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Freeman, Prof. E. A. The History of Sicily from the Earliest Times. Vol. IV. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Gladden, Rev. Washington. The Church and the Kingdom. F. H. Revell Co. 50 cents.
Graduate Courses: A Handbook for Graduate Students Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard Graduate Club. 15 cents.
Heyse, Paul. A Divided Heart. Brentanos. $1.25.
Hime, Lieut.-Col. H. W. L. The Outlines of Quaternions. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.
Holmes, Mary J. The House of Five Gables. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Hope, Anthony. A Change of Air. Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.
Hopkins, R. C. Roses and Thistles. San Francisco: William Doxey. $2.
Hornung, E. W. The Unbidden Guest. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Houston, Prof. E. J. A Dictionary of Electrical Words, Terms and Phrases. 3d ed. W. J. Johnston Co. $5.
Howells, W. D. The Garroters: A Farce. Harpers. 50 cents.
Howland, Marie. Papa's Own Girl. Lovell, Coryell & Co. 50 cents.
Hubbard, Elbert. No Enemy (but Himself). Putnams. $1.50.

Hudson, Prof. W. H. An Introduction to the Philosophy of Herbert Spencer. Appletons. $1.25.
Hufford, Mrs. Lois G. Selections from Ruskin. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.
Jókai, Maurus. Eyes Like the Sea. Putnams $1.
Jókai, Maurus. Timar's Two Worlds. Appletons. $1.
Jacobi, Dr. Mary Putnam. Found and Lost. Putnams. 50 cents.
King, Dr. C. R. The Life and Correspondence of Rufus King. Vol. I. Putnams. $5.
Méneval, Baron Claude-François de. Memoirs Illustrating the History of Napoleon I., from 1802 to 1815. Vols. II, III. Appletons. $2 each.
Meyer, Rev. F. B. The Bells of Is. F. H. Revell Co. 75 cents.
Mitchell, F. E. The Secret of Success. Success Publishing Co.
Monkhouse, Allan. Books and Plays. London: Mathews & Lane; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Moore, F. F. "I Forbid the Banns." Cassell. 50 cents.
Morris, William, and Magnússon, Eirikir. The Heimskringla. Vol II. [The Saga Library.] London: Bernard Quaritch.
Müller, C. C. Tables for the Writing of Exercises in the Study of Harmony. Second Series. W. A. Pond & Co.
Ponslevi, Perpetuo. Magdalena. Rand, McNally & Co.
Prince, J. T. Arithmetic by Grades. 8 Books. Teachers' Manual for Using. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Rand, E. L., and Redfield, J. H. Flora of Mt. Desert Island, Maine. Cambridge: John Wilson & Son.
Rathbone, St. George. The Bachelor of the Midway. Mascot Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Richards, Mrs. Laura E. Narcissa. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 50 cents.
Richter, Eugene. Pictures of the Future. New York: Optimus Printing Co. 50 cents.
Simpson, F. M. Drawing-Room Duologues. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Smith, Constance. A Cumberer of the Ground. Harpers. 50 cents.
Smith, Mrs. Hannah W. The Science of Motherhood. F. H. Revell Co. 35 cents.
Smith, W. P. Climbing in the British Isles. I.—England. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Spalding, F. P. A Text-Book on Roads and Pavements. John Wiley & Sons. $2.
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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER* 13, 1894.

## The Week.

THERE will be no business revival in this country for several years to come if the Republican campaign orators and managers can have their way about it. One by one they are taking the position that there cannot and must not be a return of prosperity till the Democrats are put out of office. This was the burden of ex-Speaker Reed's "keynote," struck a few weeks ago, and it is the burden of that struck by Mr. McKinley at Bangor on Saturday. Ex-President Harrison has not struck his formal "keynote" yet, but the few guarded observations that he has permitted himself to make have all displayed an undertone of hostility towards good times and prosperity which shows that he has his eye on those un-Republican and un-American manifestations, and will join with the other statesmen of his party in rebuking and suppressing them when the proper time comes. Mr. McKinley agrees with Mr. Reed that the present tariff bill is not a finality, since "it is a settlement which does not settle anything," and he takes the ground that the only way by which to make it a finality till the end of Cleveland's term is to elect a Republican Congress this fall. A Democratic victory, he says, would mean "further and longer steps in the direction of free trade—deeper cuts and more deadly blows upon our industrial life"; while a Republican victory would mean that, "during the closing half of Mr. Cleveland's administration, the enemies of the protective system will be unable successfully to wage war upon the prosperity of the country"—meaning the prosperity of the past as it existed under the blessed McKinley law.

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Senator Jones's withdrawal from the Republican party is followed by the announcement, in the columns of the New York *Press*, that Senator Dubois intends to follow his example unless the next Republican national convention shall declare for the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1. This means free coinage without reference to the policy of any other nation. The Senator from Idaho says also that if the Republican party does not come up to the mark in 1896, Senator Teller of Colorado and several others will go the same way. These outgivings have a good deal of significance in a political way. The *Press* itself views them with great alarm. This paper is founded upon the idea that the American people, although possessing the richest country on the globe in respect of natural resources, cannot make a living without a tariff, and consequently it is almost pallid in the presence of this secession of the rotten boroughs that were brought in as States in order to maintain the Republican majority in the Senate. It appeals to them to consider "the recent utterances of Republicans like Reed, Lodge, Hoar, Cameron, and others." It says that the movement towards free coinage in the East is slow, but it is in the right direction. It admonishes the party in the East to consider "the vast dimensions of the injury that has been inflicted upon the West by the demonetization of silver and the constant appreciation of gold"; all these remarks being suggestions that a fifty-cent piece ought to be declared equal to a dollar.

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As to declaring for free coinage by separate action on the basis of 16 to 1, the Republican national convention is quite as likely to pass a resolution endorsing the Wilson tariff bill. Such a step would snuff out the party in most of the states east of the Mississippi River, and would gain nothing west of it that they have not held heretofore. Under such circumstances party necessity and party wisdom alike require that these rotten-borough Senators, who are Populists at heart, should be told in their own expressive language to "vamose the ranch." Their departure cannot be long delayed in any case. Therefore they should be ushered out with no more ceremony than ordinary politeness requires. The country will be much benefited by having all the free-coinage men in one party, instead of hanging on the skirts of two parties and giving direction to both. It has cost the nation upwards of four hundred million dollars to cater to the silverites without really pleasing them. Now let them "flock all alone," and let us see how many people really want a fifty-cent dollar.

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While national issues were the controlling ones in the recent election of a Governor and Legislature in Vermont—according to the absurd fashion in such cases—there seems good reason to believe that the great Republican majority, which has never been equalled in any other year midway of a Presidential term, was in part due to the refreshing contrast between the character and methods of the Republican candidate for Governor this year, and in the two previous gubernatorial contests. Both in 1888 and in 1890 men were nominated who, to quote the words of the Rutland *Herald*, "would never by any possibility have been dreamed of as candidates in anything like a close State, but managed to get the support of nearly all the party men who direct the State machine." Both were men who had a good deal of money and who were ready to spend it in the many ways, short of downright purchase, by which it is possible to interest the men who "run the machine" in carrying caucuses and conventions. Neither had any hold upon the masses of the voters, and in each case there was much resentment among independent-minded Republicans at their success. This year, on the other hand, a man worthy to be Governor was made the candidate without a resort to crooked or questionable methods, and every Republican in the State felt that his nomination ought to be endorsed. The small Republican majorities in 1890 and 1892, and the large majority this year, therefore, all indicate the healthiness of public sentiment in a State so one-sided politically as Vermont.

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The Ohio wool-growers met in annual convention for the thirtieth time last week, and we do not wonder that they were filled with impotent rage as they contemplated the fruit of their labors for a generation. In 1867 they succeeded in getting monstrous duties laid for their benefit, only to see them lowered in 1883. Then they persisted in exacting the uttermost farthing from McKinley in 1890, with the result of stirring up such indignation against them that they are now left without any protection at all. Meanwhile the price of wool has been steadily going down year by year. For more than a year the laws of trade have been setting protection on wool at defiance, and American wool has been practically on a free-trade basis. "Our property [that is, the right to levy taxes]," says Judge Lawrence, "has been annihilated." This may be admitted, with rejoicing. But the real property of wool-growers, in the sense of their actual sheep and actual wool, as distinguished from sheep and wool for platform purposes only, has not been touched by the new tariff. One audacious man rose to affirm as much in the convention, and to point out that the price of American wool was actually advancing. Such heresy took away the breath of the "wool kings" for a time, but they soon recovered it sufficiently to vilify the unhappy farmer who ventured to set up as a student of markets, not of maxims. But, though they howled him down, they cannot howl down the market reports. Here is one sent from Chicago, just as the wool-growers' convention was meeting, which speaks of the woollen market as "firm," with holders determined not to "reduce

values," and which lays down the broad proposition that "the great medium grade of wool which is produced in the United States, both staple and clothing, will no doubt hold its own against all foreign wool of the same quality."

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If the financial condition of the Fall River cotton-mills is contrasted with that of the mills at Oldham in England, it would seem that our manufacturers have little need to fear foreign competition. The capital of the Fall River mills is about $21,000,000, and during the current year they have paid dividends at the rate of about 5 per cent. per annum upon this capital. Probably some have not earned their dividends, but others may have earned more than they have paid. This is not a very satisfactory rate of profit for manufacturing concerns, but it is doing pretty well, considering the hard times. It would be thought doing very well in Oldham. The president of the Manchester Statistical Society shows that 101 cotton-spinning companies in that district have a capital amounting to £7,372,000. During the last six months 65 of these companies have paid no dividends; the other 36 have managed to distribute the meagre sum of £35,667. Returns of profit and loss are made by 93 companies, 41 showing a profit of £52,900, and 52 showing a loss of £344,609, or a net adverse balance for the 101 of £291,709. We should add that the English reports include money borrowed on mortgage in the capital account, so that the share capital is really not very much more than half the amount given above. In fact, the net loss is nearly 10 per cent. of the share capital. It is hardly reasonable to maintain that foreign competitors in this wretched financial condition are likely to be formidable to New England cotton-manufacturers.

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The annual statistical report of the American Iron and Steel Association for the year 1893 by James M. Swank, is published. We learn from the introductory matter that the association has been compelled, by lack of funds, to discontinue the publication of tariff tracts, but that it left no stone unturned to prevent the passage of the new tariff bill. It records in an historical way the final passage of that bill, but does not say what it thinks of the measure, since it has passed, merely remarking that "now that the worst is known, all employers of labor may well look forward and not backward." Evidently the world is not coming to an end yet. The statistics of iron and steel production for 1893 show a decline of about two million tons of pig, nearly one million tons of Bessemer steel ingots, and about half a million tons of rails as compared with 1892. This slackening of demand was due to the slackening of railway construction and of locomotive and car-building, both of which fell off about one-half. On the other hand, iron-ship building, including vessels for the navy, increased 20 per cent. Our exports of iron and steel in all forms, including locomotives and other machinery, also increased, rising from a little under twenty-eight million in 1892 to a little more than thirty million dollars' worth in 1893. The mining of iron ore fell off 4,700,000 tons. That of coal remained nearly stationary. The statistics of foreign iron and steel show that our production of pig-iron in 1893 exceeded that of Great Britain by nearly 200,000 tons, while in Bessemer steel ingots we exceeded her by 1,700,000 tons.

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New England papers are calling attention to the great exodus of French-Canadians, who are returning to their old homes in a steady stream, the number who have crossed the border into the province of Quebec since the beginning of summer being estimated at about 40,000. Judging from the way people generally talked about these immigrants when they began coming, we should expect to hear their departure greeted with, "A good riddance to bad rubbish," but there are no signs of satisfaction. The truth seems to be that they have overcome a good deal of the prejudice which formerly existed against them. They have proved an orderly element, and the dangers apprehended from their clannishness and other race faults have proved less than was apprehended.

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Judging from the experience of Postmaster Dayton, there would be no surer way of hastening the progress of civil-service reform than by shipping the chief spoilsmen to England, with instructions to study the workings of the merit system where it has been in operation for many years. Mr. Dayton is most frank and emphatic in his confessions. To a question by the London correspondent of the New York *Times* whether there is enough difference between English and American practice regarding the civil service in the department to attract his attention, he replied:

> "Yes, my admiring attention. It is hard for an American to realize how completely the notion of partisanship, offensive or defensive, has been eradicated from the civil service here. The postmaster-general is, of course, a politician, who retires with a change of administration. When he is an important public and party man, like Mr. Morley, he has a seat in the cabinet. But think of it! Out of the 125,000 men in the postal service of Great Britain, not to mention 16,000 women, he is positively the only individual whose tenure of place can be affected by any political change."

Mr. Dayton says further that he has devoted some time to investigating this particular question, and that the employees are "perfectly free to hold party views, and I find some of my friends among them belonging to political clubs, equivalent to the Manhattan or Union League at home, but of aggressive partisanship I can't discover a trace. It isn't that they dissemble it; they simply don't feel it—don't know what it is." Evidently this was an unexpected revelation to the postmaster of New York, though the facts are perfectly familiar to every student of governmental methods. It may be hoped that Mr. Dayton will return cured of the absurd idea with which he announced his acceptance of the office, that in filling vacancies he should always give the preference to members of Tammany Hall.

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The present canvass in Georgia has a bearing upon the discussion of the referendum system. Three amendments to the Constitution are to be passed upon by the voters at the State election on the first Wednesday in October—one changing the time for the meeting of the Legislature from October to July, the second providing for an increase in the number of Supreme Court judges from three to five, and the third granting pensions to ex-Confederate soldiers who are indigent, as well as to those suffering from wounds. So little attention has been paid to any one of these subjects that the Savannah *News* feels moved to say:

> "What about the constitutional amendments that are to be voted upon at the approaching State election? Are any of the candidates discu sing them, and explaining the meaning of them, and what their effect would be if they should be adopted? If not, why not? It is of the utmost importance that the people should vote understandingly upon these amendments."

The *News* proceeds to discuss the questions involved, and points out that the people ought not to be left to vote blindly on the pension amendment particularly, since it may be that its adoption would greatly increase the tax burden—though nobody has yet presented any figures on either side. If it is so hard to get people to take interest in amendments to the Constitution, it is easy to imagine what would happen if a number of proposed laws were submitted to popular vote at every election. Calling the process of submission "the referendum" is not going to make any difference—as it would almost seem that some advocates of the system really suppose.

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The greatest production of gold in any one year prior to 1893 was that of 1853, when both Australia and California were making their greatest output. But the gold product in 1893, a year of slackened production in most lines, was the greatest ever recorded. Moreover, this high figure—$155,522,000—was the result of a very quick response to an increased de-

mand, for in 1889 the production was but $110,197,000. The recent increase in the gold product of this country is mainly due to the cessation of the artificial stimulus to silver production given by the act of 1890. The Government purchases of silver being stopped, the mining companies found that there was more profit in mining gold, and they have therefore changed their industry. In other countries new mines have been discovered and abandoned ones have been reopened; while in all countries improved processes have been employed, by which refractory ores that were formerly deemed unworkable can be reduced. The quickly exhausted alluvial deposits are no longer the chief source of supply. Powerful machinery, better mining appliances, and new chemical processes are continually cheapening production. There appears to be ample evidence to justify the belief that the production of gold will continue to increase under the influences that have recently stimulated it. With these facts before the public, it may be hoped that those who have been sincerely apprehensive of a "gold famine" will experience some relief of their anxiety. According to the arguments of the bimetallists, this increased production of gold is pregnant with benefit to the "debtor class." If we may speak for the "creditor class," we can say that it contemplates a largely increased supply of gold with equanimity. If this should have the happy result of quieting the agitation for upsetting the present standard of value, it would be a blessing without alloy.

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The financial difficulties of the Indian Government have occasioned perplexity not only to bimetallists and monometallists, but also to free-traders. When a government finds its revenue less than its expenditure, it seldom accomplishes much in the way of economy, but casts about for new sources of revenue. It is claimed that there can be no increase in the internal taxes of India, and that the deficiency must be met by imposing import duties. But the great manufacturing interests of Manchester have convinced the English Government that it would not be expedient to impose taxes upon the importation of their goods into India. Such a tax, they claim, would operate as a protective duty in favor of the Indian manufacturers of cotton goods. On the other hand, the Indians protest against the imposition of a compensating tax upon domestic manufactures. They use the familiar protectionist arguments in support of their position. A consistent free-trade policy, however, would certainly forbid the imposition of import duties which operate as a bounty to particular individuals, and the Indian Government will be obliged to obtain revenue in some other way than by a protective tariff. In truth, that government is now suffering from its own improvidence. It incurred a very heavy debt by engaging in the "Jingo" policy against Russia, and it is saddled with burdensome guarantees of the bonds of railroads that do not pay expenses. It has guaranteed interest at the average rate of 4¾ per cent. upon the capital of the roads, while according them a share of excess profits, and it has taken upon itself all the loss on exchange in remitting the interest to England. The result is that its guarantee of 4¾ per cent. costs it about 7 per cent. It is probable that the whole fiscal system of the Government would profit by a thorough investigation; but there is little prospect that such a remedy will be adopted.

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For some years the conservative element among the English trade-unionists has been rapidly losing ground. Not long since this element was in complete control, managing the affairs of the unions with much ability, and applying to Parliament only for such laws as were necessary to relieve them from some rather serious legal disabilities. In fact, the representatives of the unions, when they attended the international congresses upon the Continent, were looked upon as reactionaries of a benighted type, and were in a hopeless minority in all the voting. But the socialists have succeeded in deluding the working people with their ideals, and when the unions meet now they devote their time to devising schemes for carrying on industry by the state. At the session which has just closed in London it was resolved that the state might maintain technical schools, but that no pupils should be admitted except those approved by the trade-unions. Resolutions were also adopted to the effect that promoters of public works should be compelled to provide suitable dwellings for their workmen, and that employers should be punished for importing laborers into a place where, in the opinion of the unions, there is a sufficient supply to meet the needs of the district. On Thursday a proposition to nationalize all mineral lands and royalty rents came up, and, after being amended so as to include "the whole of the means of production, distribution, and exchange," was adopted, "amid a scene of wild enthusiasm," by a vote of 219 to 61.

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The speech delivered last week by the Emperor William to the nobles of East Prussia has certainly a mediæval ring, but it is both consistent with his known principles and suitable for his audience. It was the speech of a king, ruling by divine right, to nobles resting their title upon practically the same foundation. The nobles can claim for themselves no exclusive privileges without coming back in the last analysis to this principle; and unless they are prepared to surrender their own rank and titles they must defend those of their sovereign. It is too late to replace a monarchy by an aristocracy now; if monarchy goes, democracy comes in in Germany. Hence it is for the interest, and it is in one sense the duty, of the nobility to stand by their king and not attempt to thwart his policy. Instead of yielding to a real diplomatic necessity, and accepting the treaty reducing the duties upon the agricultural products of Russia as an unavoidable concession to circumstances, many of the nobility, especially those whose estates march with the Russian frontier, chose to oppose it, and continued to sulk after it was adopted. This "Agrarian" party was the object of the Emperor's reproaches.

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The war between China and Japan resembles in some of its strategic aspects that which was fought in the Crimea. China, like Russia, fights at one of its remote extremities, depending chiefly upon its land forces. Japan, like the allies, can reach its adversary only by the use of its naval power. The news from the seat of war is not very trustworthy, but it seems to indicate that the Japanese naval power is superior to that of the Chinese. But, curiously enough, China has an advantage from her backwardness which Japan has lost through her aspiration to the rank of a civilized power. By the Declaration of Paris in 1856, privateering was abolished, and the doctrine that the neutral flag covers the enemy's goods, except those contraband of war, was proclaimed. Of course, this declaration bound only the nations that adopted it. China has not acceded to it, but Japan has. China can therefore issue letters of marque to privateers, and thus destroy the mercantile marine of Japan directly, and she can also capture neutral vessels laden with Japanese goods and condemn such merchandise in a prize court. It is true that Japan is not bound by the Declaration, so far as China is concerned, and may attack her commerce directly; but the flag of a neutral signatory to the Declaration will protect Chinese goods, except contraband of war. Thus an English merchantman is bound to submit to be searched, and if an enemy's goods are found on board, to be captured and taken into port by a Chinese privateer, but is not bound to submit to either at the hands of a Japanese privateer. As the United States have never adopted the Declaration of Paris, their merchant vessels would fare the same no matter into whose hands they fell, so far as this point is concerned. But, owing to the dominance of England in the Oriental trade, the advantage of China over Japan in a war carried on by privateers would be considerable.

### THE MAINE ELECTION.

THE country seems to be pretty full of Democrats of Mr. Cleveland's way of thinking—that the tariff bill was not good enough to be signed and not bad enough to be vetoed. This was evidently the way in which the Democrats of Maine looked at the subject on Monday last. They absented themselves from the polls largely, and some of them, but not very many, voted the Republican ticket. It was not exactly an overturn, since Maine is always a Republican State, but it answers all the purposes of an overturn. It shows that the Democrats have no stomach for the fight this year. The reasons why they have not are not far to seek.

We shall not go back to the silver panic of last year and its disastrous consequences to business. It came at a time when it was easy to persuade those who do not comprehend such matters (and they are the great majority) that it was due to Democratic success in the national election of the previous year, and to the fear of coming tariff changes. This was purely an accident, but there was, of course, no way to avoid it. The tariff must needs be reduced according to the promise of the successful party. Any hesitation to fulfil this promise would have been equivalent to abdication. It was a serious mistake that the work was not begun immediately with the incoming of the new administration. In that case the benefits of tariff reduction, whatever they were to be, would have demonstrated themselves nearly a year before another congressional election. Practically a year passed by, and this was a year of business disaster. Broadly speaking, the time was not lost, since it was filled up by the repeal of the silver bill, a more important step than any tariff bill whatsoever, but not a step to have an immediate political effect. All that could be hoped from it was a gradual mend, a slow recovery from the panic of the previous year.

When the real work of tariff reform was taken up, there was universal eagerness for speedy completion of it The bill was pushed in the House as rapidly perhaps as such bills ever move. When it reached the Senate, it met an obstruction that had not been anticipated, and when this obstruction came to be examined, it was found that the most conspicuous and odious monopoly in the whole country had intrenched itself in that body and had constructed barriers to prevent any tariff bill from passing which did not contain provisions to give it the same power to tax the people that the McKinley tariff had given, though in a different form. Of course this could be done only by having a certain number of Democratic votes—say four or five. The Republicans *en masse* would vote against any bill the Democrats might pass. It was their business to do so. Forty-three votes were needed to pass a bill. There were a few votes on the dividing line between Democracy and Populism which could not be counted upon with certainty. The situation was such that a small group of speculators, if there were any such in the body belonging to the Democratic party, could block all movement and prevent the passage of any bill. It happened that there were three or four men answering this description. One of them was detected in a sugar speculation. The others were believed to be no whit better, although they have not been found out. It was an ominous circumstance, also, that the particular clause of the bill which caused all the trouble and all the scandal was drawn by the secretary of the treasury, and that all his influence, so far as he used any, was employed for its retention.

The result was delay and exasperation on the part of the business community, disgust immeasurable on the part of decent people, and finally a surrender to the Sugar Trust. It was an unavoidable surrender. It involved no disgrace upon those who passed under the yoke. Like the Roman legions, they had done all that they could. Nevertheless the party had to take the consequences. It is this conjunction of circumstances that has taken the heart out of the Democratic party for the time being. It is not a bad thing that it is so. Another reform besides reform of the tariff must be undertaken if the Democrats are to recover their lost ground. The party must purge itself of its Sugar Trust element with all possible speed. It does not follow from the Maine election that we are going back to the McKinley tariff or anything resembling that. The Republicans are not likely to forget the lessons they learned in 1890 and 1892. If they get into power again, they will find plenty of reasons to give the tariff fanatics the cold shoulder.

### THE DEBS CASE.

THE trial of the charges of contempt of court against Debs and others, which is now proceeding at Chicago, will bring up some very important questions for adjudication. These questions are, of course, of primary interest to the legal profession, but an examination of what is really involved in the case will satisfy every intelligent citizen who cares for the sound and healthy development of his country's institutions that the legal questions are relatively insignificant. The issue really lies, as the lawyers say, in a nutshell, and it can be stated so simply that every one can grasp it. It is briefly the determination of the question whether courts shall assume the function of inflicting summary punishment without jury trial for acts punishable by ordinary criminal proceeding.

There is no doubt of the power of a court to punish summarily those who disobey its orders. It has been deemed impossible for courts to maintain a necessary respect for their processes without this power. That it may be effectively exercised, the judge before whom the contempt is committed is allowed to inflict punishment according to his discretion, and without stay or appeal. The person charged with contempt has a right to be heard, but he must appear in person and cannot demand a jury or insist upon the aid of counsel. This power probably originated in the necessity for preserving order in the court-room, and, since attorneys are looked upon as officers of the court, it is natural and proper that they at least should be subject to strict discipline. Yet it is evident that the remedy is of a nature contrary to the free spirit of English jurisprudence. It is arbitrary and despotic. However, as English judges have generally been animated with the spirit of liberty, they have rarely abused this power. It has been enough that it existed to accomplish the purpose of its existence. To the honor of the courts, they have very cautiously extended the use of the remedy by injunction as applied to acts committed outside of court. The rule that equitable remedies will not be granted so long as a remedy at law exists, is still an established rule; but it cannot long be maintained if such injunctions are to be granted as those recently issued from the United States courts.

We cannot, within our space, trace the steps by which the scope of injunctions has been recently extended. A writer in the Albany *Law Journal* of September 1 has pointed out these steps, and ultimately the whole matter will doubtless be reviewed by the United States Supreme Court. Suffice it to say that an "omnibus bill" was filed last July at Chicago to prevent interference with twenty-three great systems of railway, and an injunction was issued not only against a number of persons named, but also against the members of the American Railway Union to the number of thousands, and "all other persons whomsoever." No satisfactory precedent exists for injunctions of such wide scope as this. If we may trust a newspaper report of Judge Woods's language, he took the ground that his injunction was not necessary to prevent interference with the mails, that being a crime for which arrest and indictment was provided. It was more necessary to make the order to prevent interference with interstate commerce; but the true reason, and the only one "for issuing an order at all, was that it was a means of meeting the present emergency, for the process of arrest and indictment was slow."

Whether Judge Woods used these words or not, they describe the situa-

tion correctly. There was an adequate remedy at law, and if it was slow it was the fault of the officers of the law. But it was not slow when the highest magistrate in the land swept aside the incompetent and traitorous gang of local bailiffs, and put an end to rioting with even less than a "whiff of grape-shot" by the prompt discharge of his constitutional duty. The remedy at law, for such it may properly be called (the troops of the United States being really peace officers), was quick and it was adequate. It may be doubted whether the injunctions were not wholly superfluous.

But granting that, it may be said, were they not at least harmless? We apprehend not. Our readers do not require to be told that we regarded the aims of the strikers at Chicago as hopeless and their methods as wicked and criminal. We do not forget, however, that these men are our fellow-citizens, or impute to them as a body any exceptional depravity. It is in the highest degree important that the very poorest member of the community should possess unshaken confidence in the integrity of our judges and the impartiality of the administration of justice. We fear that many of the common people, especially in the Western States, entertain the belief that the courts have allied themselves with the great corporate interests of the country, and it is eminently desirable that this belief should have no sound basis. It is the duty of the courts to defend rights of property, and upon this account they incur a certain degree of unpopularity with those who have few such rights to defend. But every effort should be made to escape this odium by exhibiting the strictest impartiality, and there is reason for contending that this caution has been disregarded in the recent injunctions. Upon their face they indicate the purpose of causing the arrest and punishment of citizens, without trial by jury, for offences for which criminal jurisprudence provides that right. If there is no other way of repressing crime except by treating it as contempt of court, our jurisprudence must be reconstituted upon models that have more likeness to those which prevail under despotic governments.

## *MORE POLICE CORRUPTION.*

Mr. Goff made it very plain at the first session of the resumed Senate inquiry that he had by no means exhausted the field of police incompetence and depravity. Indeed, the depths which he sounded on Monday were a little lower than any that he had touched heretofore. He began with that branch of the service which Superintendent Byrnes singled out in his recent letter to the Police Board as the one especially entitled to commendation, the Detective Bureau. Mr. Byrnes said of this bureau that since its reorganization in 1880 it has "reached such a high standard of efficiency and discipline as has not been equalled by any other detective bureau in the world." Yet Mr. Goff shows by the mouth of one of the chief officials of that bureau that he is either totally ignorant of the law governing his conduct in a most important branch of his duty, or wilfully guilty of systematic violation of the law.

The way in which Mr. Goff brought out this fact was a striking illustration of his skill in such matters. He showed that it is customary for the Police Department to send out postal-cards to pawnbrokers describing stolen property, and pledging on behalf of the owners of such property payment of the money which may have been advanced on it to the thieves who have brought it to the pawn-shops; that detectives habitually advise persons whose property has been stolen to pay the money which has been advanced on it, and that detectives not infrequently receive a share of the money thus paid over. Sergeant Hanley, who admits these things, and admits also that in one case he received $17 for his services, confesses that he had often heard judges in the Court of General Sessions declare that stolen property belongs to the owner and may be recovered wherever found, but denies that he knows that a detective has the right to go into any pawnshop in the city, seize stolen property which is identified by the owner, and pass it over to the latter without charge. This is an extraordinary state of mind for an official of the best detective bureau in the world to manifest. The picture which he presents of the method pursued by that bureau makes it an ally with the thieves and pawnbrokers against the citizen whose property has been stolen. There is no other interpretation to be put upon Sergeant Hanley's testimony.

After Sergeant Hanley came another witness whose testimony was scarcely less startling, though it was not in a new field. Another green-goods operator was produced who supplemented the testimony of the witness Appo, given several weeks ago, in regard to the payments made to the police for the protection of the operators of this swindle. Applegate, the latest witness, gave a very straightforward and circumstantial account of the way the green-goods business had been carried on in two police precincts presided over by Capt. Meakim, saying that when the captain was transferred from a down-town precinct to one in Harlem, the business was transferred with him, and was carried on without molestation in both localities because of the payment of $50 a month to the captain. He sustained his testimony with much circumstantial evidence, and Mr. Goff sustained it with some printed circulars, and used these with much dramatic effect to convict the printer of them of perjury when he was put upon the stand. Incidentally, evidence was adduced to show that the chief green-goods operator, McNally, was on very friendly terms with Sergeant Hanley of the Detective Bureau.

Taken altogether, Monday's evidence is of the first importance, perhaps of greater importance than any that has preceded it. It shows that there is no branch of the police service that is not thoroughly rotten, and strengthens the already strong conviction that there is no radical remedy for that service save its complete abolition and reconstruction on new lines. Mayor Gilroy's complacent observations, which he put forth with such impudent assurance on the following morning, were not well timed. He should have waited till he had read Mr. Goff's new testimony before he took the position that, in removing certain police captains after Mr. Goff had proved their guilt, the police commissioners have vindicated themselves and exonerated Tammany Hall. Now he will see that the police commissioners have still further work to do before the vindication will be complete, and that by the time they shall have succeeded in getting all the corrupt men out of the Police Department, there will be a very small force of officials left therein.

It is within the bounds of probability also that the police commissioners themselves may be on trial before the inquiry is ended, if it can be maintained by anybody that they have not been on trial since the beginning of the inquiry. Whose system is it that is found to be so saturated with corruption? Who has been administering the affairs of the Police Department for the past quarter of a century? Tammany men, either avowed or disguised. Nearly all of them have been appointed by Tammany mayors. All this corruption has been in existence under their noses in their own department, and they never suspected it until Mr. Goff showed it to them. What a charming lot of innocents they have been! And what a charming innocent the mayor is when he comes before the public and points with pride to their virtue, Tammany's virtue, in getting rid of the blackmailers, after they have been exposed! "We never allow thieves and blackmailers to stay in office after they have been shown up!" This is the Tammany platform upon which the Tammany mayor proposes to go before the people in the coming election.

## *HELMHOLTZ.*

Dr. Hermann Helmholtz, as his contemporaries have called him, the acknowledged

and worshipped head of the scientific guild, is gone. He was born on August 31, 1821, at Potsdam, where his father was professor of the gymnasium. His mother's maiden name was Caroline Penn; she came of a branch of that family settled in Germany since the religious troubles in England. From childhood Hermann had a passion for science; but the nineteenth century came near missing this great light, for the circumstances of the family were such that no road to science was open to him except that of studying medicine in the Military Institute of Berlin He took his degree of M.D. in 1842, and his inaugural dissertation, the only Latin publication of his life, related to the nervous systems of invertebrate animals. He was at once attached to the service of charity, and began without delay to study putrefaction, upon which in 1843 he published a memoir maintaining its purely chemical nature—an opinion subsequently surrendered. He soon returned to Potsdam a surgeon in the army. In 1845 he was employed with good reason to write articles on animal heat in a medical encyclopædia of high character, and in the yearly report upon the progress of physics. The same year he printed an original investigation of the waste of substance of a muscle in action.

After that, for about two years, he produced nothing. It was one of those periods of seeming idleness to which the most productive geniuses are subject, and which afford mediocrity matter for carping. Other young scientists filled the journals of 1846 with the records of their industry, but not one syllable came from Helmholtz. He was not heard from until 1847, and not till July 23, when he read a paper before the Physical Society of Berlin. This paper was entitled "The Conservation of Force." In the judgment of many of those who have examined the matter, it was the epoch-making work from which alone the greatest scientific discovery that man has ever made must date. Certainly it was the argument which produced the intense conviction with which the world has held that doctrine ever since. It is fair to say that other excellent critics, and Helmholtz himself among them, award the merit of the first enunciation of the great law to Robert Mayer, who, in 1842, had published a paper which attracted no attention whatever, and of which Helmholtz in 1847 was as little aware as the rest of the world. But, in any case, there is no doubt that Helmholtz was the first to conceive the proposition from the point of view which made it so attractive to all accurate thinkers and so wonderfully fecund in new truth.

According to his statement, nothing exists in the outer world but matter. Matter *in itself* (*an sich*) is capable of no alteration but motion in space, and these motions are modified only by fixed attractions and repulsions, and this is true everywhere, even in the actions of animals and men. It was an amazingly bold assertion, utterly opposed to almost every kind of philosophy, certainly to Kantian and all post Kantian idealism, as well as to the nominalistic idealism of the English school, which such writers as Ernst Mach have taken up. But the implicit faith with which it has been received is a singular psychological phenomenon, for the theory that all human actions are subjected to a law having no teleological character, when we know (or seem to know) that our actions are adjusted to purposes, has obvious difficulties; and the experimental evidence of the correctness of the law as applied to animal physiology is very slender. Indeed, some of the most careful researches (as those of Fick and Wislicenus) have led to results directly opposed to it. Yet the physiologists, one and all—the judicious Michael Foster, for example—simply treat those results as absurd. In this aspect Helmholtz's great doctrine appears as the pet *petitio principii* of our time. Its truth was unquestionable, in the only sense in which anything based on induction can rationally be admitted as true, namely, its *close approximation* to exactitude. Nobody can deny that it is at once the crown and the key of physical science. In that memoir, by the way, Helmholtz first displayed his facility in applying the calculus to unaccustomed problems—a facility very surprising in a man of twenty-six whose studies had been supposed to lie in the direction of anatomy and physiology. Surely, in the company at that memorable meeting of the Physical Society there must have been some who were able to discern that they were in the presence of one of the most stupendous intellects that the human race had yet produced.

Of course, a reward was due from organized humanity to the man who had thus lifted man's mind to a higher vantage ground. And this reward came, for the next year he was created no less than assistant in the Anatomical Museum of Berlin. He now began to occupy himself with the physiology of hearing. In 1849 he was appointed supplementary (or extraordinary) professor of physiology in the University of Königsberg (without salary), and in 1850, on July 19, he communicated to the Physical Society of Berlin an elaborate memoir breaking ground in the interesting field of the measurement of the duration of nerve-actions. In 1851 he invented the ophthalmoscope, for which many and many a human being has owed him his eyesight. This year he began an original study of electrodynamics. In 1852 he was promoted to a regular chair in the university. His discourse upon his installation dealt with peripheral sensations in general, especially those of sight and hearing. It was a comparison of the relation existing between the vibrations that excite a given sense, and those existing between the sensations themselves. We remark that while the memoir on the Conservation of Force fairly bristled with repetitions of the philosophical phrase *an sich*, "in itself," it is in this discourse carefully avoided. It would seem that something must have happened in the interval which made Helmholtz dread "*an sich*" as a burnt child does fire. In this paper, such ingenuity is used to avoid it that but once does it slip in, and then in a negative phrase. But since the idea was there, we cannot praise Helmholtz for not giving it its proper dress.

In giving the substance of his lecture, we need not imitate his circumlocutions to avoid this natural phrase. His point was this: vibration-systems essentially different give rise to precisely the same color-sensations. There are three fundamental color-sensations, which, being mingled in different amounts, give rise to all others; but there is nothing corresponding to this tri-dimensionality in the vibrations themselves. On the contrary, the sensations of a color-blind person for whom one of the three fundamental sensations is non-existent, much better correspond with the facts in themselves. Sounds, on the whole, correspond more accurately to the vibrations. But, to the ear, the difference between one rate of vibration and another is hardly perceptible until two different sounds are compared. If a melody is transposed to another key, the effect is nearly the same; but a painter who should transpose red to yellow, yellow to green, green to blue, and blue to violet, would make a nightmare of his painting. These are certainly striking facts; but still more interesting is it to note what lesson it was that this typical nineteenth-century understanding drew from them. Other minds as clear as his might have read here the incommensurability between mind and matter, and have found a refutation of materialism in the circumstance that mind here acts as matter could not do. But the conclusion of Helmholtz is that the sense-qualities distinguish the things in themselves about as well and about as arbitrarily as the names Henry, Charles, and John parcel out human kind.

Besides this "Habilitationsvortrag," a "Habilitationsschrift" was expected from the new professor, and this last set forth his theory of the mixture of colors. It was, at bottom, the doctrine of Dr. Thomas Young; and only the careful comparison with observation, and the application of it to explain effects of mixing pigments and the like, were new. In 1854 he attended the meeting of the British Association at Hull, and there read a fuller account of his theory of colors, which no doubt induced Maxwell to take up this study, who soon made it even more lucid and beautiful than Helmholtz had done. In 1855 he became professor of physiology at Bonn. In 1856 he began the publication of his great treatise on physiological optics, which was not completed till ten years later. On May 22 of the same year, he announced to the Berlin Academy his discovery of combinational tones, which are musical sounds resulting from the interferences of the vibrations making two other sounds.

In 1858 he became professor in Heidelberg, at that time the ultimate goal of a German professor's ambition; and in the same year he astonished the mathematical world by his great memoir on eddies, or vortices, a matter of fundamental importance in hydrodynamics. It was a very great and fruitful idea which he there advanced, and which he wonderfully developed. Much has already come from it, but its full harvest yet remains to be gathered in. No mathematician will dispute that this was a work only second in importance to the cataclysmic essay on the Conservation of Force. During the next two years Helmholtz's acoustical researches were very prolific, and at the same time he published remarkable papers upon color-blindness and upon the contrasts of colors. In 1860, on April 12, he read to the Vienna Academy a paper giving measurements by his pupil, Von Pietrowski, of the viscosity of fluids, with a mathematical discussion by himself. Although the subject was not quite new, Stokes's masterly work dating from 1851, still Maxwell's researches were not yet begun, and this memoir constituted another important contribution to hydrodynamics and to the general conception of matter. Helmholtz himself very soon began to apply these ideas in acoustics.

We next find him engaged upon the difficult problem of the horopter and the motions of the eye. One of the next subjects to engage his attention was the musical note which is emitted from a strongly contracted muscle. In 1862 appeared his great work on Sensations of Sound and the theory of music, and with it the main work of his life was accomplished. Since that time he has indeed produced enough to make another man famous; it is little only in comparison with his earlier achievements. He has written, for example, papers upon the facts underlying geometry which were sub-

stantially anticipated by Riemann's great work, with which Helmholtz would seem not to have been acquainted. To produce independently that which was the proudest laurel of one of the most original mathematicians of the ages was a great feat, but it was needless. There were also a series of memoirs in which Helmholtz discusses all the principal systems of formulæ which have been proposed by different physicists as laws of electrodynamics. He gave the first mathematical explanation of the formation of ordinary waves upon water —an explanation which not only enables us to see why certain forms of waves which might exist are not produced in nature, but also throws much light on other subjects. In 1871, he was appointed professor of physics, no longer of physiology, in the University of Berlin. Twenty years later he was made president and director of the Physikalisch-Technische Reichsanstalt, a foundation under the control of the Imperial Department of the Interior, for the experimental furthering of exact natural inquiry and the technics of precision.

Not the slightest allusion to any moral or religious problem ever dropped from the pen of Helmholtz. Though no reference to Hegel or Hegelianism appears in his pages, he more than any other namable person caused the downfall of that kind of speculation in Germany, and brought in the present admiration for the English style of philosophizing which his own so much resembled. The temper of the man was admirable. He never indulged in one of those reclamations of priority into which scientific vanity is sure to be betrayed, but several times published notes to show that his own results were not so new as he and the scientific world had believed them to be. He did much to bring into notice the works of other physicists, among them the Americans Rowland and Rood (his visit last year to this country is freshly remembered). He found himself several times engaged in controversies with redoubtable antagonists, Clausius, Bertrand, perhaps we may so reckon Land. In every case he so conducted himself as to bespeak an imperious desire to find out the truth and to publish it; and every approach to personality was avoided or flung away from him as a pestilential infection. The world owes much to the intellectual clearness and integrity of Hermann Helmholtz, M.D.

## VOX POPULI IN SWITZERLAND.

BERN, July, 1894.

To outward appearance, Switzerland is an atoll in the surging ocean of European politics. Here the increasing strain which has come upon the representative institutions of other countries is hardly felt. Here the Legislature is free from party organization, the business of the country is well and promptly done, the people are content with their representatives. Here, also, we are paradoxically assured, such statutes as do not commend themselves to the popular will may be revised by the Referendum; and reforms ignored by the Federal Assembly may be framed and enacted through the Initiative. These two ingenious applications of pure democracy to large communities are urged upon Americans because so successful in Switzerland. There has long lain in my mind a suspicion of a device which assumes to relieve men from the results of their failure to choose representatives who really represent them; and this incredulity has not been removed by staying in Switzerland and looking into the practical working of the much-lauded system. Fortunately there is a body of material on the subject: besides the messages sent in by the Executive Council after each popular vote, there is an official report of 1892 summarizing the statistics since 1848; and I am much indebted to several Swiss statesmen and publicists for frank and suggestive discussion.

No criticism of the referendum can be worth while which does not take account of the difference of political conditions in the United States and in Switzerland. In size, population, and wealth the latter country is very like an American State, say Massachusetts; the six hundred and eighty thousand voters are distributed in a compact land, with excellent election machinery. The cantons, unlike the commonwealths in America, are steadily losing ground to the federal Government, and the Swiss Senate, the Council of States, has less power and prestige than the elective National Council. The legislative practice of the two countries is also different: few bills are presented to the federal Assembly, and very few are enacted, so that in 1891 but fourteen general laws were put upon the statute-book. The Executive Council, though without a veto, has an important part in legislation: it legislates for itself in many matters of detail; and on larger affairs prepares and submits bills which the Assembly frequently enacts without change. This preparation of legislative material by the executive is a tradition in the cantons as well as in the Swiss union. The Diet took this function on itself under the old Confederation, and, indeed, the word "referendum" was originally applied to the process of referring measures back from the Diet to the cantons; it was too often a political "how-not-to-do-it." The present referendum is, therefore, practically a check both on the Executive and the Legislature, and can easily be invoked on a considerable proportion of all general statutes. To apply it to acts which have already run the gauntlet of an executive veto, and have found a place in the obese statute-book of an American commonwealth, is a different matter. Nor is it so easy in Switzerland to crystallize the opinion of the Assembly into concrete measures, since the lively sectional and religious rivalries of the country are not expressed in well-organized parties. Conventions and caucuses with us take the place which the initiative is meant to fill in Switzerland. So different are all the conditions in the two countries that the success of the referendum in the one does not at all imply that it would work well in the other; while if the referendum has disappointed its friends in Switzerland, where it harmonizes with other institutions, it is not likely to succeed in the United States. And whatever might be done in the States, a national referendum would nullify the Senate, and hence be a complete change in the American system of government and probably a national misfortune.

A judgment of the referendum must be based on the working of the electoral machinery, on the interest shown by the voters, and on the popular discrimination between good and bad measures. The process of invoking and voting on a referendum is simple and easily worked, if not used too often. Although the Assembly has, in urgent cases, the constitutional right to set a resolution in force at once, it always allows from three to eight months' delay so as to permit the opponents of a measure to lodge their protests against it. Voluntary committees take charge of the movement, and, if a law is unpopular, little difficulty is found in getting together the necessary thirty thousand or fifty thousand signatures. Only thrice has the effort failed when made. When, as in 1882, the signatures run up to 180,000, the labor is severe, for every signature is examined by the national executive to see whether it is attested as the sign manual of a voter; sometimes, in an interested canton, as many as 70 per cent. of the voters have signed the demand. The system undoubtedly leads to public discussion: newspapers criticise; addresses and counter addresses are issued; cantonal councils publicly advise voters; and of late the federal Assembly sends out manifestoes against pending initiatives. The federal Executive Council distributes to the cantons enough copies of the proposed measure, so that one may be given to each voter. The count of the votes is made by the Executive Council as a returning-board. Inasmuch as the Swiss are unfamiliar with election frauds, and there has been but one very close vote in the national referenda, the count is not difficult, but there are always irregularities, especially where more than one question is presented to the voters at the same time.

What is the effect of the popular votes, thus carried out? The following table, based on official documents, shows the results for the twenty years, 1875–1894:

| | Passed. | Rejected. | Total. |
|---|---|---|---|
| (*a.*) Constitutional amendments proposed by the Assembly (referendum obligatory) | 1 | 6 | 7 |
| (*b.*) Constitutional amendments proposed by popular initiative (50,000 signatures) | 2 | 1 | *4 |
| (*c.*) Laws passed by the Assembly (referendum demanded by 30,000). | 14 | 6 | 20 |
| | 17 | 13 | 31 |

* One measure still pending.

Making allowances for cases where more than one question has been submitted at the same time, there have been twenty-four popular votes in twenty years. In addition, most of the cantons have their own local referenda; in Zurich, for example, in these twenty years, more than one hundred other questions have been placed before the sovereign people. These numbers are large in themselves, but surprising in proportion to the total legislation. Out of 158 general acts passed by the federal Assembly from 1874 to 1892, 27 were subjected to the referendum; that is, about one-sixth are reviewed and about one-tenth are reversed. Constitutional amendments usually get through sooner or later, but more than two-thirds of the statutes attacked are annulled. To apply the system on such a scale in any State of our Union is plainly impossible; thirty-nine-fortieths of the statute-book must still rest, as now, on the character of the legislators.

Nevertheless it may be worth while to excise the other fortieth, if experience shows that the people are more interested and wiser than their representatives, when a question is put plainly and simply before them. I must own to disappointment over the use made by the Swiss of their envied opportunity. On the twenty referenda between 1879 and 1891 the average vote in proportion to the voters was but 58.5 per cent.; in only one case did it reach 67 per cent.; and in one case—the patent law of 1887—it fell to about 40 per cent. in the Confederation, and to 9 per cent. in

Canton Schwyz. On the serious and dangerous question of recognizing the right to employment, this present year, only about 56 per cent. participated. In Zurich there is a compulsory voting law, of which the curious result is that on both national and cantonal referenda many thousands of blank ballots are cast. The result of the small vote is that laws, duly considered by the national legislature and passed by considerable majorities, are often reversed by a minority of the voters. The most probable reason for this apathy is that there are too many elections—in some cantons as many as fifteen a year. Whatever the cause, Swiss voters are less interested in referenda than Swiss legislators in framing bills.

Of the comparative wisdom of the representatives and their constituents it is difficult for a stranger to judge. The general tendency of the referendum is to rebuke the Assembly; more than half the questions submitted are lost on popular vote, and more than half of all the ballots cast have been adverse. Certain cantons, notably Uri and Appenzell (Inner Rhode), are almost always against the proposition, without much reference to its purport. The records of the Assembly rarely show test votes on any question, but there is a remarkable divergence between the temper or judgment of that body and of the people. The constitutional amendment of 1893 on the slaughtering of animals commanded less than a third of the members of either house, but was carried on popular vote by about three to two. The amendment of 1894 on the practice of professions had every vote in its favor in the Council of States, but was lost in referendum. An eminent publicist, member of the Assembly and an upholder of the referendum, explains this divergence by the public spirit of the members, who vote according to their convictions and not in subservience to their constituents. If this be true, it is an indictment of the system; if the people are wiser than their representatives on questions of legislation, the latter ought to bend beforehand, without waiting for the pressure of the referendum. So far as I can judge, public opinion on such matters is so uncertain that the members cannot understand or predict it.

On the recent proposition to assert the right of every Swiss to employment, only 2 members out of 110 voted for it; but out of doors it received 75,000 votes against 308,000. Certainly the referendum is especially fatal on complicated questions of commerce and finance, the least suited to such a system. It was only on the third attempt that a bank-note system could be arranged. Another interesting example is the bill for the purchase of the Swiss Central Railroad. The Executive Council in May, 1890, desired to negotiate on the subject, and the Assembly passed a resolution granting the necessary authority. No referendum was laid against the resolution, and the Council, believing that the principle was accepted, in March, 1891 made a provisional contract for the purchase. The law ratifying this contract was duly passed, but 92,000 signatures were lodged against it, and it was defeated by a majority of 140,000. This might be accepted as a popular judgment against State railways; but, in fact, it seems to be only a protest against the terms of the contract, and it is expected that the work will soon be all done over again. In the cantons it is even worse: I am informed that in some of them new money bills are almost invariably rejected on referendum, and humiliating devices have to be used in order to get the funds necessary for the support of the Government. Most impartial observers who examine the list of bills lost in the national referendum will be inclined to think the judgment of the Assembly better and more consistent than that of the people.

To the Anglo Saxon mind, accustomed to distinguish between laws of detail and fundamental laws, which are independent of temporary waves of public feeling, the referendum seems confusing. Is it necessary to set in motion all the machinery of a popular election to settle such questions as sometimes come before the Swiss people? In 1884, when General Frey, now President of the Confederation, was minister in Washington, the Executive Council asked that his allowance be raised from fifty thousand francs to sixty thousand francs a year. The Assembly, though not at that time given to prodigality, adopted the necessary vote, in the form submitted by the Executive Council. Ninety-three thousand protests were lodged, and the act was reversed in referendum by 40,000 majority. Even admitting the superiority of the judgment of the people over that of the minister, the Executive Council, and the Assembly, it does not seem worth while to spend so much public energy on a matter of so little moment. The initiative deals less with small questions, but it acts as a standing constitutional convention to frame amendments. Thus in 1893 a clause possibly directed against cruelty to animals, and certainly intended to annoy the Jews, was by the participation of less than half the voters solemnly added to the constitution. In the United States we have already the good effects of the referendum so far as it deals with changes of the constitutions, the permanent and superior part of our law; perhaps that is as far as it really aids the people to express their will in consistent legislation.

In the last two years three amendments have been introduced by initiative which show that the referendum may become a powerful socialistic weapon. The slaughtering amendment was in effect directed against a class, and was successful; the amendment assuring employment was in the interest of a class, and was lost; the pending amendment for a distribution of money to the cantons is directed by poor cantons against rich ones. Against all these propositions the Assembly has set itself steadfastly. "I am a friend of the referendum," says an eminent member of the Executive Council, "but I do not like the initiative." The experience of Switzerland seems to show four things: that the Swiss voters are not deeply interested in the referendum; that the referendum is as likely to kill good as bad measures; that the initiative is more likely to suggest bad measures than good; that the referendum leads straight to the initiative. The referendum in the United States would therefore probably be an attempt to govern great communities by permanent town meeting.

ALBERT BUSHNELL HART.

## THE SEINE, THE MEUSE, AND THE MOSELLE.—II.

BERNCASTEL-AM-MOSEL, August 14, 1894.

THE upper Meuse, above its passage through the Ardennes to Commercy near its head, is, unlike the Moselle, an enfeebled river. Its valley exhibits meandering curves almost as strong as those of the Seine and the Moselle, but the river fails to fit the curves of the valley. It twists and turns on its flood-plain, now touching one part, now another part of its valley sides, but not succeeding at all in boldly swinging around the valley curves. About Commercy, it may almost be said to wriggle across its flood-plain, so distinctly is its minutely tortuous course out of accord with the sweeping curves of its valley. Clearly, when the valley was formed, the river that cut it had a larger volume than the present Meuse; for while small rivers may truly enough make wide valleys if time is allowed them, they can never in a short or long time cut valleys with systematic curves of large pattern such as are appropriate to large rivers. Moreover, the dwindling volume of the Meuse is shown about Commercy and further down stream by the manner in which the flood-plain appears to overlap the lower slope of the valley sides, just as if the valley were slowly filling up with the silt that the river cannot carry away. When the national road shortens its distance by climbing over the shoulders of the spurs around which the valley winds, you may see the rich green of the level river plain broadly stretching from slope to slope; the tortuous little Meuse winding its crooked way across the fields; the abundant herds of cattle on the rich pastures; the canal and the railway running in long tangents between occasional curves near one side of the plain or the other; the villages on the valley slopes just above the wet meadows. Descending to cross the plain, its margin seems to be laid upon the valley slopes, which have every appearance of descending to greater depths than are now visible; the little Meuse has only a shallow channel, and makes no sign of entrenching its course in the plain; a very moderate flood would overflow the meadows. Here, then, is a river that is filling its valley, not deepening it; aggrading its valley, not degrading it; and nothing can be more characteristic of an enfeebled river than such behavior. A large river may cut down its valley to a very gentle grade. A smaller river needs a steeper grade on its way to the sea. If the grade is too faint for its needs, it will lay down some of its burden and build up a grade to suit itself, and thus a rising and steepening flood-plain will be formed along and across its valley floor. The feeble Meuse about Commercy and Sedan has every appearance of behaving in this way; its contrast with the robust Seine and the vigorous Moselle is complete. The middle river has in some way been weakened, while its neighbors on either side have been invigorated.

Climatic change cannot be appealed to in explanation of the lessened volume of the Meuse; for in that case its neighbors should have dwindled also. A clue to the puzzle on the side of the Moselle was given as long ago as 1829, when a French geologist, Boblaye, noted that pebbles like those now carried by the Moselle, and derived from the Vosges Mountains, were to be found in the valley of the Meuse below Commercy, or more accurately below Pagny-sur-Meuse, a village a few miles above Commercy. Other writers have since studied these pebbles, and it is now well understood that the Moselle above Toul once ran into the Meuse. On the side of the Seine I have not yet had opportunity of search in scientific literature to learn whether the rearrangements there have hitherto been described; but study on the French maps at home had convinced me that the Aire, now belonging to the Seine system, once belonged to the Meuse, and a sight of it on the ground strongly confirmed my belief. In a few years we may hope to see the whole question fully treated in a volume on the Rivers of France now in preparation by Col. de la Noë of the

geographical service of the French army, and M. Emm. de Margerie, the most active and successful students of physical geography in Paris. It was through the kindness of these gentlemen that I saw while in Paris a copy of the exquisite model of the upper Moselle, constructed under the direction of the Army Engineers, a partial duplicate of which was at the Chicago exhibition last year—now, I am glad to say, remaining with us as a gift to the geographical laboratory at Harvard—and it was at their suggestion that the upper Meuse was included in my summer's excursion.

What interests me particularly in the loss of the side branches of the Meuse is the geographical evidence of the fact. It is not necessary to appeal to pebbles from the Vosges, although, of course, they are competent witnesses. The forms of the valleys at the points of change are self-declaratory, and deserve to be minutely studied as types of the geographical features characterizing rearranged drainage. Not only is each case distinct in itself, but the essential features of rearrangement are identical in the two cases, and thus one confirms the other. In order to state them briefly, let us agree to call the Meurthe-Moselle the main stream of the eastern system; this corresponds with the Aisne-Oise-Seine of the western system. The Moselle above Toul was once an important branch of the Meuse; this may be called the Moselle-Pagny, after the name of the village now standing at the former junction of the Moselle and the Meuse. The Aire above Grandpré was another important branch of the Meuse, entering it just below Sedan by a valley now followed by the Bar; its former course may, therefore, be called the Aire-Bar. Now, in both cases, the change from the former to the present courses was effected by the headward growth of branches of the Muerthe-Moselle or of the Aisne-Oise-Seine; these branches growing so far as to tap the former affluents of the Meuse, and, by offering them outlets at a lower level, tempt them to desert the Meuse and go to the sea by their present courses. The tapping branch of the Meurthe-Moselle grew southward from the village of Pompey (the present junction of the Meurthe and the Moselle) as far as Toul, and there diverted the Moselle-Pagny; consequently there remains from Toul to Pagny-sur-Meuse the abandoned meandering valley of a considerable river, now occupied by a very small stream, fed from the enclosing hills. The tapping branch of the Aisne-Oise-Seine grew eastward at Grandpré (near the present junction of the Aisne and the Aire) as far as the village of St. Juvin, and there diverted the Aire-Bar; consequently there remains from St. Juvin to Sedan again the abandoned meandering valley of a considerable river, now occupied by a very small stream, the Bar, fed from the enclosing hills. Many other minute features might be mentioned, every one of which occurs in both of these examples, and every one of which fits perfectly into the ideal scheme of river adjustments.

Although the features are small, they are extremely significant. They are to physical geography what minute anatomy is to biology, neglected heretofore, but essential now in the modern developments of science. Their comprehension adds wonderfully to the enjoyment of the landscape, not only by explaining it, but by bringing distinctly into notice a variety of minor forms that might otherwise easily escape the eye. Moreover, the changes that these little features indicate are not only of local interest, close about the place of their occurrence; they are intimately associated with the behavior of the diminished Meuse and the invigorated Seine and Moselle, hundreds of miles away. The abandoned meandering valleys, formerly occupied by the Moselle Pagny and the Aire-Bar, now afford passage to important canals on easy grades, thus connecting the facts of river history with the opportunities of human development. The former beds of the diverted rivers supply gravel for the roads of their district, and thus associate the smaller facts of to-day with greater facts of prehistoric times. The flood-plained valley of the upper Meuse is a great pasture-farm.

I look to see these old abandoned valleys and others herein named minutely studied and illustrated, and serving as the subjects for theses based on local investigation by the young geographers of the coming century. We have had enough of learning how many branches a river has; it is time to learn why one river has more than another; why the upper Meuse runs with hardly more than a branchless stem between the broad-spread branches of the Moselle and the Seine. This is a little contribution to that history. W. M. D.

# Correspondence.

## THE FENTON CASE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I missed your number of August 23, containing "Fair Play's" letter about the Fenton case.

At the suggestion of a correspondent who has been kind enough himself to furnish me with some information, I have written to the Record Office in England to see whether Capt. Fenton's petition for a pension as a Loyalist is on file there, and, if it is, whether it throws any light on the matter.

In the meantime let me assure "Fair Play" that I am unconscious of any bias. I am quite willing to cancel the passage in my history if Mme. de Riedesel's statement can be disproved. He does not charge me with misquoting Dr. Green, and I could not transfer the whole contents of Dr. Green's article to your columns. —Yours faithfully, Goldwin Smith.

Toronto, September 7, 1894.

# Notes.

Mr. Henry C. Lea has completed his work on 'Confession and Absolution,' and, as the revision of it is well under way, it cannot be long in going to the printer.

Mr. W. J. Linton will publish through the Scribners his reminiscences, 'Threescore Years and Ten' (1820–1890).

The 'Century Dictionary' will shortly be supplemented by 'The Century Cyclopædia of Names,' edited likewise by Benjamin E. Smith. Its field embraces history, biography, mythology, geography, along with ethnology, archæology, art, fiction, etc.

Roberts Bros. have nearly ready the first two volumes of a new edition of Molière's Dramatic Works translated by Miss Katharine Prescott Wormeley.

J. B. Lippincott Co., who have just issued Thiers's 'History of the Consulate,' in twelve volumes, propose to make a uniform edition in five monthly volumes, illustrated, of the same author's 'History of the French Revolution.'

Henry Holt & Co. are about to make a separate work of the historical and critical portions of Henry S. Pancoast's meritorious 'Representative English Literature,' with some rewriting and expansion.

A posthumous novel by the late dramatist, Steele Mackaye, entitled 'Father Ambrose: The Revelations of May 3, '68,' is in the press of Deshler Welch.

A new book by Max O'Rell (Paul Blouët), 'John Bull & Co.: The Great Colonial Branches of the Firm,' includes this country in the scope of its observations. It will be published by Charles L. Webster & Co.

Dodd, Mead & Co. will be, in connection with T. Fisher Unwin, the American publishers of G. H. Radford's 'Shylock and Others,' of which we lately made a brief approving mention.

'Meditations in Motley,' essays by Walter Blackburn Harte, is announced by the *Arena* Publishing Co., Boston.

Mr. Elkin Mathews parts company with his associate, Mr. Lane, at Michaelmas, but will still continue to publish at the well-known premises on Vigo Street, London. He also forsakes the emblem of the "Bodley Head."

'Anne of Geierstein' and 'Count Robert of Paris' are the twenty-third and twenty-fourth volumes respectively of the Dryburgh Waverley (Macmillan), with the customary handsome letter-press and uninspired illustrations. Another issue will complete the series.

Our recent elaborate notice of Morris and Magnússon's translation of the 'Heimskringla' dispenses us from reviewing the second volume, which has just been issued by Bernard Quaritch as the fourth in the handsome series of volumes of the "Saga Library." Nor need we do more than mention the seventh edition of Sweet's 'Anglo-Saxon Reader' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), which has been enlarged and partly rewritten. The preface, which explains the changes and improvements in detail, has a characteristically independent personal note.

Mr. Wallace Bruce's 'Panorama of the Hudson' (New York: Bryant Literary Union) is an oblong volume, fitted for the pocket or the shawl-strap, and showing photographically with sufficient distinctness on opposite pages the east and west banks of the river as far as Albany. Such a companion will do much to relieve the monotony of the day's sail and save the asking of many questions.

We have received the third supplement to the catalogue of the Public Library at Taunton, Mass., and, if our estimate be correct, the number of books recorded exceeds by some 2,500 the original body of the parent catalogue. It is a rough but no doubt an adequate as well as inexpensive finding-list. From the University of California we have a classified list of books in the pedagogical section of the Library, filling 59 pages.

The second edition of 'Graduate Courses: A Hand-book for Graduate Students,' has been issued by the Graduate Club of Harvard University, C. A. Duniway, secretary, and is supplied at the nominal price of ten cents. It displays the courses of nineteen colleges and universities, and adds the names of the instructors with their scholastic pedigrees. This work is of such manifest utility that its endowment seems imperative.

The new edition of 'Johnson's Gardener's Dictionary' (London: George Bell & Sons) has been thoroughly revised by Messrs. C. H. Wright and D. Dewar. It contains the names of nearly all cultivated or useful plants, with a few words indicating their character, use, or method of culture. Interspersed with these names are horticultural directions of all sorts,

most of them doubtless good in their way, though some of them are rather amusing; for instance, the description of an ice-house reads as if it were designed by Robinson Crusoe. A good feature is the usually correct etymology of scientific names, which are also accented. The nomenclature follows Bentham and Hooker, as indeed it would naturally do when the editors gratefully acknowledge assistance readily accorded by the Kew botanists. If our magazine-writers would consult this useful book, they would learn to write *Wistaria* instead of *Wisteria*. "Gladi'olus" is given correctly, and so is "Cle'matis"; but Arbu'tus is surely an error.

It is difficult to see what principles of selection have guided Dr. Oliver R. Willis in preparing 'A Practical Flora for Schools and Colleges' (American Book Co.). The author claims to have made "a careful selection of the most important food-producing trees, shrubs, and herbs, including ornamental plants, fruits, nuts, medicinal plants, and those which furnish oils, dyes, lumber, textile fabrics, etc." Of course many plants would have to be omitted in a little book like this; but why ten American anemones and nineteen buttercups have a place, and not one lotus or water-lily, is not easy to understand. The articles on bananas, pineapples, cocoanuts, coffee, cotton, tea, melons, oranges, etc., are in the main satisfactory. Under the Blood Orange is the rather astonishing statement that "this form is more frequently taken on when the pomegranate stock is used, but occurs occasionally with regular stocks, and does not always appear when the pomegranate stock is used." Downing's note about Pliny's account of the tree in the garden of Lucullus is apropos here. This wonderful tree was grafted so as to yield olives, almonds, apples, pears, plums, figs, and dates!

'Le Commerce,' by Gustave François (Paris: Léon Chailley), is the second issue of a series of hand-books on "La Vie Nationale" edited by Charles Benoist and André Liesse. It is a natural companion to Bastable's 'Commerce of the Nations,' already noticed in these columns; for while Bastable's work deals primarily with the historical and economic aspects of the tariff question, François, after a brief but well-proportioned sketch of the history of commerce, confines himself to setting forth the relations of the Government to trade from the standpoint of administration. Thus his chapters on customs duties describe the methods of collecting duties, the classification and valuation of commodities, statistics of trade, etc. In referring to the revival of protectionism in recent years, François asserts that the exaggerations of the McKinley bill went ahead of anything yet accomplished by European protectionists. The last three chapters discuss commercial education. The author notes the absence of opportunities for higher commercial education in the United States, but makes no doubt that before long this country will possess institutions for the purpose as important as, and probably more prosperous than, those of the Old World.

'Eudes, Comte de Paris et Roi de France (882–898),' by Édouard Favre (Paris: Émile Bouillon), belongs to Prof. Giry's series of "Annales de l'Histoire de France à l'Époque Carolingienne," which, like the *Jahrbücher des Deutschen Reiches*, aims to collect all the authenticated facts of a period and to present them in rigorous chronological order with exact references to the sources. Favre has done this for the period of Eudes with a zeal and care which rival the best German efforts of the kind. In an appendix he gives a compact and convenient sketch of the Normans up to the tenth century. In another appendix he discusses the meaning of *Dux Francorum*, and shows that it should be rendered simply the Duke of the Franks. The correlative term, *ducatus regni*, meant an office (a sort of regency), not a territory. It is not proper to speak of a Duchy of France; there was no such territorial division, and the term arose from a mistaken combination of *ducatus regni* and *Dux Francorum*. Flodoard only once employs the phrase *ducatus Franciæ* in connection with Hugues le Grand, but the meaning there is clearly the same as that of the ordinary *ducatus regni*.

Another monograph giving abundant evidence of the painstaking research and conscientious use of materials which are distinguishing the younger school of French historians is 'Le Connétable de Lesdiguières,' by Ch. Dufayard (Paris: Hachette & Cie.). The author has laid under contribution national and local French and Italian archives, local histories and family papers to illustrate the career of Lesdiguières. Much new light is thrown upon the relations between the Huguenots of the south of France and the Government. In his preface M. Dufayard exposes the inadequacy and untrustworthiness of the nearly contemporary work of Videl, hitherto the chief authority on the life of Lesdiguières.

Mme. E. Caro's 'L'Idole' (Paris: Calmann Lévy) is a study, well wrought out, of a purely selfish character lost in admiration and worship of herself. In contrast to this central figure is the sweet profile of a young girl—a character becoming decidedly more common in French fiction—and a suffering, sensitive cripple, one of the numerous victims of the idol. Frère Angi, who is neither a brother nor an angel but a very commonplace braggart and coward, is happily touched off, and the background of anarchist intrigue lends a feeling of actuality to the story. It is prettily if not vigorously written.

A new edition of Arsène Houssaye's 'La Pécheresse' (Paris: Calmann Lévy) has been published. The story is that of the Life of Théophile de Viau, poet and dramatist. The book is well known, and, as it has been out of print for some time, this reissue will be appreciated.

The third volume of the Florentine lectures of 1893, "La Vita Italiana nel Cinquecento: Arte," contains two articles, such as one looks for in an encyclopædia, on Raphael and Michelangelo, by Signor Enrico Panzacchi and by the late John Addington Symonds respectively, one by Signor Tommaso Salvini on the theatre, and another by Signor Alessandro Biaggi on the music of the sixteenth century. To the reader, Salvini's lecture may be disappointing, but to the listener the recitation of considerable portions of Trissino's "Sofonisba," of Rucellai's "Oreste," and Machiavelli's "Clizia" revealed the great actor's appreciation of those plays. Signor Biaggi makes the interesting statement that, but for the cultivation in Florence of the musical drama, Palestrina's reforms might have led no further.

"A monthly gazette of the patriotic-hereditary societies of the United States of America" appears to have been called for, and at all events that is the definition of the *American Historical Register* just launched in Philadelphia by the Historical Register Publishing Company, under the chief editorship of Charles H. Browning of the American Historical Association. Twenty-one other societies are represented by the associate editors, and the leading paper is on yet another, viz., the Association for the Preservation of Virginia Antiquities; and the celebrations and proceedings of such societies are to be printed in the *Register*. In the way of illustrations, miniatures seem likely to be numerous, and an autograph letter of Washington's in facsimile opens a department in this line.

Prof. H. P. Bowditch of the Harvard Medical School answers in *McClure's Magazine* for September the question, "Are Composite Photographs Typical Pictures?" with some very interesting illustrations, in which American physicians, car conductors and drivers, and Saxon and Wend soldiers are portrayed to the life and in the composite abstraction. The conclusion is that the process is well worth pursuing as an aid to ethnological research. The writer gives instructions for a simple method of making composites.

The Paris *Journal des Débats* of August 25 prints side by side a news item regarding a movement in the Department of the Nord to forbid the employment of female compositors in printing-houses, on a philanthropic sanitary pretence, and a note on the first women's printing-house, which carries us back four centuries, to Italy. The religious of a convent of St. James belonging to the Dominican Order had thriven by the copying and illuminating of manuscripts. The invention of printing threatened them with ruin, from which they were rescued by learning and betaking themselves to the new art. More than a hundred works issued from their press from 1476 to 1484, one of them being an edition of the 'Decameron,' dated 1478.

By an oversight in our last issue, on p. 177, "Prince Wolkowski" was printed for Volkonsky, Assistant Minister of Public Education in Russia.

—For some months a collection of sketches described as the work of John Trumbull has been offered for sale by a reputable book firm in New York city. When the announcement was first made there was much expectancy among experts and collectors, but the appearance of the catalogue dampened this, and the collection itself went far to dissipate it. The price asked for the entire collection—122 pieces in all—was $15,000; a few months later it was $10,000; and now, under a new catalogue, it has come down to $8,000, and individual lots may be purchased at varying prices. If this last quotation is a fair one, the others were exorbitant; but the price is not so much in question as the authenticity of the sketches. The evidence adduced by the present owner is singularly meagre. The collection "is believed" to have remained in the possession of Trumbull until about 1824. It then passed into the hands of a Virginian, a close friend of Trumbull, from whose grandchildren they were recently obtained. In the first catalogue issued Trumbull is said to have parted with the collection "for personal reasons," presumably pecuniary, though for eight years Trumbull had been receiving from Congress an average payment of $4,000 per annum on account of his Capitol paintings; and the Virginian is described as having been "connected with Congress for a number of years." These assertions are not repeated in the new catalogue. "The authenticity of the collection is attested by experts," of the first notice, is much elaborated in the second, where the authenticity is "fully and emphatically guaranteed"; "has been recognized by artists

familiar with his work," "difficult if not impossible to ascribe to any one else," etc., etc.

—It may be admitted at once that if these are Trumbull sketches, they possess a high monetary if not a high historical value. But the claims made in their behalf should receive a closer examination than the present owner has given them. Who are the experts who have passed on the question? One is known to be a gentleman whose opinion on art is worthy of all credence; but he has frankly admitted that the sketches could not have been drawn from life, and certainly not in 1776, and in no case are equal to the artist's general work. The other "experts" are unknown to us. Why conceal the name of the Virginian who received them from Trumbull? It is said he was one Col. Mosier, or Mosher, of Washington; but a descendant of Col. Mosier fails to have any recollection of such sketches being in the family—a remarkable lapse of memory, as the drawings were supposed to have been framed about 1824, and, therefore, unlikely to have been hid away in a garret. Then as to the identification of the drawings, some further doubt is presented. The owner claims that the pencilled names on the back are "for the greater part" in Trumbull's hand. That should be a strong bit of testimony but for the fact that some of the "mems." have been found to be wrong; and would it be likely for the artist to have mistaken his subjects? As no sketches by Trumbull of an early date are known to exist, comparison is impossible; yet it is just to ask that better evidence of the authenticity of such crude, badly drawn, and worse proportioned sketches, dealing often with trivial matters, should be furnished than irrelevant quotations from Trumbull's autobiography, and "guesses" of an owner desirous to sell. One of the early paintings of Trumbull is that of the Governor and Faith Trumbull, now in Norwich, Connecticut. It was probably done before the Revolution, as the face of "Brother Jonathan" is more youthful than other known portraits of him. The artist who painted this pair of portraits could not have perpetrated such pieces as these sketches. Many of the arguments of the cataloguer could be directed against his claims. If "artistic and military propriety" would prevent Trumbull from picturing Washington with Arnold after 1780, what can be said of the propriety of drawing Washington "in undress uniform," supporting Miss Pollock, "who presses her head against his shoulder, in fear," while Putnam on a ladder without is blowing a horn! Who were the Pollocks, drawn in more than one picture? If these sketches were done in Cambridge, no Pollock family is recorded thereabouts. What can we say of the drawing of Washington, "a delegate to Philadelphia, May 2nd, 1786, one of 7 from Virginia, to examine the Trade of U. S."?

—'The Geographical Distribution of the Vote of the Thirteen States on the Federal Constitution,' by Orin Grant Libby of the University of Wisconsin, is a valuable and exceedingly interesting study of causes and effects, political, geographical, and social. The influences which worked for and against the Constitution have generally been regarded as those of States; but Mr. Libby now demonstrates that there were wheels within wheels—geographical divisions within State lines which operated with almost as much directness and precision as if these communities had been independent bodies-politic. Massachusetts is generally supposed to have been a strong Federal State, but Mr. Libby's analysis shows that the vote in the State convention for ratifying the Federal Constitution was cast in these proportions:

"Eastern section—Yeas, 73 per cent.; nays, 27 per cent.
"Middle section—Yeas, 14 per cent.; nays, 86 per cent.
"Western section—Yeas, 42 per cent.; nays, 58 per cent."

The eastern section included the coast, the commercial interests, and substantially all the towns; the middle was the theatre of Shays's rebellion; the western was the mountain region west of the Connecticut, the frontier. New York, again, is always regarded as having been a close State, but its division was almost absolutely geographical. All of the counties west of the Hudson and north of Dutchess gave but one single vote in favor of the Constitution. Dutchess elected anti-Federal delegates, but was nearly equally divided. All of the region south of Dutchess and east of the Hudson was almost unanimously Federal. When the Convention assembled, a majority of the delegates were in the opposition, and the Constitution was saved by a few delegates from the wavering counties of Dutchess, Queens, and Suffolk, who, enlightened by the debates, and conscious of a changing sentiment at home, broke away from their party and secured the ratification which they had been elected to oppose. This study forms a pamphlet of 116 pages, with two maps showing the distribution of the vote in 1788 and of the population in 1790. It is issued as a Bulletin of the University of Wisconsin, and is a thoroughly creditable piece of work, both as regards the University and the author.

—We deeply regret to record the death on September 4 of James Clarke Welling, for many years and up to the present moment one of our most valued contributors. Mr. Welling was a native of New Jersey, having been born at Trenton, July 14, 1825, and he graduated at Princeton in 1844. His profession was the law, but he quickly abandoned it for teaching and journalism, in which pursuits, either separately or in combination, he found his life work; yet law remained his favorite chair. He began journalist in connection with Gales & Seaton, at Washington, while that capital still boasted a paper having a national reputation and influence. At the close of the civil war he renewed his career as an educator, at first as president of St. John's College, at Annapolis, Md., afterwards for one year as professor of belles-lettres at Princeton, and finally, in 1871, as president of Columbian College (now University) in Washington. His administrative powers found here a fine field for their exercise during a quarter of a century, and he left the institution in a most flourishing condition. The public estimation in which he was held was evinced by his election as president of the board of trustees of the Corcoran Gallery, and one of the regents and chairman of the executive committee of the Smithsonian Institution. He was also an active member and presiding officer of several learned societies in the District. His scholarship was very extensive, and in the field of modern American history he had few rivals in ready and accurate information. As a controversial writer he was formidable, and it was in this capacity that, in 1875, he made his début in the *Nation* as a champion of Prof. Henry, in a review of Tyndall's work on 'Sound.' Since 1886 his contributions to the *Nation* have been constant, and chiefly in the line of our political history.

—President Welling was possessed of a very genial temperament which masked his age. Had he been sooner freed from the charge of the University, we have little doubt that his life would have been considerably prolonged. We quote from a letter dated Washington, February 12, 1894, which shows his consciousness of overwork, while a hope is indulged of further literary achievement. The specific labor he had in mind was worthy of his experience and peculiar abilities, and it is much to be feared that no one equally competent will be found to undertake it. He thus wrote:

"As one of your 'hands,' I think that I ought to tell you that I have resigned the presidency of this University, to take effect at the end of the current scholastic year in June. I shall probably betake myself to my summer home in Hartford, and live there throughout the whole year, though I *may* return to Washington, every winter, to deliver my annual lectures on International Law before our Law School. With over a hundred and fifty men in our Faculty, I find the cares of administration very carking, and I am glad to shift the burden on other shoulders. Besides, I have some literary work to which I shall devote the residue of my days. I purpose to write the Civil History of our Civil War. As this task-work will leave some intervals of time for other 'diversions,' I will lend my pen to you as opportunity may offer. I was the Literary Editor of the old *National Intelligencer* before I assumed its political conduct in the year 1858."

—Prof. Joseph Hyrtl, who died at Perchtolsdorf, near Vienna, on July 17, was not only a distinguished anatomist, but also a very original character. He was born December 7, 1810, at Eisenstadt, and was the son of a musician who belonged to the Esterházy orchestra of which Joseph Haydn was the conductor. The boy devoted himself at first to music, but soon decided to study medicine. In 1836, at the early age of twenty-six, he was appointed to the professorship of anatomy in the University of Vienna, and held this position until 1874, when he tendered his resignation and withdrew to the suburban village in which he died and where, owing to his secluded life, he was generally known as "the hermit of Perchtolsdorf." In his retirement he continued to pursue his scientific studies with unabated zeal, and published numerous monographs containing the results of his researches, especially in comparative anatomy. He even learned Arabic and Hebrew in order to be able to read in the original the writings of Moorish and Jewish physicians. He is best known abroad by his 'Lehrbuch der Anatomie des Menschen,' which was issued in 1846 and has passed through thirty editions, besides being translated into all the principal languages of Europe. Hyrtl's lectures were exceedingly attractive; he was a master of lucid exposition, which he enlivened with an undercurrent of quiet humor, and occasionally enlightened with sudden flashes of wit. Once at an examination he asked the following question: "What can you tell me of the functions of the spleen?" The student, not wishing to confess his ignorance, replied hesitatingly: "I used to know, but it has unfortunately escaped me." "Unhappy man!" said Hyrtl; "you are the only one who ever knew anything about it, and you have forgotten it." At another time the candidate, a Jew named Jerusalem, failed to pass the examination. His friends were anxiously awaiting the result in an antechamber, when Hyrtl, going out, took in the situation at a glance and exclaimed in the words of Jeremiah: "Weep, O Israel! Jerusalem has fallen." Countless anec-

dotes of this kind might be told of him. With all the keenness of his sarcasm, Hyrtl was a remarkably tender-hearted man, and spent money without stint for charitable purposes, and especially for the education of poor children. In his last will and testament, after setting apart considerable sums for scientific investigations and generously remembering the village of Perchtolsdorf, he made the orphan asylum of Mödling the sole heir of the rest of his estate, amounting to more than half a million of florins, on the condition that it should pay a life annuity to his widow.

—Under the title, 'Crazy Book-collecting,' the Grolier Club has issued in a small, neat, rough-edged volume, a translation of 'De la Bibliomanie,' written by Boullioud-Mermet of the Lyons Academy, and published anonymously in 1761. It is recorded that Mr. Caudle obtained needed repose, after the decease of his spouse, by setting down with pen and ink the substance of her nocturnal admonitions, but we never heard that he got out an *édition de luxe* for presentation to his friends. Whatever the motive—whether good-humored tolerance or the wish for that manner of comfort which the English duke found in responding to the Decalogue, "Never did that, never did that," or a genuine conviction of sin—in any case the resulting booklet, decorously enlivened by its pink end-papers, is outwardly attractive, while its matter will serve to pass an idle hour to more advantage than the latest novel. It is a serving up, in an old-fashioned manner, with garnishings from the classics, of the time-honored complaints against the book-collector, wherein are denounced, sensibly enough, what were, and doubtless are, real evils; but, for effect, a treatise on the irregularity of the moon's motion will about as quickly amend the ways of our satellite. The most notable thing in the book, to a modern reader, is recurring exception, from many of the animadversions, expressly allowed to "princes or nobles." A preface in rebuttal—the bull is not chargeable to us—presumably by the translator, closes with an invitation to Grangerizers which we take to be a refinement of revenge upon the author.

## MORE FICTION.

*Pan Michael.* By Henryk Sienkiewicz. Translated from the Polish by Jeremiah Curtin. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

*A Journey in Other Worlds.* By John Jacob Astor. D. Appleton & Co.

*The Wings of Icarus.* By Laurence Alma-Tadema. Macmillan.

*A Suburban Pastoral*, and Other Tales. By Henry A. Beers. Henry Holt & Co.

*Tales of the Maine Coast.* By Noah Brooks. Charles Scribner's Sons.

*The Exiles*, and Other Stories. By Richard Harding Davis. Harper & Bros.

*A Pound of Cure.* By William Henry Bishop. Charles Scribner's Sons.

*An Interloper.* By Frances Mary Peard. Harper & Bros.

*The Man in Black.* By Stanley J. Weyman. Cassell Publishing Co.

*Under the Red Robe.* By Stanley J. Weyman. Longmans.

*Mary Fenwick's Daughter.* By Beatrice Whitby, author of 'The Awakening of Mary Fenwick.' D. Appleton & Co.

WITH the history of 'Pan Michael,' Sienkiewicz closes the series of historical novels relating to the wars of the Polish Commonwealth. As the Cossack wars and the Swedish invasion were the subjects of the preceding books ('With Fire and Sword' and 'The Deluge'), so in 'Pan Michael' the recital is of the Turkish attack upon the Commonwealth. A truce from wars, however, and a long encampment give ample leisure for the adjustment of Pan Michael's love affairs before battles begin. In love and war he is aided and abetted by Pan Zagloba, the Falstaffian hero of the earlier novels, who is still the same delightful braggart, busybody, and wit as of old, the pet and the derision of the Commonwealth. There is no falling off in interest in this third and last book of the series; again Sienkiewicz looms as one of the great novel-writers of the world. He has infinite patience in historic research, utmost skill in elaboration of detail, remarkable power of creating character, and a distinguishing ability to make the past seem present. To these equipments is added an insight into inner sources of conduct which are of no people or time but of humanity itself—an insight so subtle as to proclaim him a master equally in analysis and in narrative. The fruit of such powers is a romance which will captivate even him who reads for history; a tale of battles which will moisten the eye of the lover of love stories.

The heroes of the previous numbers of this trilogy of novels appear now in long-wedded unimportance, and "Pan Michael" is the centre of the story—the "little knight," with moustaches ever quivering with excitement, fiery in his zeal for his country, "the swordsman above swordsmen, with the heart of a dove." It would be almost true to say that his sabre is the hero, for it carries as large a share of the action as if it were indeed alive and possessed of a potent personality. The heroine, Basia, that tender-hearted hoyden, is one more proof that Sienkiewicz's inventive powers have no limit. Yet his inventions are always possible, for, wide as is his scope, he keeps ever a wary eye upon human nature, like one of his own hetmans, who, though planning a nation's campaigns, is always a tender father to each of his soldier knights. In a fast-enlarging crowd of fiction-writers one reads and balances and pronounces, but when a Sienkiewicz comes, the judgment stands up, and, freed from all office but that of recognition, says, "Here is genius." If the halo is ever seen to be askew, it is in matters where the tastes and sensibilities of races differ. There are pages of description of bodily torture which the most honest translator might have been pardoned for omitting.

The leading motive of Mr. Astor's 'Journey in Other Worlds' is sounded in the preface, where, after settling in a few breezy sentences "the protracted struggle between science and the classics" in favor of the former, he goes on to say: "How much more interesting it would be if, instead of reiterating our past achievements, the magazines and literature of the period should devote their consideration to what we do not know!" This book is all about what we do not know, therefore a potent plea for the strictly scientific. To do the argument justice, the speculations as to the state of the universe in the year 2000 A. D. are founded in part upon the discoveries and inventions of the present time. Electricity, for example, supersedes animal motive power; the baleful germ has been harnessed to man's use and made to slay the superfluous rabbit and the objectionable serpent. Perfect pavements, really rapid transit, rain-making, navigation by electricity and tides (without boilers, engines, sails, or sea-sickness), marine spiders, or ships spinning on many legs over the ocean's surface, air vessels, coast-making and valley-filling, the straightening of the earth's axis (in order to produce an equable climate) by pumping out the waters at the poles alternately—are among the accomplished facts of the next century, based on principles known to this, and all are explained in convincing detail. But new forces are discovered also; and chiefly apergy, which annuls gravitation, and which, yoked with gravitation, enables three en- and ap-ergetic gentlemen to visit Jupiter and Saturn and return to earth. Many of their adventures are very entertaining and suggestive. There are discoveries for all—for the boy who used to read Mayne Reid; for the adult whose tastes incline him to Jules Verne or to the astronomic flights of Flammarion; for the botanist, the hunter, the inventor, the scientist, and for the theologian who loves to speculate on the place of departed spirits. There is food for all, or, if any one goes away from the banquet hungry, it will be the poet. This is what a Vassar girl of the twenty-first century writes under her lover's photograph:

> "Did you but know how I love you,
> No more silly things would you ask.
> With my whole heart and soul I adore you,
> Idiot! Goose! Bombast!"

The conclusion of Laurence Alma-Tadema's story is a pity, for up to the last moments it is a book of unusual vital force. A more honest photograph has never been made than of Emilia Fletcher's mind: of her morbid weakness, her heroic power, her grief, doubts, fears; of her friendships, hypocrisies, tendernesses; of her love, pride, and jealousy; of her recklessness and cowardice. The world is ear-deep in love-stories—so deep that the reader well-nigh forgets that there remains a possibility of finding distinction in any, till now and then, as in the present instance, there appears one written with that greatest distinction, the truth, and with a living pulse-beat instead of the mechanical or conventional action that usually does duty for nature. So much may be said for the Letters and Journal which tell the first part of Emilia's story. The postscript opens well, but ends in an artistic no less than a moral collapse, disappointing to the interest awakened by an evident and original talent.

Mr. Beers's stories are of light calibre, and abound in modern college speech and thought. His college men talk with naturalness and in a bright, gay, semi-cynical vein which makes their conversations entertaining, particularly those among themselves. When they are in ladies' society, they are neither so clever nor so agreeable. The descriptions of nature, in which the pages are rich, are made with a light yet intimate touch. One recognizes a student, almost a discoverer, of the pastoral as found not far from the madding crowd, in the suburban field, the cedar-girt cemetery, the unimproved city lot. The author is skilled in leading the reader into surprises, and he has the latter-day love of the indeterminate. Sometimes the twilight of his conclusions seems to come from the instinct of the artist, sometimes from that of the perfectly good-tempered and humorous pessimist; the poet and the collegian are yoked rather than fused—the stories have always a two fold flavor. Whether or no the plot is ingenious, and it frequently is, the atmosphere is always markedly that of the reader of books, the lover of nature, and the delineator of humanity. The books reflected are the best, the nature is the half-reclaimed, and the humanity, shall we say? lies between the two.

Mr. Brooks's tales of the Maine coast are as pleasantly redolent of brine and tar as an ocean voyage; of East Indian spices and per-

fumes as a grand-maternal chest in an attic; of village oddities as only an old coast town can be. In such a community the native quintessence is heightened instead of lessened by touch with the farthest ends of the earth. The carved whale's tooth and the bunch of red coral that the sailor lad carries home only bring out afresh the local coloring of the New England amphibious town. Adventure rather than character is the phase emphasized by Mr. Brooks, although a harmonious balance is held between the two, while the style is that of the capable, competent writer.

"Perhaps it may turn out a sang, Perhaps turn out a sermon," was not spoken of Richard Harding Davis's stories, but might have been. Under the airy, all but frivolous manner, under the detail, the localisms, the light-hearted realism, lies often what we will not call by so dry a name as a moral, still less a purpose; a hint, let us rather say, at the soul of evil or good in things good or evil, that sets one to thinking the deeper because unexpectedly. The sermon, be it said, is never preached. The story is trilled forth, and the listener helps himself to song, sermon, or both. "The Exiles" is the strongest story Mr. Davis has written, and is an achievement of real power—a tale calculated to give pause to those who either defy or deify public opinion. "His Bad Angel," too, is a holding up of the mirror to Nature's motive springs, and has no little suggestive force. If we are prompted by these stories to think that Mr. Davis succeeds best where he is saying most, there is temptation to reverse the opinion in reading "The Right of Way," which turns out a song, and is a gay little piece of student fun on the Avon River. Our brothers the Hefty Burke and the Van Bibber reappear in other stories, at their most distinctive, but in fresh situations; nor are new and attractive acquaintances lacking. The subjunctive and will-and-shall proof-reader has hardly had his share in this attractive and original volume.

Mr. Bishop's story of Monte Carlo is strong and effective as a picture of the gambling passion, and full of charming little "murmurs and scents" of the Mediterranean shore. The glimpses of a child are pretty and true. The characters of the good and the evil angels are somewhat indistinct, but they serve, since the story is rather of the irresistible force of opportunity in a temptation once yielded to than of any human influences for or against it. The writing, as might have been expected, is expressive and highly trained.

A comfortable, old-fashioned story, based on comfortable, old-fashioned lines, is Miss Peard's story of an alliance between a bourgeoise and a scion of the oldest noblesse of France, with the not wholly unexpected result of the bourgeoise proving to be much the better half. The perplexities and mysteries and troubles belong to an old but good school of fiction, freshened with a new device or two. The reader ambles alongside in cheerfully familiar suspense and well-worn luxury of woe. There is always extreme smoothness and refinement in Miss Peard's style and material. In 'An Interloper' there are these, and there are several notably well-drawn personalities. The child is truly a child, with no poses; the old bourgeois father, the *dévote* sister-in-law, the Parisian advocate, are excellently distinct. The interest, moreover, deepens and culminates in satisfactory fashion. Breathes there a novel-reader with soul so dead who does not love a court-room and a trial?

The pen that wrote 'Francis Cludde' finds a public more than ready for its fresh ventures. Nor will that public suffer a disappointment in reading 'The Man in Black' and 'Under the Red Robe.' Both are stories of the time of Richelieu, and both clamor to be read when once begun. They are well-knit in their make; they are romantic without feebleness, and stirring without bombast, and they are sweet and clean.

Miss Whitby has introduced a novel character in the daughter of Mary Fenwick, and although she has been sparing in exasperating allusions to the scenes in which Mary Fenwick the first lived and moved, we are led to wonder why, in view of her abundant resources, all the characters could not have come fresh from the author's hand. As a study of heredity there is a lack of vividness and definiteness, partly due, perhaps, to the very limitations which a sequel imposes. As a tale pure and simple this sequel pictures well-to-do English country life, with its inevitable accompaniments of hunting, golfing, and other sports, naturally and pleasantly, and without too many field and stable euphuisms. Cupid enters the lists against the energetic and defiant Diana of a heroine, but without success until she is put *hors de combat* by a runaway horse and a frightful accident. After two years or more of helplessness ministered to by a lover faithful from childhood, the vanquished Diana falls a victim to matrimony, and develops into a British matron of a rather unusual type, one who "likes to have her husband make up her mind for her," and even becomes inspired with "reverence" for a mother-in-law whose spiteful, meddlesome character the author has clearly set forth.

A lack of humor sometimes allows Miss Whitby's pen to slip into bathos, and a morbid fancy for quotation-marks awakens the uncomfortable suspicion that the most commonplace expressions require endorsement. For if we are not to make use, for example—and it is by no means an isolated one—of such an innocent phrase as "make her little finger ache," without fencing it off with inverted commas, what a future lies before us! The numerous typographical errors are downright amusing, though some people may not care for that sort of entertainment.

## MR. GOLDWIN SMITH'S TRANSLATIONS FROM THE GREEK TRAGEDIANS.—II.

*Specimens of Greek Tragedy.* Translated by Goldwin Smith, D.C.L. Æschylus and Sophocles; Euripides. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co.

THERE is no doubt a strong temptation to translate line for line, and there is also in the Greek dramatic dialogue a balancing and numbering of lines which it is pleasant to detect, and which was one of the golden chains that tragedy moved in and decked itself withal. In the choral odes, balance and number are carried out with mathematical accuracy; yet Mr. Smith is ready to dispense completely with the choruses, which exhibit this peculiarity in perfection. In the dialogue we may certainly dispense with a nicety which can only be discovered by counting, which is unknown in English, and which is a heavy strain on the translator. Our problem must not be overloaded with difficulties—we must not carry too many chains. The main object of a metrical translation is evidently to reproduce something more than the thought and the matter—the mere body—of the original. These can be given satisfactorily in prose. The aim of the metrical version must be to suggest also other qualities of the original, its felicities of phrase, its rhythm, its musical language, its soul of beauty; and the very terms of the problem require that these shall be expressed or suggested in rhythms and melodies and beauties, native to the new language, though akin, if possible, to the old.

Now it is quite plain that the translator who sets himself the task of following the original line for line, or word for word, shackles himself at the outset by undertaking to accompany the precise pace and movement of an alien Pegasus. If he has a real poetic gift, he handicaps himself, just as Longfellow, for many plausible reasons, handicapped himself regrettably in his version of the 'Divina Commedia.' The process of Chapman and of FitzGerald was different from this. Each of these charged himself with the spirit of his author, and, after a deep draught of inspiration, poured forth the message that was in him. In spirit, in power, in fire and passion, the result was faithful to the original; in language, it was delivered from the fetters of individual lines, or words, or phrases. It was inspired, but the inspiration was not verbal. FitzGerald, as he confesses, was "haunted by the ghost of Agamemnon until he laid it." Chapman's style had some of the freaks of his period; FitzGerald, on the other hand, had "the feminine of genius," as he calls it—taste. He had, moreover, the professional equipment which even a poet requires, if he is to write any kind of verse that has a history in the English language. He had, of course, studied his Shakspere as every gentleman and scholar does; but he had gone much further: he had lived in the society of the Elizabethan poets, and absorbed in his ear the cadences of Webster and Ford, and the imaginative diction of Marlowe; and so he had mastered the difficult secret of blank verse, of its long melodious periods, its intricate and varied music, which are quite a match in charm and freedom and power for the Homeric hexameter and the Attic trimeter. Finally, he was, in spite of his own vehement denials, a poet, though not strongly creative; hence he was willing to be a satellite—to shine with a borrowed light.

Now, Mr. Smith is not, like Chapman or FitzGerald, "haunted" by his author; he is not exactly inspired. He is simply working deliberately at a problem which he solves with finish and general success. We are tempted to examine minutely workmanship of this kind; and a minute examination reveals here and there little flaws and specks in the execution. One might take, for example, that fiery speech of *Medea*, in which, *more Euripideo*, she lashes herself into a reasoning and most reasonable rage against *Jason*. It is by no means Mr. Smith's best piece of work, and that is the reason it serves us here for an illustration. One might pick holes in it; one might remark, Here *Jason* says something ridiculous which Euripides never put in his mouth; here, again, a strong line is weakened; here an important phrase is omitted; here is a slight misrepresentation; here a lapse into prose; here some careless, lisping lines harsher than the "sigmatism" which *Medea* permits herself, with good reason, against her betrayer. But all this prying and piddling leads to nothing. Every one of these slips might be mended and there would still be the same general complaint to make. These minute criticisms which a scholar might make would be of small moment to the English reader, if the general sweep of the translation were as impassioned, dramatic, and musical as the original. The original is a strong passage, which reads and declaims admirably.

but it is by no means unapproachable. In point of fact, Mr. Smith was here more literal than usual; and this, perhaps, was his temptation. In feeling about after the Greek, and taking it word for word, he missed somewhat the flow and passion; he was not at all inspired; he was trying—perhaps, in a listless mood—to work out an equation between two languages.

This "conscientious fidelity under which the original drags and labors" is exactly what FitzGerald deprecates for the class of readers who, after all, are most deeply concerned—those who have no Greek or Spanish or Persian, as the case may be. The present writer will probably never read the Persian of Omar Khayyám; but he is profoundly grateful for the quatrains which revealed to him the fascinations of that Oriental Anacreon whose song has a strain of the splendid melancholy of Lucretius. He does not greatly care whether FitzGerald rendered line for line, or could take his oath to every word and phrase and metaphor. He knows that he can resort to some prose version, and verify at his leisure the precise terms of the original document. On the other hand, he feels sure that the quatrains have given him a true glimpse of an enchanted land that is very far off, that they have reproduced for him the spirit of some strange and powerful original, with all its spell of phrase and melody and rhythm. So, too, in the daring versions of the "Agamemnon" and his combination of the two plays that bear the name of "Oedipus." In these FitzGerald certainly cut loose from "conscientious fidelity"; he took great liberties; he released his text from some bits of antiquity and archæology which require a running commentary to understand; he bound himself fast to genuine English dramatic forms. But did he really miss the quintessence of the Greek spirit, and beauty and sublimity, the atmosphere and color of Greek tragedy? No more, we think, than he missed the Oriental color and enchantment in the quatrain and in "Salaman and Absal." Out of all the experiments that have yet been made, we should still venture to place in the hands of the unlearned reader his paraphrase of the "Agamemnon." With the aid of this and of a good prose translation, he might safely correct his calculations, and divine the planet he has never seen.

Such a reader might guess how much, after all, he loses in the best prose rendering. Take, for example, the lullaby in the "Philoctetes," which runs in liquid melody, and is expressed in a few magic words that haunt the imagination like one of Shakspere's songs. Turned into prose, what becomes of it? It is like the transformation of those sheeny grasses and iridescent shells one sees waving or moving in the liquid light of some rock pool. You take them out and arrange them on cards or in a cabinet; you may be able to make affidavit to the scientific integrity of every particle of the objects; but what has happened? The splendor, the enchanting colors, the life and motion, are clean gone. The things are dead—they are no longer in their element. This magic element—this vehicle which transforms and beautifies all that lives and moves in it—is what the poet gives and the rhetorician denies.

A single brief extract will illustrate the difference between the conscientious, line-for-line method, and the poetical method, permitting itself some license. Clytæmnestra has just openly avowed her murderous plot, and, in reply to the reproaches of the chorus, dares them to do their worst. The versions run as follows:

Prof. Smith's:

"Yea, thy award to me is banishment
And execration and the people's curse,
But no such measure didst thou mete this man
When recklessly as it had been a beast,
While in the pastures sheep were numberless,
He sacrificed his child, the dearest child
That I had borne, to charm the Thracian gales.
*Him from the land to drive for his foul deed*
*Thy justice moved thee not.* But now I come
Before the bar, the judge is merciless.
I warn thee that thy threats are launched at one
Who, if thou canst in equal combat win,
Will yield; but should heaven otherwise ordain,
Thou mayst too late be put to wisdom's school."

FitzGerald's:

"Aye, aye, to me how lightly you adjudge
Exile or death, and never had a word
Of counter-condemnation for him there;
Who, when the field throve with the proper flock
For sacrifice, forsooth let be the beast,
And with his own hand his own innocent
Blood, and the darling passion of my womb—
Her slew—to lull a peevish wind of Thrace.
And him who curs'd the city with that crime
You hail with acclamation; but on me,
Who only do the work you should have done,
You turn the axe of condemnation. Well;
Threaten you me, I take the challenge up;
Here stand we face to face; win thou the game,
And take the stake you aim at; but if I—
Then, by the Godhead that for me decides,
Another lesson you shall learn, though late."

Each passage is, we think, fairly characteristic. Mr. Smith's is scholarly, it follows the Greek almost line for line; it is close without being slavish, and it is, as a matter of course, expressed in forcible, idiomatic English. If now we read aloud—or, if an actor reads aloud—FitzGerald's lines, we discover, first of all, that they were written to be acted, that the lines move with the speaker, that the passage is naturally dramatic. It is alive with all the fire and passion and daring of the "man-mettled" queen. It is, moreover, entirely spontaneous English, taking its mould from nothing but English models, and suggesting no hidden constraint like the lines we have italicized in Mr. Smith's version, which we venture to say would never have been written as they are except under the dictation of the Greek order and syntax. It treats the original with some freedom, yet it preserves all the meaning; it preserves, too, that fine imaginative phrase (φιλτάτην ἐμοὶ ὠδίν') which Mr. Smith found it in his heart to commute for matter-of-fact prose.

Our conclusion is briefly this: There is room and use for translations in prose as well as verse; each may present certain phases which can hardly be exhibited in perfection by the other. But a translation in verse should, if possible, result in a poem, and should, therefore—if you can catch him—be done by a poet. Moreover, when you catch him, you must not bind him down by too hard-and-fast conditions, but let him have somewhat free play in the forms of his native language, and under the influence of a sort of secondary inspiration. Otherwise you clip his wings, and your version lumbers, and the critics point out how preferable is prose to verse in translations. And since born poets are so rare and shy creatures to catch, and so whimsical and balky, as a rule, in harness, let us be thankful when an adroit master of the resources of our English speech like Prof. Smith finds leisure to step in and serve us.

## THE BRITISH FORTIETH.

*Historical Records of the Fortieth (Second Somersetshire) Regiment*, now First Battalion, the Prince of Wales's Volunteers (South Lancashire Regiment), from its formation in 1717 to 1893. By Capt. R. H. Raymond Smythies, First Bat., P. W. V. (S. Lan. Reg.). Devonport. 1894. Thirty-three full-page illustrations. 8vo, pp. 640.

No regiment in the British army has such a peculiar claim on the interest of Americans as the one of which the above work is an account. Originally formed in this country, it has been closely connected with our military history from the early part of the last century down to the close of the war of 1812 and the capture of Fort Bowyer in Mobile Bay. From that time it contributes to the annals of English prowess and conquest in nearly every quarter of the world. Its career has been singularly fortunate. In the long series of actions in which it was engaged, we do not remember that it was in one notable defeat, nor did it lose by capture any considerable number, except four companies at Canso in 1744, through no fault of their own, and one in Newfoundland in 1762. On the other hand, nineteen honors are inscribed on its colors, outnumbering those of every regiment of but one battalion in the army, and amply justifying its familiar title, "The Excellers" (XLers). It is to be deeply regretted that this title, the Fortieth, by which it is known in history, should be lost in the merely territorial designation which the recent reorganization of the army requires. "The loss of individuality and of connection with the past can in no regiment have been greater and in none more keenly felt."

Capt. Raymond Smythies has not attempted to make of the abundant material which he has gathered from every source for his work a connected narrative. Under each year he has given briefly the movements and services of the regiment in that interval and every few years its roster. Much of this detail is necessarily dry and unappetizing, but wherever an opportunity occurs to insert a personal account of some noteworthy action, the author has skilfully used it. These accounts are drawn in several instances from manuscript sources. It was in the year 1717 that the regiment was formed out of the eight companies which at that time garrisoned the frontier posts of Nova Scotia and Newfoundland. The only one of its original officers who attained any particular distinction was Capt. (afterwards Gen.) Paul Mascarene, a Huguenot refugee, who was acting governor of Nova Scotia during the most critical period of its history. For nearly half a century it performed garrison duty, neglected, as was too common in those days with regiments on foreign service, by the home Government and its honorary commanders. At times the soldiers were even dependent upon the private means of their officers for food and clothing, and the companies dwindled away each to a few decrepit old men. Yet even in this condition it laid the foundations of its reputation as the "Fighting Fortieth" by beating back from the crumbling walls of Annapolis Royal, in two successive years, an overwhelming force of French and Indians. Its long series of distinctions began with the second siege of Louisburg in 1758, when the detachment of which it formed a part, under Gen. Wolfe, succeeded in making a landing despite the heavy surf and the hot fire of the enemy. The following year its grenadiers joined in the brilliant, though rash and unsuccessful, attack on the fortifications of Quebec, which called out a severe rebuke from the commanding general. This error they retrieved on the Heights of Abraham when they made the final charge upon the French with Wolfe at their head. The regiment was present at the capture of Montreal, where it remained in garrison until the summer of 1761, when it was withdrawn to take part in the expedition against the French and Spanish West Indies.

The siege of Havana, during which it lost

heavily, was the next important service on which it was engaged. After the restoration of this place to Spain in 1763, the regiment returned to Nova Scotia, and in the following year was transferred to Ireland. Here it was stationed till the spring of 1775, when it was ordered to America, arriving at Boston the week after the battle of Bunker Hill. At this time it numbered 475 men, but the hardships of the following winter considerably reduced its strength. On the evacuation of Boston, the British army went to Halifax, whence a detachment of the regiment consisting of 170 men was immediately sent to Georgia to obtain rice for the forces. This was not accomplished without some difficulty, as the rebellious townspeople of Savannah refused supplies. Consequently "a detachment was sent up the Back River in boats, which succeeded in carrying off eighteen vessels of grain, whilst the attention of the inhabitants was attracted by the larger vessels, which made a feint up the ordinary passage." Among the losses reported in Gen. Howe's despatch, was "one man killed and scalped." At the Battle of Long Island the regiment lost its commander, Lieut.-Col. Grant, and, in rescuing his body, the adjutant (afterwards Gen. Sir John Doyle) greatly distinguished himself. It was also present and took part in the actions of White Plains, Fort Washington, Princeton, and Brandywine.

But the crowning distinction of its service in the Revolutionary war was gained at Germantown. During the retreat of the British early in the day, six companies of the Fortieth flung themselves into the Chew House, which they held, notwithstanding all the efforts of Washington to dislodge them, until the British had time to form and drive back our troops. In commemoration of this action a medal was specially struck and presented by the colonel of the regiment to the officers and men. It bears on one side a representation of Chew House, surrounded by American troops, with cannon firing upon it, and on the other side the words, "Germantown, Octr 4, 1777," encircled by a laurel wreath. After the battle of Monmouth Court-house, in which the repulse of our troops is ascribed by Gen. Clinton, in part, to "the good countenance of the Fortieth Regiment," it was sent to the West Indies along with the expedition for the conquest of St. Lucia. In 1781 it returned to Staten Island, and soon after was detailed for service in Gen. Arnold's raid on New London. With the Fifty-fourth it made the brave and sanguinary assault on Fort Griswold, losing eighty-six men killed and wounded, including its commander, or nearly a fourth of its number. Upon his successor, Major Stephen Bromfield, still rests the grave suspicion of having murdered the gallant Col. Ledyard at the moment of the surrender of the latter's sword. Mr. W. H. Harris, in his work 'The Battle of Groton Heights,' with very ingenious though not conclusive arguments, endeavors to prove that the infamous deed is to be laid to the charge of Capt. Beckwith of the Fifty-fourth Regiment. When the latter, some years after the war, was accused of the crime, he indignantly denied it, and is said to have produced documentary evidence to prove his innocence.

On the 25th of November, 1783, Evacuation Day, the regiment embarked for England, the officer who commanded it at Germantown, Lieut.-Col. (afterwards Gen. Sir Thomas) Musgrave being the "acting brigadier and commandant of New York," the last English officer to serve in this capacity. At this time it was quartered on "Laurel Hill in York Island," its strength being 242 officers and men. Want of space prevents our following the fortunes of the regiment during its service in Holland, the West Indies, in Egypt (where it distinguished itself at Abukir and Alexandria), and in South America, whence it returned with Montevideo to be inscribed on its colors. In the Peninsula it was engaged in seventeen battles and sieges, winning four honors, but losing in killed alone 315 men. In November, 1814, the Fortieth sailed for Madeira with sealed orders, and, upon these being opened, to New Orleans to reinforce Sir Edward Pakenham. The mouth of the Mississippi was reached on the 9th of January, and on the two following days the men were sent up the river in launches. The news of the British defeat met them on their way, and they returned to their transports. The account of the subsequent proceedings of the British fleet and army is taken by Capt. Smythies from the manuscript diary of one of the officers of the regiment, Lieut. Hugh B. Wray. It differs in such an extraordinary manner from the official reports, both of the English and the American commanders, that we quote it in full:

"7th February.—We just received orders to weigh and proceed, in two divisions, to attack (it is supposed) Fort Mobile, which is reported amazingly strong—we are now off. We are to go as far as possible in these ships, and then proceed in small boats. I trust we may succeed, and, indeed, I have no doubt. One division, consisting of the 95th, 7th, and *old 40th*, are to make the first attack, and the other, under command of the senior officer of the second brigade, to support us.

"12th February.—We are now as far as the large ships can go, and the small boats are all ready—some off. We are to be commanded by Gen. Lambert, and expect to be close under the fort by morning. We this moment arrived —10:06 A. M.—on our island (called Dauphine), within two small miles of the fort we are to *take* in the morning.

"13th February. — Last night, about 12 o'clock, one of our corvettes, with two hundred Indians, attempted to storm the fort, but, unfortunately, in the dark, the vessel grounded, and our sailors were obliged to blow her up. The explosion illumined the whole bay. The Indians were made prisoners and, of course, all failed. We, as yet, have received no orders to move.

"14th February.—Last night we received orders to be under arms before daylight, and I am now before the fort, in our bivouac, out of range of shot. The fellows are pelting away shot and shell like the mischief. This morning I came off a working party, when we were close enough. We have not lost many men.

"16th February.—Our people have been hard at work these two days back forming some batteries and getting the guns mounted. We were to have commenced cannonading at 10 o'clock this morning, and to have stormed where they would breach for us; when—much to our surprise—they (the enemy) sent an officer and flag of truce, about half-past nine, with terms of capitulation. The prisoners of war, consisting of one full colonel, some officers, and about six hundred rank and file, some women and children, are all embarking on board some flats, and are going on board the line-of-battle ships. Their fort was a square of four embrasures, mounting altogether twenty-two guns, all eighteen and twenty-four pounders; and our position was two small sand hills on each flank of the enemy, with a small sandbag battery in their front, on which were mounted four howitzers. It is said we are to return to-morrow to the island, which is about two miles across the channel, and that we will get tents soon, which is a comfort not yet enjoyed by us. We always bivouac, though the rains are very heavy."

In the various histories of the war, the British are said to have landed above Mobile Point on the 8th, the batteries were ready to receive their guns on the 10th, and at three o'clock on the 11th the fort was surrendered. Neither Gen. Lambert, the English commander, nor Col. Lawrence, the American, in their official reports, mentions the attempt of the corvette to storm the fort and the capture of the Indians. Gen. Jackson, in his despatch to the Secretary of War dated February 24, announcing the surrender of the fort, says: "This is an event which I little expected to happen but after the most gallant resistance; that it should have taken place without even a fire from the enemy's batteries, is as astonishing as it is mortifying," the implication being that no real resistance was made on the part of our troops. On the other hand, the description given by Lieut. Wray of the fort, its armament and the English works, agrees fairly with the plan and official documents contained in Major A. L. Latour's 'Historical Memoir of the War.' Considering the fact that the English officer's account is so full of minute detail apparently written at the time of the events which it narrates, it is very difficult to reconcile his statements with the commonly received accounts, and we leave the problem without any attempt at a solution.

From this time the fortunes of the regiment hardly claim our attention. It returned to Europe just in time to take part in the battle of Waterloo, where it was commanded by the Duke of Wellington himself at the final charge, and lost 221 men in killed and wounded. Its foreign service after this was in Australia, India, Afghanistan, and New Zealand. During the Crimean war and the Sepoy Mutiny it was in New South Wales. South Africa alone is the only quarter of the world in which England has a peculiar interest where it has not served with distinction. Much of this latter half of the volume, from the close of the Napoleonic wars, is of an official character, consisting of regimental lists, extracts from general orders, and bare records of changes of officers and stations. These are interspersed, however, especially in the account of the Indian campaigns and the Maori war, with personal narratives, which give a vivid idea of the soldier's life. For the past two years the regiment has been stationed in Ireland.

An appendix contains, among other things, biographical notices of all colonels and lieutenant-colonels, that of Mascarene being contributed by one of his descendants in this country. There are also some rules regarding the employment of light-infantry companies issued in 1772 and brought to a practical test in the Revolutionary war. Among the illustrations are portraits of Lieut.-Gen. Richard Philipps, first colonel and Governor of Nova Scotia; Maj.-Gen. Paul Mascarene; Gen. Sir John Doyle, Bart.; and Gen. Sir Thos. Musgrave, Bart., together with a copy of the Germantown medal. The edition of this painstaking work is limited to 250 numbered copies.

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*How to Study and Teach History.* With particular reference to the history of the United States. By B. A. Hinsdale, Ph.D., LL.D., Professor of the Science and Art of Teaching in the University of Michigan. International Education Series. D. Appleton & Co. 1894.

THE prejudice against teachers' guide-books is dying fast, if it be not now dead. The teacher taught is no longer looked upon as a fine old English comedy. But a few years since, and though one might write 'The Microscopist's Vademecum,' 'The Moulder's Manual,' or 'The Boys' Own Book of Games,' without provoking ridicule or obloquy from any of the influential classes addressed, the humblest attempt at pointing out to teachers the beauty of a bet-

ter way had much the same effect as the annual gift received by a worthy dissenting minister of Lancashire from a church-going neighbor of a parcel of Windsor soap. "They tell me," said an applicant for kitchen service to a lady well known in the realms of cookery and fiction, "that you teach your girls to wash dishes." "I do," replied the lady. "Well," said the applicant, after an indignant pause, "I think dish-washing comes by instinct." So, doubtless, have many teachers thought of their vocation. Normal schools were bad enough, but a normal press, if one may use the phrase, was an intolerable abnormality. All that is changed: teachers have become educators; education has evolved into pedagogy, and the book in hand is the twenty-fifth in a series of its kind.

The subject is difficult and delicate, for to many the teaching of history, beyond other teaching, comes by nature; while to ask a man to write about it often proves an invitation to suicide in the quagmires of philosophy. Fortunately, Dr. Hinsdale is competent in both knowledge and judgment, and his book will neither offend nor bewilder. Elementary and secondary teachers, whom he has had mainly in mind, will find much to interest and stimulate, even though they are already familiar with recent thought upon this subject; his works should prove of great value to scholars in normal and high schools, and college students. He begins with an examination of the nature of history, interweaves the theories of writing and teaching it, and concludes with a practical example of proper method drawn from the history of our own country. In the course of the discussion there is some confusion of arrangement, and it is difficult to be sure one has found all that is said on any phase; a thought is often jotted down where it occurred to the writer rather than in its logical place; but what is said is commonly well said and worth saying.

On the nature of history Dr. Hinsdale has confined himself somewhat closely to quotations from other writers, and the resulting illumination is not dazzling, but it must be remembered that in few if any branches of knowledge is the confusion of terms so great. History is the name of a science and an art; it is also commonly used to denote the subject-matter on which each is based. It means, first, a set of facts or events; secondly, the effort to learn about these facts or events, the what and the why of them; and thirdly, it means the effort to describe and account for the facts or events with literary skill. Moreover, the champions of history as science and history as literature mutually yearn to exterminate one another—a condition which does not exist in the case of mineralogy or the calculus, though an approach to it may be noted in certain of the natural sciences, and a counterpart might, without much exaggeration, be imagined to prevail between sociologists or physiologists and the purveyors of realistic fiction. May we not hope for the day when it shall be amicably agreed and understood that the historical student has no concern with the literary side of the subject, and that he who finds pleasure in historical literature need have but a very subordinate interest in historical research?

What is said of the adaptation of instruction to different grades may be commended to parents and to all who, like public librarians, are called upon to guide children's reading. Young children are attracted by the concrete and the individual, because such facts correspond to their experiences and are most easily reproduced in imagination; hence the story, and the story of individual action or passion, appeals to them most strongly. In teaching history begin with biography, says Dr. Hinsdale; we would substitute another phrase, since "biography" in our mind is associated with drab-covered books, three inches thick, printed in depressing type, with few paragraphs and a plentiful lack of "conversations." Begin with stories of personality, we prefer to say. Guided by the imagination must the novice, be he young or old, approach the Muse of History if he would profit by her lessons; and by the presentation of personality and the individual life in minute detail is that lagging servant most easily aroused. Hence the importance of poetry and fiction in historical teaching. We have heard of late that the historical novel is a failure and an impossibility; but while we were still shuddering at the crime of reading nineteenth-century ideas into mediæval noddles, the historical novel has sprung into new life. It will always live, and always will it have power to charm men back into the past; for what the artist touches, though he scatter anachronisms on every page, will rouse the imagination in duller souls, and set them on the search for better knowledge. Once induce a pupil to visualize a past transaction, and you can lead him with an ever-growing enthusiasm into the regions of the higher historical abstractions. Without that power, you may make him a Casaubon or a Dryasdust, but nothing more.

It might be thought unnecessary to insist before an audience of teachers on the prime importance of a knowledge of history to those who would teach it, but doubtless there are those in any profession who find it easier to acquire manner than matter. To all intending teachers who may be tempted of the goddess superficiality, these words are golden:

"The most important topic has been reserved to the last—a knowledge of history itself. Perhaps there is reason to fear that the normal schools and the institutes are leading some teachers to think that the first requisite is not knowledge, but methods. No greater mistake could possibly be made. Methods cannot be understood until subject-matter has been mastered, and even if they could be, they would prove empty and worthless" (p. 151).

Equally sound are the remarks on the place of the lecture and the seminary method in historical instruction. Of the latter the author says:

"Its proper function lies in the field of original work. From this it follows necessarily that the students admitted to it should be picked students, not only mature in mind, but already well instructed in history and its methods, and able, by reason of practice, to carry on to advantage lines of independent study under general supervision. It follows also that the professor himself should be a picked man, well acquainted with original sources and other authorities, and capable of directing and inspiring students. These points it is important to state in the plainest language, because there is reason to fear a more or less general travesty of seminary methods the country over. The lecture has already made its way into some strange places, and we need not be surprised to see the seminary follow in its wake" (p. 65).

In truth, there is an ugly side to the new methods in teaching history. It is agreed that it does not pay to teach the higher mathematics to those who are incapable of becoming mathematicians. It is an equal waste of energy to exhibit the whole apparatus of history before miscellaneous classes, a portion of whom may be capable of grasping and digesting what is set forth, while more will go away in the belief that history is nothing but a matter of turning up some original sources, adhering closely to all the original errors, and making special mention of every book one takes from the shelf. The *Index Medicus* is inestimable, but lightly ballasted voyagers on Aesculapian seas have sometimes thought by sounding in its depths alone to find the flood that should bear them on to fortune. A like danger must attend the opening up of the sources of historical research, but let us at least not encourage any one, in school or in college, to think himself an historian on the strength of a foray among town records. Scissors and the paste-pot are equally objectionable in historical composition, whether they be exercised on original sources or on compilations of the *n*th degree.

The book closes with a timely chapter on the importance of teaching civics. Recent events have disclosed a startling ignorance of the very meaning of political organization on the part of intelligent men. We are not, at heart, a law-abiding people nor true lovers of Justice; the air around her shrine is too pure and cold for our lowland lungs. We, the people, love the easy virtues, a mercy born of selfishness, a good nature that drags all high things down and looks neither forward nor back. It will profit a child little to know the details of municipal administration, or to repeat by rote the national Constitution, if he fail to understand why these things exist.

As we lay the book aside there comes to us again the question, What, after all, is the value of teaching methods in education? Value it must have; the conscientious teacher, who seeks aid on every side, cannot but find some hint in books like this. Help it must give, also, to such as are fitting themselves to become teachers. Yet the essence of good teaching, of course, lies not in method, and no manual will convey it. It is inborn and passes only between kindred spirits. A good teacher makes good teachers because like draws to like.

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*M. Crispi chez M. de Bismarck:* Journal de voyage. Traduit de l'Italien. Rome: Forzani & Co. 1894.

THE recent return to power of Signor Crispi gives timely interest to the journal of the two visits which he made, during his former period of government, to Prince Bismarck, with whom he has been in friendship and correspondence for twenty years. The journal is known to be by Commendatore Mayor of the diplomatic service. Mayor has the merited reputation of a most exact and conscientious reporter, and, though of German-Swiss descent, is a patriotic servant of King Humbert, and has enjoyed for years the confidence of Signor Crispi as far as that unexplained if not inexplicable statesman ever gives his confidence to any one. What he has to say, therefore, of Crispi may be absolutely depended on for all its positive statements, though, having had Crispi's revision, it probably contains but little of his political opinions, certainly none which would provoke international differences now that he is again at the helm.

Mayor's sketch of Crispi's character, if slight, is graphic:

"Whoever has seen much of Crispi knows that secretiveness is one of his characteristic traits, as taciturnity is one of his powers. He resembles in that both Garibaldi and Mazzini. Like Garibaldi, in the most serious circumstances, Crispi takes counsel only of himself; like Mazzini, he knows how to keep the most absolute silence on the plans which he contemplates, or which he is already urging to execution. When, after mature reflection, his decision is taken, he does not ask for criticisms, and if he foresees them, he keeps silence. Hence

acts which have been prepared, sometimes long before, and of which the effect has been calculated in advance, seem to be sudden because they have not been foreseen.

"But another characteristic which Crispi has in common with Mazzini is that he never opens his mind entirely to any one. There remains in him always something impenetrable, and that 'something' which one feels kept in reserve is that which disconcerts and impresses most. Each one of his assistants knows just what is necessary or useful for him to know, and is generally ignorant of what the others know. Each holds in his hands one of the guiding-strings, and all meet in the directing hand of Crispi."

It is easy to understand that with this character, added to the most rigid views of national policy and the most exalted aims for Italian statecraft, a rigid public honesty (in spite of all the partisan attempts to blacken that honesty), and the most unflinching ideas of discipline and subordination in public administration, Crispi should be as unpopular with a court infested by personal intrigue and a bureaucracy as corrupt as any in Europe—in a country, moreover, where even the judiciary is not free from the most compulsory pressure when personal politics are involved—as he is respected by those who know him and honor public probity. Making no effort to conciliate at the expense of his official obligations, he has few friends in the bureaucracy and in the court circles as in the general circles of the politicians and financiers, which have had the more or less efficient direction of Italian affairs for some years. The fall of Crispi in 1891 was hailed as the triumph of privilege. Probably no living statesman has been so maligned or so detested by the ruling classes in his own country as Crispi. Bismarck said to Crispi one day: "I considered myself the most hated man of my day, but I confess you surpass me." In this detestation of the courtier temper for men of inflexible purposes lies much of the similarity in the positions of the two strongest statesmen of Europe now living.

"We related to the Prince," says Mayor, "a conversation which we had in the railway carriage with the Minister [Crispi] on 'political lying.' Signor Crispi, we said, absolutely excludes lying in any case. . . . The Minister intervenes to say that, in his opinion, falsehood, all question of morality apart, is in itself in most cases awkward and ineffective. We wait for what the Prince will say; he seems to reflect. Count Herbert interrupts: 'But pardon me, Excellency! In certain cases one would be gravely embarrassed. You have sometimes to do with people who question you without delicacy, with an indiscretion which puts you with your back to the wall. . . . What can you do then?' 'Avoid the question.' 'That is to betray your difficulty.' 'Be silent.' 'That is sometimes an avowal.' The Prince half turns to us and says: 'I do not like to lie; falsehood is to me odious. But I avow that sometimes in my political life I have been obliged to have recourse to it. . . . I have been forced to it, and I have always been offended with those who have obliged me to lie.'"

In general the book tells more of Bismarck and his ideas than of Crispi and his. This is no doubt due to the rigid censorship of the Italian Minister, who was, in the interest of the general public, too solicitous as to the possible effect of what he had said years ago. But what the book tells of the Prince is of capital interest, and the absolute trustworthiness of the reporter gives it the value of an historical document. One passage, which relates an anecdote of Bismarck, is even of great value as an official confirmation of what was perceived by those who were in a position to observe the French mind before 1870:

"The war of 1870-'71 was not desired by Prussia. We were prepared for it; knowing the French, we regarded it as certain some day or other. They had beaten the Russians in the Crimea, the Austrians in Italy; our turn must come. War on the Rhine was fated, all the more because we had been the victors at Sadowa. In 1867, being at Paris with the King, my master, on the occasion of the Exhibition, I made the acquaintance of a French marshal—Vaillant, . . . I believe; he was Governor of Paris. We chatted. He said to me: 'We shall cross bayonets some day.' 'Very well, if you like. But, if you please, why?' 'Because we are cocks, and one cock does not like to hear another crow louder than himself. At Sadowa you crowed too loud.'"

If Mr. Mayor's little book should succeed in dispelling some of the prevalent superstition in regard to the Italian statesman, especially in France, Europe might be thankful to its author for the revelation of the intercourse of the two men whom France insists on regarding as her most inexorable enemies. One of the most marked traits of Crispi is that he never forgets a friendly act and almost never remembers an unfriendly one, and the memory of his exile in France and the friends whom he found there, and still retains, would always insure a kindly feeling in him. But he has had the courage to refuse to accept the position of political vassal which France has always tried to impose on Italy, and which his predecessors generally accepted with more or less grace. *Hinc illæ lachrymæ.*

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*Centenary History of the South Place Society*, based on four discourses given in the chapel in May and June, 1893, by Moncure D. Conway, M.A. London: Williams & Norgate; New York: Putnams. 1894.

It is an interesting fact that the history which Mr. Conway writes begins and ends with an American incumbent. The founder and first minister of the South Place Society, which, under various names, has now had a century of varied experience, was the American Universalist Elhanan Winchester, a man of much larger mind and more solid character than his contemporary, Murray, the reputed founder of Universalism in America. He went to England in 1787. He suffered much from that determination of his thoughts to rhyme with which Hosea Ballou also was afflicted. Each wrote a whole bookful of Universalist hymns. Not one of Ballou's had any merit, and if Winchester's were any better, Mr. Conway does not attempt to prove that it was so. William Vidler, who succeeded Winchester, was his first ministerial convert. He was of Baptist extraction, and the Baptist close communion was maintained by him and his people from 1794 until 1808. Before this, Mr. Vidler had become a Unitarian, and the society, attaching itself to the Unitarian body, remained formally Unitarian until some hitch in Mr. Fox's domestic affairs excited so much criticism and opposition that the Unitarian Association withdrew its sympathy, and the society entered (1834) upon an independent career. Mr. Conway leaves this matter in a wholly unsatisfactory state. He praises Mr. Fox's course and condemns the Unitarians, but of the issues at stake he says nothing.

With our arrival at the ministry of William J. Fox the interest of the narrative is much increased. It began in 1816, when Mr. Fox was in his thirtieth year. The Puritan temper of the society in his earlier course had some amusing illustrations. The singing of pieces in which the congregation could not join was condemned as "incompatible with true devotion," and the playing of the organ after the benediction as "indecorous and improper." All of Mr. Fox's tendencies and sympathies were in the liberal direction. In 1819 he stoutly opposed the prosecution of Richard Carlile for publishing Paine's 'Age of Reason.' Mr. Conway does not fail to tell us that the prosecution was conducted by a Unitarian. Mr. Fox's character and work were full of interesting traits. His personal relations were with the noblest spirits of his time. Especially did his connection with the *Monthly Repository* and the *Westminster Review*, of which he was a founder and for which he wrote the first article, widen his influence. Mr. Conway names many of those who looked to him for help and touched him with the brightness of their fame. The sisters Sarah and Eliza Flower shine on his roll with a peculiar fascination. Eliza, to whom Browning was tenderly attached until her death, was the musical genius of the society. Sarah wrote the famous hymn, "Nearer, my God, to Thee." A facsimile of an original draft of it is given, with certain changes and conjectural readings. A letter of hers to Fox, expressive of her doubts of the Bible's peculiar inspiration, is also given, and Mr. Conway says: "Of such pangs was born the hymn, 'Nearer, my God, to Thee.'" But seeing that the letter was written in 1827 and the hymn in 1840, does not his inference prolong too much the travail of her mind? Another doubtful inference is that referring to this letter as the cause of Mr. Fox's radical opinions on the subject of Biblical inspiration. On one page Mr. Conway puts the matter tentatively, but a little further on unquestioningly—a method of transforming fancy into fact by no means unusual with him. Among the illustrations of the volume are two reproductions of drawings of the sisters Sarah Flower Adams and Eliza Flower. They have the *Lydia Languish* look, but for this, no doubt, the predilection of the draughtsmen is more largely responsible than the women on whom they endeavored to improve. The pictures of Fox, Winchester, and Vidler are reproduced from engravings. Fox's reveals nothing of his militant temper, and Vidler's little of that physical bulk which called for two chairs for him to sit in at table. Mr. Conway's own picture is a photograph, and it could not be better than it is.

Much stress is laid on the reception of the Rajah Rammohun Roy by the British and Foreign Unitarian Association in 1825. It was in South Place Chapel, and Mr. Fox made the speech of the occasion, as he generally did when he was present and when eloquence was in demand. Mr. Conway hastens to the inference that the title "British and Foreign" committed the Unitarian Association of that time to something broader than Christianity, but we are obliged to doubt whether any such thought was in the minds of those who had the choosing of the name. It was at this reception that Harriet Martineau first tasted the sweetness of literary reputation. The Association had offered prizes for three essays on the diffusion of Christianity among Jews, Moslems, and Catholics, and she got them all. After Mr. Fox's retirement in 1852 the society suffered from reaction and prostration and was threatened with complete collapse. When things were at the worst Mr. Conway arrived, and they began to mend. He had gone to England in 1863, but "circumstances induced him to remain longer than he had intended," and he became the settled minister of the society. He gives an account of his stewardship very briefly and modestly. In 1884 he "was anxious to do some work for America, especially in revision of its history and criticism of its organic laws," and so came to this country and remained until 1892, when he

returned to London and resumed the charge of the Society. The ministry of Mr. Stanton Coit, during his interregnum, is passed over in uncomplimentary silence, and there is little said of the gospel which Mr. Conway now statedly delivers to the saints. It is, we believe, the Gospel of Moral Idealism, wholly disengaged from any theistic implications, finding no goodness except in humanity, and something diabolical in the whole natural world. It would be good to know whether the hymn "Nearer, my God, to Thee," sung at South Place for twenty years before its general adoption, is still sung there, although the minister has wearied of the hopeless quest.

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*The Snake Ceremonials at Walpi.* By J. Walter Fewkes, assisted by A. M. Stephen and J. G. Owens. (Hemenway Southwestern Archæological Expedition.) Vol IV. of Journal of American Ethnology and Archæology. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1894.

THE ceremonies here described took place in the summer of 1891, and lasted through nine days, though they were not continuous, neither did they occur in one place, nor were they always in public. In fact, many of them were given secretly in the estufas of the antelope and the snake societies; and it was not until the ninth or concluding day that the dance in which the snakes are carried around in the mouths of some of the participants, and from which the celebration takes its name, was publicly performed. With the dance proper, its weird and uncanny character, we are well acquainted, though this is the first occasion on which the rites and observances that take place during the other days of the celebration have been described.

Of the hidden meaning of many of these rites and observances, we are ignorant; and so far as these Indians are concerned (pp. 8, 119), they do not appear to be any better off. Possibly, as Mr. Fewkes suggests, a comparison of the ceremonies observed at Walpi with those that take place, on similar occasions, at the other Moki villages, as well as among certain tribes in Mexico and Central America, may help us to a definite knowledge of their significance; but for the present, and, we fear, for some time to come, it is probable that we shall be no better informed than the Indians of to-day are said to be. But while confessing our shortcomings in this respect, it is some consolation to be told that, considered as a whole, we are no longer to grope in the dark after the true meaning of this celebration. Thus, for example, instead of assuming it to be a form of ophiolatry, we now recognize it (pp. 8, 119, 124) as an elaborate prayer for rain, with which snake worship has little or nothing to do. This is no doubt contrary to the opinion that was at one time prevalent, but it is borne out by the controlling part (pp. 13, 123) which the antelope priests have in the celebration, and it is further confirmed by the fact that the underlying idea seems to be that (p. 124) the snakes are intrusted with the prayers of the people, and are then turned loose in order to bear them to the divinities who preside over the rains. Such, we may add, is also the function of the prayer-sticks (pp. 25, 36) which are sent by a special courier, on the second day of the celebration, to the fanes of the rain-gods, who are thus made acquainted with the wishes of the petitioners.

In regard to the serpents, it may be well to say that the venomous character of some of them is now conceded; and it is probable that the immunity with which they are handled is not due to any specific which the Indians are supposed to possess, but results from the fact that not only are they carried in such a way as to prevent their striking, but that the "hugger," as the attendant priest is called, is always present with his whip to guard against an accident.

In conclusion, we take the liberty of protesting against the wholesale use of Indian terms and phrases in which our author indulges. The practice is, to say the least, reprehensible, and is justifiable only on the ground that the English language cannot furnish an equivalent for the thing spoken of. To adopt it, then, when there is such an equivalent is a custom which must affect a writer injuriously in so far as it makes his work tedious, and thus limits the number of his readers to those whom necessity obliges to study his pages. In the case of Mr. Fewkes this is unfortunate, for his account is of interest aside from its ethnological value. It is also unnecessary, for he is a scholar as well as an observer, and does not need the aid of a doubtful process to furnish forth his vocabulary.

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*La Province sous l'ancien régime.* Par Albert Babeau. 2 vols. Paris: Firmin-Didot & Cie. 1894.

THE conclusion which comes clearly from these chapters on provincial estates, parlements, governors, bishops, and intendants is that monarchical government in France was not so absolute in fact as it was in the theories of the legists. They might declare, "Si veut le roi, si veut la loi." Louis XIV., in composing his memoirs for the Dauphin, might write, "La volonté de Dieu est que, quiconque est né sujet obéisse sans discernement," and might push this thought in detail to its utmost logical reach. Nevertheless, it was far easier to state lucidly the underlying principle of the monarchy than to run an administrative machine which was not the product of some convention of statesmen, but which had been built up and built over, according to the exigencies of the national life, varying from period to period and province to province. Each separate piece, however obscure, cumbrous or even useless, was so supported by traditions that it could not be left out of the account. All this must have opposed to seemingly triumphant despotism an irreducible wall of inertia. If we consider the mere fact which M. Babeau emphasizes, that comparatively few offices were filled by the king, and that almost every executive act was carried out by an officer whose office was his own property, and who, therefore, could not be removed except by some form of legal violence, we are forced to modify our common notions of Bourbon absolutism. In illustrating this point M. Babeau tells how, in one of the parishes of Champagne, a lieutenant of the local court thwarted the attempt of the sub-delegate, backed by the intendant and the King's council itself, to install a new syndic after a disputed election. Such conflicts of relatively independent magistrates might be advantageous to liberty if due to impulses other than jealousy of rival officials.

Those who find the men of '93 a puzzling problem, and who wish to discover why orators who loudly professed a love of liberty trampled upon it in such cowardly ways, might find a suggestion or two in the attitude of the old Government towards all kinds of liberty. Perhaps the Terrorists were a case of "reversion to type," and the type was the Bourbon policy. "Suspect" was assuredly not a classification which they invented. It had been familiar to certain intendants years before. And probably few of Carrier's orders exceed in barbaric ferocity the despatch of Louvois quoted by M. Babeau:

"L'intention de Sa Majesté," wrote Louvois, November 13, 1689, referring to the French Protestants, "est toujours que l'on essaie de tomber avec des troupes sur toutes les assemblées qui se feront, et que si l'on peut joindre ceux qui les composeront on fasse main basse, sans distinction de sexe; et que si après en avoir tué un grand nombre, on fait quelques prisonniers, on leur fasse diligemment leur procès et qu'on les condamne aux peines portées par l'édit d'octobre, 1683," etc.

This was not the only order Louvois gave to the same effect. In general, M. Babeau thinks the personal character of the intendants was a guarantee that civil liberty, somewhat arbitrarily under their power, would be protected. M. Babeau's opinion, furthermore, of the administration of the intendants is very favorable to their uprightness and wisdom. In concluding the second volume, which is wholly taken up with the description of different phases of their work, he writes:

"Tous ceux qui, sans parti pris, ont passé de longues heures à dépouiller les liasses, les régistres et les cartons des archives, ont été frappés de voir, au milieu du fatras des statistiques, des mémoires ou des procès-verbaux, surgir dans certaines lettres de ministres et d'intendants l'âme même de l'administration française, faite de sagesse, d'humanité, et d'integrité."

And yet, in another place, speaking of the rôle of the intendants in the *pays d'élection*, he compares them, justly, one would say, to the shepherd who tries to keep his flock in good condition in order that it may furnish the best wool at the annual shearing-time.

In his statement of the relation of the administrative machinery of the old order to the Revolution and the new régime, M. Babeau appears to believe that everything in the new régime—prefect, department, councils-general, subprefects, arrondissements, religions, judicial and financial circumscriptions — was modelled on the old order of things; that the Revolution was hardly more than a disturbing incident in the growth of the French system. Undoubtedly there is a continuity in the history of French institutions which has been largely lost sight of, but the work of demolition and reconstruction accomplished by the Revolution was not incidental, but vital to the whole.

There is one thing about these volumes which is disappointing. M. Rabeau shows unwearied diligence in the study of the sources, but he fails in that orderliness of statement which with many French historians is in a real sense artistic. He almost drowns his subject in illustrations. Moreover, by selecting his illustrations indiscriminately from the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, he is in danger of obscuring the element of historical development which so characterized the local institutions of France during those two centuries. But this defect is one against which judicious students can easily guard themselves. It is worth noting that M. Babeau has added a satisfactory index to his volumes.

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*Recollections of Old Country Life.* By J. K. Fowler. Longmans, Green & Co. 1894.

A CULINARY artist of the first rank prides himself on being able to take the same kind of meat day after day and make it do duty each day as a new dish. By some ingenious variation in the manner of cooking or in the flavor of the sauce, he can persuade the diner that he

is enjoying a novelty. It is probable that this idea presented itself to Mr. Fowler (who was, indeed, brought up in the hotel business) and led him to take the materials which he used in his 'Echoes of Old Country Life' two years ago, and throw them together in somewhat different form in the 'Recollections of Old Country Life' this year. Two years is a long period in the life of such books, and he was perhaps justified in the belief that nobody would find him out. For the second time, therefore, we are told of the "romantic and remarkable" rise of Lord Beaconsfield, and how Mr. Fowler's advice led to Conservative success in the Buckinghamshire election of 1876. Indeed, in the present volume alone we have two accounts of that wonderful election, which evidently made a lasting impression on Mr. Fowler's mind. Then he tells us all over again the story of his visit to the French vineyards in 1868; how the university steeplechases used to be run in the vale of Aylesbury; of the halcyon days of short-horn cattle-breeding, and so on through the table of contents. A good many stories of the Joe Miller type are scattered in a casual manner through the present volume, and some new subjects are discussed; but Mr. Fowler is by no means a *cordon bleu*, and it is only too evident that he is striving to make this second dish differ from the first, and that his resources in the matter of literary sauce are strictly limited.

Moreover, Mr. Fowler is careless about matters of fact. He says that the west coast of France is "hallowed in the minds of all Englishmen by the battlefields of Crécy and Agincourt"—no doubt a patriotic idea, but open to serious objection on the geographical side. Elsewhere he quotes Thackeray as writing about the Irish question in 1872—some nine years after he had ceased to write on any questions. Such blunders as these are usually charged to the proof-reader, but no such excuse can be made for Mr. Fowler's innate snobbishness. He is for ever congratulating himself that he enjoys "the friendship of and social intercourse with" somebody or other. From the "great family of the Rothschilds" at one end of the scale down to "many gentlemen and professional jockeys" at the other, it is his "privilege to enjoy" a variety of friendships. The value of the privilege varies with the social standing of the friend, and when it comes to a live duke, Mr. Fowler becomes emotional and intense: "I may say that I never knew a man who was so unostentatious in anything that appertained to his position, or who so little led you to suppose he was proud of his descent, as Richard Plantagenet Nugent Brydges Chandos Temple Grenville, Duke of Buckingham and Chandos." History fails to relate that the owner of all these names ever accomplished anything worthy of note—but then he was polite to Mr. Fowler!

In a chapter on epitaphs, containing a singularly poor collection in view of the variety to be found in English churchyards, Mr. Fowler quotes (incorrectly) one well-known example, which has a peculiar appropriateness in such a book:

"Here lies the body of Lady O'Looney,
Grand niece of Burke, commonly called the Sublime.
She was bland, passionate, and deeply religious.
Also she painted in water-colors and sent several pictures to the exhibition.
She was first cousin to Lady Jones,
And of such is the Kingdom of Heaven."

Having prefixed to both his books a likeness of himself, Mr. Fowler should have hesitated to make the statement—however true it may be—that his mother was a remarkably beautiful woman. Evidently he has never heard of Talleyrand's "C'était donc votre père qui n'était pas si bien." There are many other details about the Fowler family and its different branches which have no special value outside the family circle. On the whole, it is impossible to recommend Mr. Fowler's *réchauffé* even for warm-weather consumption.

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*Aspects of Pessimism.* By R. M. Wenley, M.A., D.Sc., Lecturer on Philosophy in Queen Margaret College, Glasgow, formerly Examiner in Philosophy in the University of Glasgow. London: William Blackwood & Sons. 1894.

Mr. Wenley's several essays are unequally related to his titular subject. Evidently they have been written, off and on, without any thought of their ever being brought together as the chapters of a book. But in each there is a certain gravitation of the writer's mind to the subject of pessimism, and in three of the six, at least, this gravitation is pronounced. The fifth essay, although its subject is "Berkeley, Kant, and Schopenhauer," has the least to do with pessimism, being a criticism of their theories of knowledge. Here and elsewhere there is much difficulty inherent in the subject, but Mr. Wenley's gift for exposition seems to lag behind his taste for philosophical studies. He does much of his thinking under ground, so that what he does openly is lacking in coherency. Often terse and epigrammatic, he has many sentences to which, presumably, when writing them he attached some definite meaning, but which convey no such meaning to us. He is one of a school who speak few words with the understanding to many in an unknown tongue; but as compared with John or Edward Caird, or T. H. Green, his vagueness is as ten to one.

The essay upon Berkeley, Kant, and Schopenhauer is another token of the increasing respect in which Berkeley has recently been held. It distinguishes a difference between his earlier and later thought as nominalistic and realistic—that doing good service against abstract ideas and representative perceptions, and this ranking him rather with the realists than with the idealists through his contention that the things of sense are adumbrations of a reality which exists behind their veil. The treatment of Kant is one more attempt to adjust the differences of his different Critiques or to determine which of them is the output of the genuine Kant. The method of Edward Caird, which endeavors to distinguish what was implicit in Kant from his explicit teachings, is frankly accepted. His idea that sense furnishes mind with material independent of mental activity is set down as a gross mistake. But the implicit Kant corrects this mistake, and he too is found among the realists in the final outcome of his thought. Schopenhauer's claim to be the true continuator of Kant is not disputed, but his adhesion was to the negative, explicit Kant of the earlier Critiques. This adhesion brought him to a nominalism that was the negation of all reality, but from this he vaulted straightway by means of his doctrine of causality into a realism that made an irrational Will the source of all phenomena. It should be said that Mr. Wenley's use of the term realism to express both the antithesis of nominalism and the doctrine of an ultimate objective reality, is troublesome and misleading.

In the last essay in the book, "Pessimism as a System," Schopenhauer is dealt with in the more characteristic aspect of his thought. The treatment is unsympathetic with him personally and with pessimism in its general implications, while the tribute is not wanting which Schopenhauer's intellectual brilliancy and literary skill invariably command. Schopenhauer's doctrine of will is connected with his pessimism in a passage which is the best piece of exposition in the book. But his experience was father of his thought; his doctrine the reflection of his character and life. Mr. Wenley is not joking when he says it is thoroughly unsatisfactory. What he intends is that it does not adequately represent the facts of individual or universal life, and that it involves several gratuitous assumptions. Hartmann's closer contact with the contents of modern science, and especially with the Darwinian biology, is a sovereign cordial after the exanimating "up-in-the-air-balloon-work" of the preceding pages, so remote from those concrete experiences of human suffering which make a thousand pessimists where Schopenhauer and Hartmann do not make one. But Mr. Wenley's predilection for the metaphysical prevents his making much of Hartmann's concrete element. He does not seem to us to deal too sternly with a system which proposes as the chief end of man that he should pity God and do what he can to alleviate His eternal wretchedness.

Of the other essays, the "Jewish Pessimism" is most attractive and important. It is confined pretty closely to Job and Ecclesiastes, and the pessimism is shown to be not ultimate in either case, the underlying theism preventing it from being so. The treatment of Job is extremely superficial, without any consideration of the integrity of the book. A casual phrase discloses Mr. Wenley's acceptance of the Epilogue as belonging with the rest, but certainly its solution of Job's difficulties is not that of the poetic chapters less the Elihu section, which in its turn has still another. Mr. Wenley has no hesitation in assigning Ecclesiastes to the Greek period, but he contends that it is less subject to Greek influences than the majority of recent critics have allowed. The chapter on Mediæval Mysticism lends itself to the vulgar misconception that mysticism is anything misty in philosophy or theology, so little does it do to make clear what mysticism actually is and was. The best part of this chapter is its third section, "Thomas à Kempis, Mysticism and Pessimism," the better for its frank disclosure of the limitations of the 'Imitatio' on the ecclesiastical and ascetic side.

It is perhaps too late to expect anything startling or even fresh in a general criticism of "Hamlet," and while Mr. Wenley's criticism is a creditable piece of work, it adds little or nothing to the volumes that have been written on the subject heretofore. "The Pessimistic Element in Goethe" is a much fresher subject, and its treatment is much more instructive and engaging. A progress is traced from the early violence and revolt of 'Werther' to the second parts of 'Faust' and 'Wilhelm Meister.' Goethe attains to victory and peace through resignation and devotion to the loftiest ideals.

"Zum Augenblicke dürft' ich sagen,
Verweile doch, du bist so schön!"

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*Aero-Therapeutics:* or, the Treatment of Lung Disease by Climate. (The Lumleian Lectures for 1893.) By Charles Theodore Williams, M.A., M.D. Macmillan.

The elements of climate, or those conditions of nature under which men live, are temperature and atmospheric moisture, pressure, movement, and electricity; and these depend

upon latitude, altitude, the proximity of oceans and their currents, of deserts, of mountain ranges, soil, rainfall, and winds. It is especially in the cases of diseases of the lungs, permeated as those organs constantly are with air, that the state of the atmosphere is distinctly important; for whatever part the bacillus of tuberculosis takes in the causation of consumption, its propagation is greatly modified by the atmosphere its victim breathes. *A priori* this would hardly seem probable, for the vast aerial ocean at whose bottom we live, and whose waves and currents are constantly intermingling, should be substantially uniform in composition. Nevertheless it is true, and not only in consumption but in other serious diseases of the lungs, that those invalids who happily can avail themselves of favorable climatic conditions have much better chances of recovery.

These lectures by Dr. Williams, while intended primarily for the guardians of the British invalid whose dreary winter skies and watery air must be avoided, take into intelligent comparison the health resorts of the whole world; the only conspicuous exception being the Sandwich Islands. The treatment of the subject is broad and philosophical, and not only the advantages but the disadvantages and the reasons in each case for the objects in view are detailed. It is probably the best treatise on climatology in its relations to health that we have, and it may safely be consulted for details nowhere else collected. In this comparison the great London physician places the coast of southern California and the plateaus and parks of Colorado at the top of the scale; and to our own people, for themselves or their kinsfolk looking for health, even more than to the English, should this become a reference book. The next edition will note that Fort Conger, with its temperature of minus 66.2 degrees F. (p. 30) is not in the United States, and that the well-known Dr. Loomis should not be concealed as Loanis (p. 179). Dr. Williams's own text is beautifully fluent and explicit, a model of scientific description. Perhaps, however, the eloquent author, who quotes verbatim from the meteorological diary of Pike's Peak because "abridgment would spoil the pure American style in which the narrative is written," does not understand that these observers were enlisted men of the army, selected for general intelligence and fidelity, but not for literary training. It must be admitted, however, that their account is spirited and unambiguous.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bartlett, John. A New and Complete Concordance of the Dramatic Works and Poems of William Shakespeare. Macmillan. $14.
Carus, Dr. Paul. Fundamental Problems. 2d ed. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Downing's U. S. Customs Tariff. R. F. Downing & Co. $1.
Fuller, Anna. Peak and Prairie. From a Colorado Sketch-Book. Putnams. $1.
Goodyear, W. H. Renaissance and Modern Art. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent. $1.
Hardwicke, Henry. The Art of Winning Cases; or, Modern Advocacy. Albany and New York: Banks & Bros.
Judson, Prof. H. P. Europe in the Nineteenth Century. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent. $1.
Lacouperie, Terrien de. Western Origin of the Early Chinese Civilization from 2300 B. C. to 200 A. D. London: Asher & Co.
Muir, Olive B. Thy Nature is Woman. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Nichols, Prof. E. L. A Laboratory Manual of Physics and Applied Electricity. Vol. II. Macmillan. $3.25.
Palmer, Julius A., Jr. Memories of Hawaii, and Hawaiian Correspondence. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Ritchie, Mrs. Anne T., and Evans, Richardson. Lord Amherst. [Rulers of India.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Scott, Sir W. Count Robert of Paris. [Dryburgh Edition.] Edinburgh: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Seelye, Prof. J. H. Citizenship: A Book for Classes in Government and Law. Boston: Ginn & Co. 35 cents.
Turner, Ethel S. Seven Little Australians. Ward, Lock & Bowden. $1.
Winchell, Prof. Alexander. Walks and Talks in the Geological Field. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent. $1.

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 20, 1894.

## The Week.

THE action of the Louisiana sugar-planters in joining the Republican party releases the Democratic party from its greatest embarrassment—that of being obliged to cater to a lot of protectionists in its own camp. The claim of the Louisiana men, and also of the Nebraska and California beet factories, to the bounty for the present year is valid, in our judgment. It is our belief, also, that they were tricked out of this bounty by the agents of the Sugar Trust in the Senate. Senator Caffery intimated as much in a debate in the Senate. Perhaps he will tell more at some future time. Meanwhile strict justice requires the payment of the present year's bounty, which can be allowed only by an act of Congress. But, manifestly, the political secession of the Louisiana men makes it very difficult for Democrats to vote for such a bill, even though justice requires it. As to the future, the revenue duty of one cent per pound on raw sugar is quite as much protection as ought to be allowed on an article of prime necessity, and when it becomes possible to put sugar on the free list, the Democrats will be under no more embarrassment than they were in putting wool on the free list.

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What is the Republican policy regarding the tariff? Nobody can make out from the party's speakers or organs. Ex-President Harrison, in his West Virginia speech the other day, said that "if the people at the elections this fall condemn the recent action on the tariff [by voting the Republican ticket], we shall have an end of tariff tinkerings." In the same line with this is the statement of ex-Congressman Grosvenor of Ohio, who made Republican speeches during the Maine canvass, that "thousands of voters hitherto Democrats voted the Republican ticket under the threat of future tariff agitation." On the other hand, McKinley insists that the new tariff law must be repealed and the whole question reopened. Which is it—does a man vote for tariff agitation or against it when he votes the Republican ticket this fall?

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Senator Cullom is the latest Republican stump-speaker to take up the challenge as to what his party is going to do with the tariff if restored to power. His answer is replete with wisdom. The Republicans are not going to reënact the McKinley bill "in its entirety," but only so much thereof as may be necessary to give everybody prosperity and wealth. On that general principle the Illinois Senator is firm as a rock, but in the "mere matter of details" he is a trifle ambiguous. He is clear on one point, however, and that is that all the duties which the Democrats have made higher ought immediately to be lowered. This is dangerously definite. The only safe platform for Republicans this year is denunciation of the Democrats. If they carry the elections on that cry, they will be in the impregnable political position of not having made a single pledge to break or keep.

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The Kansas Republicans are coming out strong for silver. The platform went no further than to demand the use of both gold and silver on such a basis as will secure the maintenance of the parity of values; but the candidates pay no attention to the platform. Mr. Morrill, the nominee for Governor, made a good reputation in Congress as a sound-money man; and when Cleveland called the special session to repeal the silver-purchase act a year ago, he endorsed his course as showing that the President was "opposed to the free coinage of silver, and in favor of honest money and a single gold standard." But his supporters are now explaining this away on the plea that "he has changed his mind," and Mr. Morrill himself has written a letter to say that he is "in favor of the free coinage of the American product of the silver mines with sufficient tariff to exclude all foreign product, and it seems to me that there can be but one ratio." Following this lead, the Republican organs are now arguing that "the Democratic party is thoroughly and hopelessly committed to the single gold standard"; that "the Populist party never was the friend of silver, as it is opposed to all metallic money and favors paper money"; and that "there remains but one party that can or will come to the rescue of silver." The *State Journal*, "official paper of the city of Topeka," which makes this argument, declares that the Republicans elected to the next Congress will vote for the coinage of silver at the old ratio, and predicts that the next Republican candidate for President will run on a silver-coinage platform. Evidently the Republicans are not yet through with the troubles in which the party became involved by its time-serving course on the money question in the national platform of 1888.

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The people of Kansas are learning the folly of interfering with the natural laws of trade by legislation "in the interest of the creditor class." The Populists induced the last Legislature to pass an act for the protection of people who had borrowed money on their homes, by allowing them an option of two years' grace after the maturity of the mortgage notes. The effect has been exactly contrary to what was desired and promised. Capitalists are always unwilling to make loans unless they can know the exact maturity of their investments. If they cannot be given such assurance, they will exact a heavier rate of interest, in the way of bonus or commission, to make up for the risk. Cases are reported where a bonus interest of 7 per cent. above the legal interest is demanded for negotiating loans on Kansas property for three years, so that the creditor has to pay 2⅓ per cent. a year extra for the enactment of this law in his alleged interest.

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The Populists had strong hopes of making a good showing in Maine this month, as they had made a school-house campaign in many parts of the State, and expected that the hard times would cause people to look with favor upon the sure cures which they have to offer. The result must be a great disappointment. They have polled only about 5,000 votes, as against 3,005 two years ago; and this apparent gain is undoubtedly due in large part, if not wholly, to the action of Democrats who were so disgusted with their own party that they felt like voting against it, but were not, as others were, quite ready to swallow the whole Republican ticket. No circumstances could be more favorable to the Populist cause than those which existed in Maine on Monday week, and the failure of the party to make any impression on the masses must remove the last lingering hope of its leaders that there is a future for it in the East any more than in the West.

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One element in the overwhelming Democratic defeat in Maine ought not to be disregarded. This is the dissatisfaction and even disgust in the party caused by the distribution of the spoils since Mr. Cleveland began handing over the offices a year and a half ago. The business of apportioning the spoils has been in the hands of a ring known as "the Plum Trust," and the Lewiston *Journal*, Congressman Dingley's newspaper, says that it has "no doubt that the dispensations of the Plum Trust lost several thousand votes for the Maine Democracy." The whole patronage of the federal Government in the State was in the hands of the Democrats, and they were beaten worse than ever before, and in part because of this patronage. It

does seem as though the stupidest politicians ought after a while to learn that the spoils system does not "pay."

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There is no doubt about the great popularity of the income tax in the South. The feeling which generally prevails in that part of the country found characteristic expression in the resolution adopted by the Democratic convention in the Fifth Louisiana District the other day, that "we heartily approve the income tax, regretting only that every voter in this district is not sufficiently prosperous to come within the provisions of this section of the bill." What Southern Democrats are curious about is the attitude of Northern people towards this tax. Take Maine, for example. Does the 38,000 Republican majority mean that the people of that State are against an income tax? It might be so claimed if the Republicans had made an issue of the tax during the canvass; but they were studiously silent on the question—the framers of the platform and its interpreters alike. The indications are that this policy of silence will be maintained by Republicans throughout the North, in which case the November elections will cast no light on the feeling of the public about it.

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Senator Camden of West Virginia, one of the "conservatives" who supported Gorman in his efforts to wreck tariff reform, has learned something as to the feeling of his constituents since he returned home. He finds that the Democrats of his State are so strongly against his attitude that he is now trying to make out that he always was a zealous tariff-reformer and always will be, if he is reëlected. He has written an "open letter," in which he asks the people to "observe that I stated emphatically in the Senate that I was ready to vote for the Wilson bill as it came from the House," and he does his best to prove that he was as strongly in favor of free raw materials and low duties as Mr. Wilson. It is impossible for Senator Camden to clear up his record, but the fact that he feels compelled to make the effort shows how strong is the sentiment in favor of a thorough-going reform of the tariff among the Democrats of West Virginia.

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Eight of the twenty Democrats in the New York delegation voted against the tariff bill when it passed the House last February, namely: Bartlett, Campbell, Cummings, and Sickles of this city, Hendricks of Brooklyn, Covert of Long Island City, Haines of Kinderhook, and Schermerhorn of Schenectady. The first of the eight to learn the sentiments of his constituents is Mr. Haines. His district comprises Columbia and Rensselaer Counties, and the Democratic convention in the former county last week elected a delegation which will vote as a unit against him. As this is his own county, its repudiation of Haines insures his defeat. His vote and speech against the Wilson bill were directly in issue, and the refusal of his party to endorse his attitude is in harmony with the bitter opposition to Gorman, Brice, and others of the so-called "conservatives" manifested by the Democrats of their respective States.

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The defeat of Congressman Breckinridge in his canvass for renomination—for there seems no doubt that a majority of the votes cast on Saturday were against him—is a great triumph for the cause of decency in politics. He had on his side so many potent forces—his former prestige, his eloquence, family influence (nowhere counting for more than in Kentucky), a divided opposition, and the full power of the party machine—that even a small adverse majority testifies powerfully to the weight of the moral influences which were invoked against him. Tennessee, like Kentucky, did a good piece of work last week. The grand jury at Memphis indicted thirteen men for the lynching of six negro prisoners near that city a fortnight ago. The jury express their "horror at the cold-blooded butchery of these six defenceless men, the cruelty of which would cause even a savage to hang his head in shame, and indulge the hope that every man engaged in it will suffer the extreme penalty of the law." Better still, public sentiment is so thoroughly aroused that there seems to be a good prospect that something will come of these proceedings. The newspapers of Tennessee talk as though the people at last realized that this sort of savagery cannot be condoned without their forfeiting all claim to civilization.

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Down to its closing session before the recess the New York Constitutional Convention had passed twenty-three amendments, which may be briefly and informally described as follows:

(1.) Abolishing the office of coroner.
(2.) Forbidding the passage of any legislative bill until it has been in printed form before the members for three days.
(3 and 4.) Providing that the President *pro tem.* of the Senate and Speaker of the Assembly shall be in order of succession to the Governorship after the Lieutenant-Governor.
(5.) Striking out the $5,000 limit of recoverable damages in cases of death by accident.
(6.) Providing that no person shall have gained or lost a residence by becoming an inmate of a charitable institution.
(7.) Authorizing the sale of the Onondaga salt springs.
(8.) Abolishing the Codification Commission as obsolete.
(9.) Authorizing the use of voting-machines in elections.
(10.) Forbidding riders to appropriation bills.
(11.) Forbidding the issuing of railway passes to public officers.
(12.) Prohibiting labor in prisons in competition with free labor.
(13.) Providing for non-partisan election boards.
(14.) Providing a new judiciary system.
(15.) Providing for a new legislative apportionment.
(16.) For the preservation of Adirondack lands and the forests thereon.
(17.) Providing for separate municipal and State elections.
(18.) Establishing civil-service appointments by examinations.
(19.) Providing for unsectarian education.
(20.) Providing for public charities.
(21.) Extending from ten to ninety days the period of citizenship before voting.
(21.) Regulating personal registration.
(22 and 23.) Fixing the date of assembling of the Legislature, and enlarging the membership of both houses.

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It is evident at a glance that this is a mixture of good, bad, and indifferent propositions, and that the only fair method by which the voters of the State can be asked to pass judgment upon them is by submitting them separately for adoption or rejection. There are several propositions, such as those relating to coroners, voting-machines, riders on appropriation bills, railway passes, non-partisan election boards, and Adirondack preservation, so generally approved that if they were to be submitted separately, there would be little cause to fear their rejection. But what would be their fate were they to be tied up with such a thoroughly demagogic proposal as that forbidding prison labor, and with such a purely partisan proposal as the apportionment amendment? Then, too, there is the judiciary amendment, upon which legal opinion is widely divergent. It should go before the people on its merits, and stand or fall by itself.

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Very little that is authentic concerning the Corean war has been hitherto obtainable, but we suppose the statements of the Japanese legation at Washington may be trusted as to a treaty of alliance between Japan and Corea which has been signed, in terms which make the situation perfectly intelligible. By these terms Japan undertakes to secure the independence of Corea by driving out the Chinese and compelling them to relinquish all claim of sovereignty over the country. Corea undertakes merely to afford the Japanese forces every facility for carrying on the war, and to furnish them provisions "at a fair remuneration." This is certainly a very favorable treaty in its terms to Corea, resembling a good deal that made between France and the United States when we were endeavoring to throw off the British dominion. The zeal of France for American independence was not exactly disinterested, and it is scarcely probable that the Japanese are governed by purely altruistic motives in relieving the Coreans from a claim of sovereignty that was certainly not very oppressive. It may be surmised that the assent of the Coreans to the treaty was partly due to the presence of the Japanese forces at their capital, Seul; and should Japan succeed in the

war it is quite possible that another treaty will be made, in which the preservation of the independence of Corea will not appear to be the sole object of Japanese policy.

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The speech of Premier Crispi at Naples may not indicate that a reconciliation has actually taken place between the Vatican and the Quirinal, but it would scarcely have been made unless something of the kind was in contemplation. It is, in any event, significant of the effect of the anarchist outrages in warning the conservative elements in society that they must sink their differences and unite against the common enemy. For some years the policy of propitiating the socialists has been quite generally adopted, with the result that they have steadily raised their demands. Every concession has had the effect of making them more confident of attaining all that they claim. They have boasted that the property-owning class was in terror for its existence, and the anarchists have accepted the assertion as indicating the fact, and have grasped the opportunity. It is evident that moderate republicans in France are beginning to realize that it may not be easy to defend the institutions of civilized society without the aid of religion, and that while clericalism is odious, there are worse things to be dreaded from atheism and anarchy. The condition of Italy has been peculiarly unfortunate, owing to the persistent abstention of faithful Catholics from participation in the political life of the country; and if they can be induced by any reasonable compromise to assume the duties of citizenship, it would be greatly to the public advantage. Hitherto it has seemed as if the demands of the Pope could only be met with a *non possumus* on the part of the King, but it is by no means improbable that the Pope is himself alarmed at the extent to which the Church is losing ground among the common people, and is at last willing to accept an alliance which will really strengthen the cause of religion, even if some antiquated pretensions may seem to be abandoned. It is quite certain that if civil government is overthrown, religious institutions will not survive, and conservative men of all creeds and parties will agree with Signor Crispi that never more than to-day do we "feel the need of seeing the two authorities, civil and religious, marching with one accord to lead the people in the way of justice and charity."

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The German Catholic Congress, recently in session at Cologne, was cheered on to its work by Bishop Schmitz, who said: "With a social Pope and a social Emperor, it only remains for us to raise up in the bosom of the Church a body of men saturated with the social spirit." It is easy to imagine what followed after this. One Bonn professor, it is true, thought that it would be wise to give the preference to certain intellectual and spiritual questions, and, if they went into politics at all, to inquire what they could do to put down the anarchists. But he was at once ridden over by the men who wished to expound their ideas of the true way to better the condition of workingmen and the farmers. The idea which seemed to find most favor was a return to the middle-age system of guilds for every trade and profession. We ourselves think that the trades-union can never do its perfect work of tyranny until men's ideas of personal liberty get back to what they were in the middle ages. A guild fixing a man's status for life was practicable then, but that was before democracy, with its doctrine of individual freedom, had come to curse the world. The German Catholics are quite right in supposing that their paternal ideas, like their "social Emperor," are entirely out of place in the nineteenth century. They are both mere mediæval survivals.

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A club of cyclists, wishing to show what might be done in the way of carrying despatches in time of war, when other means of communication had broken down, asked the War Office to let them carry a despatch from London to Edinburgh and bring back a reply. The War Office declined to have anything to do with the matter, but it was arranged with the *Pall Mall Gazette* that their offices in the two cities should be used as termini. Relays of cyclists, riding in pairs to avoid loss of time by accident, were duly stationed, and the letter once started was carried through England, as the *Spectator* says, like a fiery cross. The weather was extremely bad, the rain falling in torrents, and a head wind being encountered all the way to Edinburgh. Nevertheless between ten o'clock of a Thursday morning and 2:27 P. M. of the next Saturday, the despatch was carried to its destination and the answer brought back. The distance of 800 miles was thus covered in 52 hours and 27 minutes, an average of 15¼ miles an hour. In the very best days of coaching the shortest time made between London and Edinburgh was forty-two hours and twenty-three minutes. Such a result as this will open the eyes of the war offices of the Continent if not of England. It indicates that we may presently see bodies of cyclists attached as orderlies to the staff of every general. Nor is it improbable that such a body would take the place, for many purposes, of cavalry. The same causes that lead men to sell their horses and take to bicycles will be operative in military economy. In this peaceful land we may not witness such a development of bicycling as this; but we shall be contented if it leads to the improvement of our roads and hostelries.

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The complaint of overcrowded cities and decaying rural population is heard in France, and one very probable explanation of the diminishing numbers and virility of the French peasantry is given by Jules Simon. He thinks the compulsory military service has a good deal to do with it. Peasants have to leave their farms for three years, and go unwillingly enough, it may be. But they find themselves better clothed and fed than they ever were in their lives, and though compelled to submit to strict discipline and hard work, enjoy a life far less fatiguing and dull than that they have been accustomed to. When their time is up, it is not strange that thousands of them refuse to go back to the plough. They drift into the towns to find work in factories, with absolute liberty after working hours, and to obtain that contact with their kind for futile gossip, and that sense of playing a part in the affairs of the great world, which make up so large a part of the attraction of cities for the poor. The result is, says M. Simon, that agriculture in France is largely in the hands of children and the aged, and the few young and middle-aged men who have been too philosophical or too torpid to be lured away by the fascinations of city life.

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Count Tolstoi, as is well known, believes copyright to be one of the selfish things of a selfish society, and long ago, for his part, renounced it, giving to everybody in the world the right freely to publish or translate his works. But the fantastic results which have flowed from this permission have at last aroused even Tolstoi to protest. The translations which have been betrayals and the editions which have been chaotic assemblages of different books, with such parts cut out as the publishers, in their superior wisdom, saw fit to eliminate, have been so numerous and so extraordinary that the long-suffering count has written to a friend of his in Germany to reassert an artistic, if not a pecuniary, copyright. It is true, he says, that he desires the free diffusion of his ideas; but if the ideas sent forth under his name are really not his, or anything under heaven but the dislocated guess-work of some incompetent translator, his purpose in renouncing his property rights is entirely defeated. So he begs all men who want to know what he really thinks to read only those translations which have received his approval. This is an aspect of literary property which is not often taken into consideration, and to which Count Tolstoi himself did not apparently give sufficient weight when he turned over his works to the spoiler.

### *BUSINESS RECUPERATION.*

THERE is a natural tendency on the part of political speakers and writers to connect the prosperity of the country or its decline with the policy of the Government. It is easy to demonstrate that legislation has a great deal to do with many departments of business, especially in the manufacturing line, and sometimes, as in the case of the pernicious Silver law of 1890, it can prostrate the credit system of the whole country. But ordinarily the laws enacted at Washington are of far less effect than the natural conditions. With the right kind of weather the country might have had a corn crop of 2,500,000,000 bushels; but it was reduced by drought to perhaps 1,500,000,000. A few weeks, even a few days, of dry air and hot sun thus made a difference to the country of $400,000,000 or $500,000,000; and it must be a particularly mischievous Congress that can damage us to that extent, at least in one session. With regard to the influence of the present tariff, it is still so highly protective as to make it unreasonable to maintain that its effects in stimulating trade will be momentous. They will undoubtedly be perceptibly beneficial, and some gain is already visible; but the duties retained are still so high as to make the apprehensions of the protectionists absurd, as well as to dash many of the hopes of the revenue reformers.

Whatever claims may be made as to causes, of the fact of a revival of trade there is now no doubt. It has not come with a rush, with the exception of certain lines of business immediately affected by change of duties, but it is coming gently and gradually, as men like to see the rain begin after a time of drought. The barometers generally watched with most care are three: the clearing-house returns, the bank loans, and the blast furnaces. The first indicate in a general way the amount of the exchanges of goods that are taking place. Merely speculative transactions may swell these figures abnormally, but the amount of speculation is itself connected with the condition of business. The loans made by the banks are likewise affected by speculation, but still they indicate the existence of a demand by solvent borrowers which would not exist unless they saw how they could make a profitable use of borrowed money. The production of iron is significant because that metal is the basis of all industry. No department of human activity can be enlarged without creating an increased demand for pig-iron; and when it is observed that the production of this commodity is rapidly increasing, a general activity in production is always inferred. There is a fourth sign of increased business which is upon many accounts the most trustworthy of all—increasing railroad receipts; but the returns of these are not furnished so promptly as the others, and are perhaps more commonly looked upon as proving the correctness of the inferences derived from the more sensitive factors.

If we glance at the recent figures showing the amount of bank clearings, we find a rate of increase quite as rapid as is to be wished. The total clearings in millions of dollars during the year up to September were 29,346, as compared with 38,879 during the same time in 1893. But the clearings during the month of August were in 1894, 3,564, against 3,376 in August last year. For the week ending September 1 they were 767, while last year they were 700. For the next week the figures were respectively 809 and 731; and for the week ending September 15 they were 882 and 803. There has thus been a gain of about 10 per cent. during the last few weeks, with indications of a continued increase. No more rapid rate of increase than this, we incline to think, could be regarded as altogether healthy.

Turning to the returns of the New York city banks, we see that during the last week of August the loans increased very slightly over the amount of the previous week, but very greatly over the corresponding week of 1893. The figures for 1893 were $400,000,000, but for 1894 they were about $490,000,000. The following week showed again but a slight advance, although far in excess of last year, but the week ending September 15 showed an advance of over $3,000,000; an increase of over $100,000,000 beyond the amount last year, and very largely in excess of the loans of 1892.

We confess that we regard the extremely rapid increase in the production of pig-iron during the last few weeks with some anxiety. In the region west of the Alleghany Mountains and north of the Ohio River, the production appears to be nearly as great as it has ever been. The weekly capacity of all the furnaces in blast on the first of September was reported to be 151,000 gross tons, and this is, we believe, within 25,000 tons of the maximum production recorded. We must go back as far as June, 1893, before this production is equalled. But what is startling is the contrast with the earlier months of this year, and especially of this summer. During no previous week has the capacity of the furnaces in blast exceeded 127,000, and on the 1st of June the number in blast was but 88, with a capacity of only 62,517 tons. The number has now risen to 171, and the capacity, as we have seen, to 151,113, as compared with 86,000 tons on July 1, and 115,356 on the first of August. The stocks on hand, withal, are reported to have decreased. Since there appears to have been little change in prices, we must suppose that present rates are sufficient to induce increased production. If this be true, the whole industrial world will feel the advantage of the cheapness of iron, and this will of itself have an important influence upon general prosperity.

### *COINING THE SILVER.*

A NEW mystery appertaining to silver coinage is now engaging the attention of the curious. It has its beginning and principal seat in a letter written by Secretary Carlisle to Congressman Heard of Missouri under date September 10. The secretary says that the mints are now coining silver dollars out of the bullion bought in pursuance of the act of July 14, 1890 (the Sherman act). He says that during the month of July $430,000 were coined, and during the month of August $728,000, and that about the same amount will be coined during the present month, September, and thereafter such amount will be coined as the secretary may consider advisable under the circumstances. He adds that during the last eleven months 3,970,727 standard silver dollars, coined from the bullion purchased under the act of July 14, 1890, have been paid out in the redemption of Treasury notes, that the notes so redeemed have been retired and cancelled, and that the process is still going on daily.

Some of the Northern newspapers treat this matter as though the secretary were inflating the currency and secretly undermining the public credit. Some of the Southern newspapers "point with pride" to the fact that the secretary is accomplishing what was intended to be accomplished by the seigniorage bill, notwithstanding the veto of that measure. To prove that this is the case, certain silver dollars bearing the date 1894 have been exhibited on the stump, and have been accepted as conclusive evidence. The truth is, that the secretary is simply exercising the discretion conferred upon him by an existing law. That he is not exercising it in any harmful manner becomes apparent at once from the text of his letter. No silver dollar can go out without the taking in and cancellation of a preëxisting Treasury note. This the secretary's letter affirms, but the law itself imperatively requires that it shall be so, by a provision that the amount of Treasury notes outstanding at any time shall be neither greater nor less than the cost of the silver bullion on hand plus the silver dollars coined under this particular act. As the purchasing clause of the Sherman act has been repealed, this provision of the law simply serves to keep the two elements (silver dollars and Treasury notes) equal to a fixed sum. When one of them swells, the other shrinks. But inasmuch as the secretary has no power to reissue a Treasury note which has been cancelled, the holders of silver dollars who want paper money instead can take silver certificates, which answer all their purposes equally well. Therefore the pro-

cess which is slowly going on is virtually a conversion of Treasury notes into silver certificates.

It might be supposed at first blush that this was an advantage to the Treasury in the way of converting a gold obligation into a silver obligation. But this is not true; and even if it were true it would be no benefit unless we suppose that the interests of the Treasury are different from, and opposed to, the interests of the people. The law has never made the Treasury notes a gold obligation particularly. It simply authorized the secretary to redeem them "in gold or silver coin at his discretion," and then these words were added: "It being the established policy of the United States to maintain the two metals on a parity with each other upon the present legal ratio, or such ratio as may be provided by law." So it appears that the secretary can redeem Treasury notes in silver dollars if he chooses to do so, but if he carries out "the established policy of the United States," he must immediately redeem the silver dollars with gold ones if anybody asks him to do so. But since the law makes no distinction between silver coined under one act and that coined under another, he must do the same for the Bland dollars as for the Sherman dollars. That is, he must redeem both with gold if redemption is needed to keep them at a parity with gold. If they are at a parity with gold by reason of their being received for all Government dues on the same terms as gold, or for any other reason, nobody would want gold, and presumably nobody would be harmed by his refusing to pay gold for them.

Our piecemeal silver legislation which has led to so many ambiguities and paradoxes is explainable on one theory only. This is, that the masses of the voting population do not and never can understand the science of finance; this being true of all peoples, Americans as well as others. What appears to be true on the surface of things is generally false and pernicious, if not ruinous, as, for example, that the more money we have, the richer we are, no matter what the money is composed of. Congress has legislated "for the sake of appearances" all the time, seeming to yield to ignorant clamor by supplying more money, yet not doing so to a ruinous extent. All the silver legislation, beginning with the Bland-Allison act of 1878, has been of this character. Everything can be interpreted on rational principles with this key and with no other. Of course it is no part of the Government's business to supply money to the people at all, and this Government never did such a thing from the time when the Continental money vanished into nothingness in 1781, down to the civil war in 1861.

## *POLITICS AND THE RACE QUESTION IN ALABAMA.*

ALL danger of the Populists becoming a serious factor in politics in the far Southern States seems to have gone by. It is probable that, even when the party was strongest, the principal bond of union among its members was to be found not so much in their belief in the absurd and impracticable principles affirmed in its platforms, as in the strong social prejudices which had been cherished for generations by the classes from which the Populists in the Southern States, almost without exception, were derived. In Alabama the jealousies entertained by the small farmers towards the other portions of the community have been intense enough to bring about what a quarter of a century of all sorts of experiments on the part of the Republican party of the North, supported during a large portion of that time by the entire weight of all branches of the federal government, had utterly failed to accomplish.

The returns of the August election in that State, when examined county by county, show that, in spite of the very considerable Democratic majority given, the white vote of Alabama has been split into two nearly equal portions, while the whole relation of the race problem to practical politics has been profoundly modified. It is true that in the counties of northern Alabama there have always been white Republicans. Thus, Winston County, with thirty-six negro inhabitants, was persistently Republican all through the reconstruction period, and is so to-day. After all the weight possible, however, has been allowed to these Alabama reproductions of the political conditions in East Tennessee, it still remains true that, in Alabama as a whole, the Democratic party was the white man's party, and the only opposition was that of the black man. Whenever the Republicans carried the State, it was because their majorities in the Black Belt counties were heavy enough to overcome the Democratic majorities invariably returned by the rest of the State. When the negroes ceased to vote, or were no longer able to secure the counting of their votes, all opposition to the Democratic party came to an end.

With Kolb's revolt in 1892, a new condition of things began. The Democratic party was fiercely assailed and its supremacy was seriously endangered, but the negro counties were no longer the seat of opposition to it and its candidates, as twenty-five years ago was the case. The very reverse is now true, and the Democrats of to-day, like the Republicans of the later sixties and early seventies, are forced to rely upon the Black Belt majorities to retain them in power against the adverse vote of the white sections of the State. There are twelve counties in Alabama in each of which the blacks are twice as numerous as the whites. These twelve counties, stretching across southern central Alabama from Georgia to Mississippi, constitute the principal portion of the famous Black Belt. In 1890 the census returned them as having in the aggregate 79,291 white and 299,701 negro inhabitants. The following table shows how complete the reversal of former political conditions in these counties has been. It contrasts the vote of these counties and of the rest of the State at the Presidential elections of 1868 and 1872 with the vote at the gubernatorial elections of 1892 and 1894:

VOTE IN TWELVE BLACK-BELT COUNTIES.

| | Dem. | Opp. | Dem. maj. | Opp. maj. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1868 | 17,111 | 42,083 | ..... | 24,972 |
| 1872 | 17,615 | 44,234 | ..... | 26,619 |
| 1892 | 40,958 | 14,712 | 26,246 | |
| 1894 | 38,844 | 4,390 | 34,454 | |

VOTE IN REST OF STATE.

| | Dem. | Opp. | Dem. maj. | Opp. maj. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1868 | 54,977 | 34,283 | 20,694 | |
| 1872 | 63,756 | 45,634 | 18,122 | |
| 1892 | 86,001 | 100,812 | ..... | 14,811 |
| 1894 | 70,311 | 79,004 | ..... | 8,688 |

There are eight other counties in the State in which the colored inhabitants outnumber the whites, but, as a rule, the numerical excess is not great. In these, taken together, there is a Democratic majority, but it is relatively small, the vote in 1892 and 1894 being as follows:

| | Dem. | Opp. | Dem. maj. |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1892 | 15,334 | 15,185 | 149 |
| 1894 | 13,669 | 10,691 | 2,978 |

Of the 14,331 Democratic gain in 1894 over 1892, upwards of 11,000 came (as appears from our first table) from the counties in which the negroes are in a majority. In those white counties in which the negro population is small, the Populist ticket was almost universally successful, both in 1892 and in 1894, although the majorities were by no means as large in the latter year as in the former. There are twenty-three counties in the State in which the whites outnumber the negroes more than three to one; the population in 1890 by races being white 313,314, colored 45,334. Of these counties in 1894 Kolb carried twenty and Oates three, the latter receiving in them a total vote of 23,065 and the former 30,778—a Populist majority of 7,713.

Most of these counties are in northern Alabama, but it is significant that four of them which are upon the Florida

border were no less strongly Populistic than the heavy white counties in the other extremity of the State, each of them giving a Populist majority, and their total vote aggregating: Kolb 4,985, Oates 3,668. Apparently, therefore, the proportion of the races had more to do with determining the political complexion of a county than its geographical situation. The real explanation probably is, that the counties in which there are few negroes are the portions of the State in which the soil is comparatively sterile, and inhabited largely by small white farmers, the conditions of whose lives are now hard as they always have been, and who have an hereditary jealousy of the richer planters and of the town populations. Whatever may be the cause, it is certain that Democratic predominance has now at two elections been maintained only through the vote of the black section of the State.

The principle upon which the Democratic legislators of the State have laid out or gerrymandered its congressional districts at different times, shows how thorough has been the revolution in former political conditions. When the Democratic party first came into power in the State after the war, it threw as many of the heavy negro counties as possible into one congressional district, the old Fourth Alabama; the idea, of course, being that while the Republicans would carry this district, the Democrats would be able to control the others. After it was found possible, however, to roll up heavier and more reliable majorities in the Black Belt counties than in any others, the Legislature, in reapportioning the State, was at great pains to put a Black Belt county or two in seven out of the nine congressional districts in the State. How great a sacrifice was made of all geographical considerations for this purpose no one who has not seen the lines of the districts delineated upon the map of the State can appreciate. In the Democratic State and local conventions, representation is in proportion to the Democratic vote returned. The consequence has been that a Black Belt county with an insignificant white vote, but from which a very heavy Democratic majority was returned, has been entitled in the Democratic conventions (the real governing bodies of the State) to representation far in excess of that given to counties having a far larger white population, but in which there was no considerable negro vote to swell the Democratic majority. Thus, in the recent convention to nominate a Democratic candidate for Congress in the Ninth District, the Black Belt county of Hale was represented by ten delegates, or one for every 518 white inhabitants, while Jefferson had but 20, or one for every 2,816 of its white population. It was one of the complaints of Kolb and his supporters in 1892 that the majority for his rival Jones in the Democratic convention was largely made up of Black Belt delegates who, he and his supporters alleged, did not represent votes cast by any one.

Whether the Populists are right or not in the contention that they were beaten first at the Democratic conventions and then at the polls by frauds in the Black Belt, the fact that these heavy Democratic majorities from the negro counties are returned, and that by their return the Democrats retained control of the State which they otherwise would have lost, is in itself of great importance. If the majorities are genuine, there has at last been formed a political alliance between the negroes and the most influential and enlightened whites. Such a union would tend to modify race prejudice, and would sooner or later result in the abolition of the removable injustices from which the negroes now suffer. If the majorities are fraudulent, it is certain that the white men of the State will not indefinitely submit to be ruled by manufactured votes. The struggle for better election methods may be a long one, but as it will be fought out not by the federal Government in alliance with negroes, but by the majority of the white people of the State, the ultimate result cannot be doubtful.

## "THE EXHIBITION OF THE BOOK."

PARIS, August 31, 1894.

FEW honest lovers of books could receive with indifference the announcement that an "Exposition Internationale du Livre" was to be held in Paris. That city already has its "École du Livre," which is admirably managed; there was every reason to believe that the exhibition, especially because of its proposed international character, would be, in its own way, as important and interesting. Perhaps it is the very greatness of the expectation it inspired which has made its failure the more pronounced.

In the first place, to those who, like myself, made a special journey to visit the Palais de l'Industrie, where the show is held, it is more than irritating, upon stepping into the great court, sacred in the spring to sculpture, to find it now devoted to something very like a cheap bazaar or fair. The presence of library furniture and bronze lamps, however inartistic and hideous, may, by a wide stretch of imagination, be explained as legitimate; there must be rooms in which to keep books, and lights by which to read them. But the most imaginative could hardly discover the shadow of a relation between false teeth and the printer's art, between Japanese dolls and the publisher's business. To wander down the many aisles in search of fine examples of printing and book-making is to be besieged by smiling touts for soap whose excellence depends on the clever imitation of fruits, or for hair dye which defies detection, or, it may be, for pianos which are being banged in cheerful warning of discomforts in store for the student with nerves. All this, it must be admitted, is disheartening, and scarce what one looked for in Paris. Then, again, it is solely in the name and official catalogue that the exhibition's international character is apparent. It is true that Austria and Belgium make a pretentious but ineffective showing; true that one room is devoted to Japanese prints and books; true that Denmark offers the most intelligent and comprehensive exhibit in the building. But this completes the foreign contributions, if we except an unexpected display of energy on the part of the University Press of Cambridge, which fills a case with its various publications; these, with a handful of illustrated papers and magazines, representing the "book" of Great Britain. From Italy, Spain, Germany, there is nothing; and as little from the United States, though the catalogue at least rejoices in an impressive American section, with Mr. Eustis for President and many illustrators, booksellers, diplomats, and journalists for members. More unpardonable, however, is the utter want of system in the arrangement of the exhibition—if, indeed, the word arrangement can be mentioned in connection with it. The French themselves show much that is of genuine and legitimate value, but still more that is trivial and irrelevant. Evidently, everything sent has been accepted with open arms, no matter what its intrinsic merit, as if the one object were to fill up space; and no greater has been the discretion in disposing of contributions once accepted. There is no method, and but feeble attempt at classification. Confusion prevails; and the worst of it is that the show, though now opened for somewhat over a month, is far from being ready.

Its drawbacks are the more exasperating since, within its limits, the collection has its interest. Almost all the prominent and well-known publishers are here—Hachette, Lemerre; Plon, Nourrit & Cie.; Charpentier, Ollendorff, Firmin-Didot, and too many more to mention. Some few printers have sent specimens of their type, some bookbinders, such as Gruel and Magnier, of their bindings. It is curious to note—and the truth of the assertion would be doubly emphasized were the collection really international—that just now the French publisher seems far less concerned with the beauty of book-making than the American or the English. This may be in a measure accounted for by the fact that at present there are no French printers who can compete with the Constables in Edinburgh or the De Vinne Press in New York. But how account for the lesser degree of interest taken in the beautiful page, in the decorative, well-balanced title-page, in harmony of size and shape, in the quality of paper, which have become such vital considerations with at least three or four American and English publishing firms!

It would appear that in France, of late, artistic activity has found its outlet chiefly in the matter of illustrations, wherein draughtsmen, engravers, and printers have long excelled. It is provoking, therefore, that in this very department the exhibition should be so unsatisfactory. In the series of original drawings hung together in one room the average is not much above that of Cassell's annual black-and-white show in London; though, fortunately, delightful exceptions occur in the drawings, both in pure line and color, by Boutet de Monvel, and in the work of Jeanniot, Régamey, and Renouard. Many illustrators of distinction, however—Schwabe, Forain, Steinlen for instance—are absent altogether. And if another room is monopolized solely by the illustrations for Victor Hugo's books, the result supplies merely additional evidence of the

willingness of the jury or committee of selection to welcome the bad with the good. When it comes to reproductive work, there is so little that is notable, and this little is so hopelessly scattered, that no suggestion is given of the supremacy of French engravers, mechanical and otherwise. It is, indeed, only from publishers of prints, like Marty and Sagot, that something of the new tendency in illustrative and reproductive art is to be learned. The latter publishes for men of such distinct individuality as Ibels, Chéret, Lunois, Vallaton; while M. Marty's collection, called "L'Estampe Originale," already seen at the Champ de Mars and at the Grafton Gallery, is proof that the revival of original lithography, wood-engraving, and etching marks the much-needed reaction against the influence of photography. How much this reaction is needed may be realized by turning to the books published by M. Mendel, who believes the draughtsman to be superfluous in illustration, and in support of his foolish theory substitutes for drawings dull photographs, not merely of landscapes and buildings as they actually exist, but of groups and models arranged for the purpose in the photographer's "studio." An edition of Daudet's 'L'Élixir de l'Abbé Gaucher,' thus disfigured, shows to what depths of degradation illustration may sink when photography, its efficient handmaid, is allowed to usurp its several functions.

In the midst of the prevailing confusion, the businesslike order of the Danish section serves as eloquent reminder of what the exhibition, as a whole, might have accomplished with a little more method. The Danes who had their department in charge understood the meaning and object of an *Exposition du Livre*. Their exhibit is small, but, as I have said, comprehensive. To study it carefully is to glean much information as to the art of book-making as practised to-day in Denmark—much of which is as unexpected as it is interesting. That the Scandinavian race has its great painters all the late international-picture exhibitions, including the salons, have made clear. Now it may be seen that it has also its great illustrators—Hans Tegner, a master of pen-and-ink; Niels Skovgaard, who, like Mr. Pyle, adapts modern methods to all that is best in primitive wood-cutting; Frölich, Larsen, and others whose names are but seldom heard without their own country. And these illustrators have their intelligent interpreter in the wood-engraver Hendriksen, and their work is published in volumes to whose excellence printer, binder, and paper-maker have likewise contributed. Moreover, it is worth recording that all the arts that relate to books are held in sufficient respect by the Danes for Copenhagen to have established a "School of the Book" on much the same lines as the institution of that name in Paris. It is the true glory of the Exhibition that it has brought Denmark to the fore.

If the modern division of the show is frankly disappointing, with that part of it called *Exposition Rétrospective et Documentaire* and forming an exhibition within the exhibition less fault is to be found. Here, hanging side by side on the wall, and set out side by side in cases, are innumerable private collections. The result is a small museum, varied and amusing, but not easily to be disposed of in one short article. He who would write a history of printing or of book illustration in the past would be supplied with more material than enough in the collections of old books of every date and country. The series of book-bindings is as complete. Every fad of the collector is represented. For one man whose fancy is for caricatures there is another who delights in title-pages and decorative head and tail-pieces. Space is made for posters and playing-cards and political pamphlets and primers and prints. Curious old letter paper dating back to the first Empire and the Restoration, visiting-cards, menus, playbills, are equally honored. This strange medley is more to the taste of the antiquary than of the student or the artist; but, each collection being given a place to itself, the haphazard element in the arrangement is less conspicuous than elsewhere.

If many of the fads so amply illustrated have nothing to do with books, there is a ready explanation: the show is supposed also to include "Paper" and the industries appertaining to it. This second aim it is well to overlook in the modern departments, where the paper one would wish to see is done up and hidden in huge packages, and the paper one does not want to see flaunts its silly designs on the stationer's shelves, or, else, hung in the balcony, reveals the hopeless vulgarity of the French designer of wall papers. Were it not for the *affiches* of Chéret, of Grasset, of Steinlen, of Lautrec, and it may be for the collection of Chinese fans, it would have been far better had directors omitted paper from their programme. As it is, they have fallen between two stools. They might have organized an exhibition of invaluable service to artists and artisans, had the Book alone been its subject; instead, they have littered the halls of the Palais de l'Industrie with so much trash that to discover what good work there is, is like hunting for a needle in a haystack.

N. N.

## THE GREENLAND KAYAK.

SUKKERTOPPEN, August 20, 1894.

THE Greenland kayak is certainly one of the most marvellous adaptations of natural forces to human use which have ever been made. It is a logical but most ingenious evolution from the birch-bark canoe of the northern Indian tribes of America. The various stages of development, from the light and open canoe of the northwestern tribes to the closed and water-tight shell of the complete kayak of Greenland, can readily be traced around the shores of Alaska and British America.

The kayak consists of a frame of wood or bone, fifteen or twenty feet long, pointed at both ends, and about two and one-half feet wide and deep in the middle—all so light that a boy of twelve can take it under his arm and carry it without effort. Over the frame there is tightly stretched and closely sewed a covering of tanned seal-skin which is impervious to water. In the middle of the top there is a hole just large enough to permit the owner to insert his body so that he can sit on the bottom and stretch his legs out in front of him. A seal-skin coat with a hood for the head, and a rim for a close-fitting attachment to a corresponding rim round the aperture into the kayak, complete the protection from water. Sitting bolt upright in this position, with a double paddle, flaring at both ends, the native who is "to the manner born" can defy the winds and waves which swamp an ordinary boat.

The first sight of a kayak in its native waters is exciting in the extreme. It is likely to be, as with us two weeks ago, when lying off an unknown harbor waiting for a pilot. The whistle has been blown long and loud, the cannon has been fired, and the rocket discharged, and still no response from shore. At length, when patience is almost exhausted, there appear three or four black specks on the top of the distant swells of the ocean, how distant we were little prepared to estimate, because of the excessive clearness of the atmosphere. As they get nearer, we begin to see a curious motion, somewhat resembling that of the arms of a windmill. These are the kayaks with their several occupants striving to outstrip each other in a race for the coveted job of piloting the ship to harbor. Already they are far ahead of the larger boat which comes lagging along in the distance. On reaching the ship, the most fortunate kayaker unloosens his coat from the rim of his vessel, of which he seems to form a part, with much difficulty wriggles himself clear from its entanglement, and is brought on board. Those who fell behind in the race, some of them, rest quietly like ducks upon the water around the ship, only occasionally dipping one end or other of their curious paddles to resist the force of some unusual wave, while others display their own skill and the capacity of their kayaks by various manœuvres which never fail to astonish spectators. Now one will perform a somersault, or a series of somersaults, with his kayak, or again one will dart forward like lightning at right angles to another and jump completely over the bow of it. But unfortunate indeed is the European who attempts any antics in or even ventures into a kayak. To the native the motions necessary to preserve equilibrium are a second nature, which have been instinctive from childhood. The adult who has not already learned its management had better not attempt to learn.

The Greenlanders have larger boats made of skin, called umiaks; but these never venture out except when accompanied with a kayak as a convoy. Week before last we set out from here through a labyrinth of channels between the islands on a camping expedition to the inland ice. Three large boats carried us and our equipage, but we found it convenient and almost essential to have along also three kayaks. These shot ahead to find for us the favoring currents, and were at hand to pick up for us the birds which we shot upon the wing, and which fell into the water beyond our convenient reach. They were also ready for despatch on any errand, far or near, which it was important for us to have attended to. At one time, when the wind was blowing a gale, shutting us up all day in our tents, and tossing the waves into such commotion that it would have been madness for any of us to have ventured upon them, we were thrilled by the cry that some kayaks were coming. They were three that belonged to the little settlement, and had come that day, as a matter of course, from Sukkertoppen, which was twenty miles distant. On reaching the shore and pulling themselves loose from their shells, the kayakers ran their hands into the apertures from which they had drawn their limbs, and pulled out various objects of merchandise which they had purchased at the store for their families. They then took up their kayaks and carried them to a secure place and disappeared in their igloos, where their families were awaiting them.

The kayak is equipped with various ingenious implements of the chase. First there is the bird spear, consisting of a short handle of wood pointed with a short bone spear-head, and a circle of barbed bone lance-heads designed to give a whirling motion to the missile, and to ensure the entanglement of the object at which it is thrown. Then there is the harpoon for the seal, which is so arranged with a joint that after the spear-head has penetrated the animal it becomes detached from the shaft and is con-

nected with a thong in the hands of the hunter. This thong is also attached to a float, consisting of the skin of some large animal sewed together so as to be air-tight and inflated. This will float on the water and prevent the escape or sinking of the wounded animal. Various kinds of fishing tackle are also natural attachments to the kayak, when fully equipped. In the settlement where we were, all these implements were of native manufacture. The wood had been borne thither on the majestic currents that receive the drift from Siberian rivers, and, bearing huge icebergs and vast ice floes, move along the eastern coast of Greenland and around Cape Farewell to the Arctic circle on the west shore. It is to these same currents that Nansen has committed himself, in hopes of floating past the North Pole. Nor is iron at all a necessity to these natives. Really, their true Elysium has been reached, not in the age of steel, but in the age of bone. With the kayak and a modicum of Siberian driftwood, implements of bone are all they need.

So far as I could learn, there was not a firearm in the little interior settlement of Ikermiut, where we remained ten days for explorations. Nor did the inhabitants need firearms. They can destroy game fast enough with their own implements. The use of firearms has led to the wanton destruction of the reindeer for the sake of their skins, their antlers, and their tongues, which are a rare delicacy. It is to be feared that the Greenland reindeer will soon go the way of the buffalo of our Western plains; and so of the fur-bearing animals in general. The natural increase is sufficiently checked by the original native methods of catching them in traps. The seal, also, the most important of all the animals upon which they depend for existence—furnishing them food, clothing, fuel, and covering for the kayak, is in danger of being exterminated by the more destructive methods of hunting introduced by modern inventions.

The Esquimaux in their original state were marvellously adapted to the conditions of life surrounding them. The Danish Government has done well to preserve those conditions as nearly as it has been possible to do so, even though, to accomplish this end, foreign visitors are rigorously excluded. The crews of the vessels which frequent the coast are forbidden to land, and the ships are excluded from their ports, except in stress of weather or by special permission. Our most accomplished naturalist will not be permitted to remain at Sukkertoppen, because he has not the special permission of the inspector, and it is now too late to reach him. In consequence of this wise policy the unique methods of life so well adapted to the conditions of the country and climate are in a fair way of being preserved, and, with these customs, the people themselves. No people can permanently live here except they subsist upon the products of the country. The value of the things they acquire is far greater in use than they can be in exchange. It is a poor bargain when the Greenlander sells his garment of sealskin for a pair of trousers made of shoddy, or his jacket of bird skins for a coat of many colors. Nor can he profitably exchange his animal food for the vegetable delicacies of temperate climates.

Providence has provided an abundance of food, shelter, clothing, and fuel, such as it is, for a limited population on these shores; natural selection has developed in the people stomachs and the constitutions suited to these provisions; and, finally, the inventive genius of untutored humanity has evolved the kayak and its various attachments for appropriating these provisions. The circle is complete. It will be a sorry day when, from any cause, this circle is broken. While fishing off a convenient rock for cod the other day, we were somewhat humiliated to have a small boy come alongside of us, and, with the rudest kind of apparatus, and actually no bait at all, catch fish faster than we could with the best of hooks and the most tempting bait. On visiting the immense rookeries of the kittywakes near by, also, the kayaker accompanying us was able to load his craft with all the birds he needed without our aid. Our fire-arms accomplished little more than wanton destruction.

But while the kayaker, conscious of his triumph over the watery elements in certain of their phases, is bold as a lion in his chosen sphere of hazardous adventure, in other and unknown conditions he is the most timid of all creatures. It has been with the greatest difficulty that we have persuaded any of them to penetrate the fjords with us far enough to reach the glaciers which enter them from the inland ice. The loud detonations which accompany the calving of the icebergs and the formation of crevasses are ominous sounds to their untutored ears, and suggest the presence of mysterious powers with which they feel themselves unable to cope. Nor is this strange, since the ice-fields yield nothing to supply their pressing wants, and therefore offer to them no inducement for exploration. Their minds seem utterly oblivious to the attractions of the most impressive mountain scenery in the world afforded by the Greenland coast, and to the suggestions of the most mysterious forces of the world bound up in the continental ice-cap of the interior.

The timidity of the natives sadly interferes with any hasty attempt to explore even the border of the Greenland ice. Still, we have succeeded in accomplishing about all we expected to do, and, in spite of the kayaker, have been as venturesome upon the frozen billows of the inland ice as he is among the white caps of the stormy sea. If at this season I should commit this letter to the Danish mail service, it would be cheerfully carried more than two hundred miles in kayaks to meet the last ship of the year going to Copenhagen. But if I ask the kayaker to go with me in a boat to within two miles of the glacier's front, the chances are that he will throw down his oars and absolutely refuse to work; or if, perchance, he is persuaded by my example to venture a little on the ice, he will very soon turn up the soles of his feet, and after pointing to the thin protection of his sealskin boots, and significantly saying, "No good, no good," will beat a hasty retreat. Still, after all, he is the best of helpers in his proper place, and upon the inland ice we can get along very well without him. He patiently awaits our return, and fairly beams with satisfaction when he sees that no harm has befallen us. G. Frederick Wright.

## GRÉARD'S PRÉVOST-PARADOL.

Paris, August 28, 1894.

The two most brilliant political writers under the Second Empire were Forcade of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* and Prévost-Paradol of the *Journal des Débats*. At a time when there was not even a semblance of a free press, when any newspaper or review could be suppressed after one or two warnings, and sometimes without any warning, these two writers contrived to conquer the attention not only of France, but of Europe, and to exercise the difficult and perilous function of critics of the imperial policy. They both represented the principles of constitutional government, they both were Orleanists, more attached to the general principle of representative government than to the principle of heredity; they wrote a clear and elegant style, and enveloped their criticisms and their allusions with all the graces of language. Prévost-Paradol once said to me: "I am practising a most difficult sort of dancing: I have to dance on eggs without breaking them."

In one sense, Forcade, who wrote the fortnightly political chronicle of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, was happier than Prévost-Paradol. He was protected by the Foreign Office; for, though the *Revue des Deux Mondes* was in opposition in all matters which concerned the interior policy of France, it did not make any opposition in questions which affected the relations of France with Europe. As there was no free press, and as the official communications made by the Government to the ministerial press were considered by the foreign Powers as the direct expression of the imperial will, the Foreign Office, which, to a certain degree, maintained its own traditions, found it convenient to use the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for a sort of indirect expression. The services which Forcade thus rendered (and he rendered them most conscientiously) gave him a certain amount of freedom in other matters which Prévost-Paradol did not enjoy.

It has always been a wonder to me how Forcade, who had the best-balanced mind I ever saw, cheerful in character, admired and liked by all, ended as he did. On his return from Venice, whither he had been invited by his Italian friends to assist at the dedication of a statue of Manin, as he had manifested a constant and active sympathy for the Italian cause, he showed the first symptoms of the terrible malady which goes under the name of general paralysis. He had soon to be placed in an asylum, where he died very shortly, after having lost every ray of that brilliant intelligence which had for many years given us so much pleasure and consolation. You know well in America how his rival for some time in popularity, Prévost-Paradol, died. The life of Forcade has yet to be written; perhaps it will never be, for he left, so to speak, no papers. The life of Prévost-Paradol has been lately written by a friend of his, M. Octave Gréard, Rector of the Academy of Paris and a member of the French Academy. M. Gréard modestly calls his biography a "study followed by a selection of letters," and it is in reality more a sketch than a real biography.

We are not told when and where Prévost-Paradol was born. Very little is said of his mother, who was an actress of the Théâtre-Français; nothing of his father, M. Paradol, a former major of the Naval Engineers. Paradol was nine years old when his mother fell ill and had to leave the stage. A few devoted friends had to provide for his education. He was a brilliant scholar and entered the Normal School, which is the preparatory school for professors of the French University. This Normal School has formed many men who have attained a great celebrity. Paradol had among his companions Taine, Edmond About; Sarcey, the theatrical critic; Gréard, and a few other men of great talent, but of minor celebrity. These young men had before them the example of Cousin, of Villemain, of other professors who had become ministers and had taken part in the government of their country. They were full of ambition, the Revolution of 1848 had excited their hopes. Paradol not only studied the great philosophers of ancient

and modern times, he read not only Descartes and Spinoza, he plunged into the writings of the modern socialists, of Fourier, of Proudhon. His friend Taine, who was very sober-minded, often scolded him and tried to bring him back to pure philosophy. Paradol believed at that time in the legitimacy of passions and in the policy of interest. He did not deny that he was ambitious. "Yes," he says to Taine, "I have a thousand reasons for being ambitious and fond of life. I should like to be powerful. I should like to be rich. I should like to be beloved." This is what we call the "cri du cœur." We have in this candid avowal the secret of many of Paradol's acts and of many of his determinations.

The Normal School was in those troubled times a hotbed of politics, but the daily work went on as usual. Paradol was preparing to take his degree as professor of philosophy; he had endless discussions with Taine. "I gave Spinoza to you," Taine said to him; "you have given me Burdach and Geoffroy Saint-Hilaire. I initiated you into metaphysics; you have taught me physics and physiology. Brothers in philosophy, in politics, in literature, our two minds were born together and born one for the other; and, if I lost you, it seems to me that I should be losing all my past." Paradol copied these lines on a card which he carried a long time in his pocket. Taine tried constantly to bring Paradol's mind back to study, to what he called the "convent," and to hinder him from becoming a man of action. But he preached in vain: Paradol was determined to cut his way in the "wide, wide world."

When the Coup d'État of December 2, 1851, took place, when he heard of the arrest of the members of the Chamber, he entered the room of the Director of the Normal School and solemnly declared to him that the school sided with the Assembly. Nevertheless he writes to Taine: "I do not advise you to send in your resignation, and I shall not send in my own. . . . It is perfectly true that we teach in the name of the State, and it is not doubtful that the State is now founded on violence and on lies. If we lived in a country worthy of liberty, no functionary, neither you nor I nor others, would consent to serve for a moment a gang of traitors. But I confess, to the shame of our poor country, we are not bound to set a useless example, tied as we are by the State to the chain of an indispensable salary." A few days afterwards, speaking of the Coup d'État and of Napoleon, he writes:

"I am not blinded by anger, as I was the first day, and I understand the great movement which carries us away. To give the masses universal suffrage was to throw them beforehand under the feet of the predestined man whom antiquity well knew, and whom every country in its turn has adored under the name of the good tyrant. Here public indignation has not been conquered by the guns of the tyrant and by his 150,000 brutes, but by the inaction of the true people, by the almost sympathetic indifference of the workingmen, by the distant noise of the acclamations of the country-people. The enlightened part of the nation fatigued the great masses with discussions and agitations, and the masses order it brutally to talk no more. . . . No vain regrets, we are vanquished; those who do not know how to read have crushed those who read. The helots have taken Lacedæmon. But this instrument of the people will be broken. He understands his part, he is mystically fond of it: it is not enough to play it well. . . . He will not miraculously conciliate labor and capital; he will not be at the same moment M. Thiers and Proudhon. He will have to choose, and when he has chosen he will be lost. He will fall in a cloud of ridicule and hatred."

A curious judgment, written on the 10th of December, 1851. Napoleon is well judged in it, and well understood; Paradol comprehends the socialistic author of the 'Idées Napoléoniennes,' but he does not sufficiently consider that the new tyrant is the heir of Napoleon, and that he has not only assumed a semi-socialistic mission, but also a military mission—that he is bent on destroying the treaties of 1815 and remodelling the map of Europe.

Many of the companions of Paradol at the Normal School abandoned the University. Taine was one; he had, in the course of one year, been sent successively to four colleges, to Toulon, Nevers, Poitiers, Besançon. Sarcey was another, so was Weiss. Paradol continued to prepare himself for the doctorship of philosophy; he wrote meanwhile an essay on Bernardin de St. Pierre, the author of 'Paul and Virginia,' and won the Academy's prize. He wrote to Gréard, on hearing the news: "Victory! I have the prize! and I have it alone. Can you give me a dinner at the Palais-Royal? I have twelve sous left." For three years he struggled painfully for the necessaries of life. He received a salary from the Hachettes for a 'Review of Universal History.' He wrote in several reviews. He was appointed in 1855 professor of French literature at Aix. He had met, while he was still in the Normal School, a young Swede. "Of this union, the beginning of which already," writes M. Gréard, "was enveloped in mystery, were born three children." (Two of these children are dead—one in 1877, another in 1878; there survives only Thérèse, who is now in the convent of Ramleh in Palestine, of the Order of Notre-Dame de Sion.) Aix was a resting-place for the young professor and his young family, but he was thinking all the time of returning to Paris. "I love Paris," he wrote. "I love its streets, its squares, its gardens, its rivers, its noise, its silence. . . . No capital seems, like ours, to have been created in order to be the true theatre of thought and of passion." But the Paris he was pining for was especially the Paris which lies between the Sorbonne, the Institute, the *Journal des Débats;* which is hidden behind Saint-Germain-l'Auxerrois. He was formed and created for the *Journal des Débats*, the most literary paper in France, the paper for which Chateaubriand and Cousin had written. M. de Sacy, the editor, offered him a permanent position on it in 1856, and he accepted with joy.

Paradol's career as journalist in the *Débats* and in the *Courrier du Dimanche*, a weekly paper for which he wrote at the same time, is well known. He was the most brilliant of journalists—his style classical, his irony subtle without ever being venomous, his eloquence easy and natural. He became the favorite, the Benjamin of all the salons which were in opposition to the Emperor. Sainte-Beuve called him the secretary-general of the old parties. He drew his inspiration chiefly from the Place Saint-Georges, at the house of M. Thiers, who received every night the remnants of the old parliamentarians. He was thrown among the Orleanists, and was called himself an Orleanist; but he was no monarchical doctrinaire, and in his 'France Nouvelle' he frames rules of government for France as applicable to a republic as to a parliamentary and constitutional monarchy. He was prepared for everything except an absolute government; he was even preparing himself for a liberal Empire, and when Napoleon III. published the decree which assured the immediate publicity of the discussions of the Legislature and the Senate, he wrote in the *Débats:* "Are we honest men? When we constantly repeated that we placed the extension of our liberties above everything, and that we wanted above all the government of the nation by the nation, were we playing a comedy?" Napoleon understood this language. He offered Prévost-Paradol the post of minister to Washington. M. Thiers advised Paradol to accept; he was not as far from the so-called liberal Empire as he had been from the Empire after the Coup d'État. When Paradol made his visit before his departure to the Emperor and Empress, he was struck with the conversation of the latter. After a few commonplace remarks on treaties of commerce, she would speak of Prussia, of Sadowa, of the injury which had been done to France. The Emperor, on the contrary, assured him that peace had never been better guaranteed on the Continent. When Paradol had crossed the ocean, a telegram informed him of the conflict with Prussia. The reporters surrounded him, saying: "War—is it war?" Paradol understood at once that it was war. Twelve days after he had landed in America, his mortal remains were taken back to France in the *Lafayette.*

# Correspondence.

## AN INTERNATIONAL POSTAGE-STAMP.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Another reason for an international stamp is, that, being readily obtained throughout the Postal Union, no fictitious value would attach to it. During periods of stamp-collecting fury (the present is one throughout Europe), the danger to letters bearing unusual stamps is great from dishonest clerks, postmen, and hotel porters. During the past summer a friend of mine spent a month or two in the Canary Islands, leaving his family in Italy. Though they wrote regularly, and latterly very frequently, alarmed at each other's silence, not one letter was delivered; the only explanation being, that the value of Italian stamps in the Canary Islands and vice versa was too much for the people through whose hands the letters passed. Others whom I have met have received their letters minus the stamps; thankful for the letters, they made no complaint. Though, to my knowledge, I have lost no letter so far, yet the excitement, from proprietor to boots, one day in Venice, when eight letters arrived for me each with a ten-cent Columbian stamp, made it evident that only the unusual honesty of all caused the letters to be delivered; and had they borne fifteen-cent stamps, I should probably not have fared so well. The bestowal of the eight stamps on the head porter made fees quite unnecessary in the future.

Until we have an international stamp, the safe course for Americans to pursue is: Avoid Columbian stamps, highly prized here; use only the plain brown five, and two or more of them when necessary instead of a single stamp of higher value. G. G. H.

Lausanne, September 5, 1894.

# Notes.

The Revell Co. will publish directly 'Chinese Characteristics,' by Arthur H. Smith, a long-time resident of China; and 'Among the Tibetans,' by Mrs. Isabella Bird Bishop.

D. Appleton & Co. add to their announcements 'Woman's Share in Primitive Culture,'

by Otis Tufts Mason, Curator of the Department of Ethnology in the United States National Museum.

Ginn & Co., Boston, will publish next month continuous selections from the 'Colloquies' of Erasmus, edited with notes and an etymological vocabulary by Victor S. Clark, Honorary Fellow in History, Chicago University.

An authorized translation of Gustav Freytag's 'The Technique of the Drama,' by Elias J. MacEwan, is in the press of S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago.

Thomas Whittaker has in press 'The Heresy of Cain,' by the Rev. George Hodges, Dean of the Theological School at Cambridge, Mass.

'The Religion of Moses,' by Rabbi Adolph Moses, is announced by Flexner Bros., Louisville, Ky.

The fourth volume of Graetz's 'History of the Jews,' and 'Old European Jewries,' by David Philipson, D.D., are about to be brought out by the Jewish Publication Society of America, Philadelphia.

Dr. Elliott Coues, as the conscientious editor of Zebulon Pike's 'Expeditions to the Sources of the Mississippi,' to be published by Francis P. Harper, has just returned from a canoe trip of more than 400 miles to those sources, with observations and discoveries that will much enrich his notes.

Prof. Wm. M. Sloane's serial 'Life of Napoleon' will be begun in the November *Century*, and will be equipped with illustrations, antiquarian, historic, and artistic, in great profusion. The wave of the Napoleonic revival, having struck these shores, invades also *McClure's Magazine*, which will draw freely (to the extent of 150, including 75 portraits of Napoleon) on Mr. Gardiner G. Hubbard's extensive collection of prints, distributing these among six numbers, beginning in November. Mr. Hubbard himself will supply notes in regard to them.

Signor Alberto Lumbroso is at work upon a 'Saggio di una Bibliografia ragionata per servire alla storia dell' epoca napoleonica,' and has recently issued the second instalment, B—Barlow, pp. xxiv, 153. It is printed at Modena by Angelo Namias & Co. As the edition is of only 200 copies, our American libraries may have to scramble for it. It is praised by Signor Chilovi in the *Bollettino* of the Central National Library at Florence.

The English translation of the 'Memoirs of Chancellor Pasquier' (Scribners) reaches the third volume, covering the years 1814–1815. The same publishers send us a reissue in two volumes—San Francisco to Teheran, Teheran to Yokohama—of Thomas Stevens's adventurous 'Around the World on a Bicycle.'

Mr. Julius A. Palmer, jr., has collected the letters which he contributed to the Boston *Transcript* as its special Hawaiian correspondent, and has published them under the title 'Memories of Hawaii, and Hawaiian Correspondence' (Boston: Lee & Shepard). The book is chiefly remarkable as showing the inability of the Provisional Government to conceal its fraudulent character from a candid man who studied it on the spot with no prepossessions except in favor of it.

Prof. Lounsbury's 'History of the English Language' has long been a favorite manual among teachers and with the public. It now appears in an enlarged edition, revised and, indeed, to all intents and purposes rewritten, from beginning to end (Henry Holt & Co.). The merits of the book are too well known to need particularizing. Its defects, which were chiefly in matters of detail, have been to a great extent remedied in the present revision. Unfortunately, even the revised edition is by no means free from inaccuracies. Most of these are of trifling importance and could easily be corrected in the plates. We have only space to mention, as samples, the dictum that "*ye*, in the language of Chaucer, invariably denotes the nominative" (p. 164), and the curious error involved in speaking of "the root *ben*" (p. 469).

A third edition, enlarged and partly rewritten, of 'Select Methods in Chemical Analysis,' by Prof. Crookes, F.R.S., is published by Messrs. Longman. Eight years have elapsed since the second edition appeared. Some of the processes which found place in the former editions have been discarded—chiefly volumetric methods, which are now fully described in standard works on this subject, and processes of only technical importance. The same fate has overtaken others "because their value is now too well known to make it advisable to retain them in a book which the author wishes to be looked upon as mainly a collection of novel or little-known processes," and a few because newer methods have proved more reliable. These omissions have made room for a number of electrolytic methods from Dr. Classen's work. The author points out again, in his preface to this edition, that the book must not be looked upon as an encyclopædia of chemical analysis, and that it contains only such methods as have been proved in his own laboratory. The general excellence and usefulness of the work are beyond question. We have only two remarks in the way of criticism. The old system of weights and measures is retained where it was used in the original memoirs from which descriptions are condensed. We are confident that all users of the work would have appreciated a uniform employment of the metric system. As it is, the mixture of old and new gives a somewhat out-of-date look to the pages, and causes annoyance to those who rarely use grains and ounces in their work. The translation from Classen in chapter xiv. is a wretched piece of work, and forms a blot on the general clearness of the text. Prof. Crookes could not have made it, and it must have escaped his eye, even in the proof.

In the third part of vol. iii. of the tenth edition of Quain's 'Anatomy' (Longmans), Prof. Schäfer admirably presents the structure of the organs of the senses. The illustrations are numerous, and many of them are upon a commendably large scale, thereby exhibiting clearly the microscopical features recently determined by Retzius, Cajal, and others. The eye is treated first, then successively the ear, nose, and tongue; a reverse order would seem more natural. As is common in works on human anatomy, too many of the figures represent animal structures. Surely human organs can be obtained fresh enough for microscopic manipulation. Anatomists, teachers, and students alike will welcome the forthcoming parts of this great work, treating respectively of the Peripheral Nerves and the Viscera.

The wallflower, the white lily, and the spruce fir, which we Americans know as Norway spruce, are the three plants chosen for the minutest kind of analytical study in Mr. D. H. Scott's 'Introduction to Structural Botany' (London: Black; New York: Macmillan). The work is well written and apparently very thorough; and yet in the portion on cell-formation, only the "daughter-nuclei" connected by "delicate threads of protoplasm" are described, and nothing is said of the wonderful development and function of the microsomes.

Better adapted for laboratory use is Dr. F. O. Bower's 'Practical Botany for Beginners' (Macmillan). This is truly practical, and gives clear and sensible directions about all the necessary processes. The choice of plants for study, such as sunflower, elm, maize, pine, etc., is good. It could be wished, however, that some other moss more typical than the hair-cap moss (*Polytrichum commune*) could have been chosen. A comparison of *Mnium cuspidatum*, among acrocarpous mosses, with some common *Thuidium* or *Hypnum* would have been more interesting and quite as instructive.

The subject of quantitative chemical analysis as applied to agriculture is well treated in Mr. Frank T. Addyman's 'Agricultural Analysis' (Longmans). It begins with elementary instruction in the use of balances, weights, evaporators, wash-bottles, and the other usual furniture of a chemical laboratory, and proceeds to the methods of estimation of iron, potash, phosphoric acid, and other constituents of soils and manures, and finally considers the analysis of milk, butter, cheese and drinking-water. Of albuminoid ammonia the author well says: "This is the substance which, more than all others, should be absent from drinking-water, as it is generally due to unchanged sewage."

In writing the biography of 'Les Saint-Aubin' for "Les Artistes Célèbres" (Paris: Librairie de *l'Art;* New York: Macmillan), M. Adrien Moureau had a relatively easy task, as material, in the shape both of personal data and of pictorial specimens, abounds. The brothers Goncourt, among others, had paved his way. The book is readable, each of the three brothers having a distinct talent and personality. The elder, Germain, born in 1721, proceeded from designing for embroidery, in which he had the favor of Mme. de Pompadour; and he was also fond of flower-studies. Gabriel, 1724, was an insatiable Bohemian of the pencil, everlastingly reporting the life of the streets, the salesrooms, and the salons, adorning his catalogues with marvellous microscopic hints of the pictures displayed or sold. Augustin, 1736, who survived the Revolution and the First Republic, depicted finely the manners of the day in high life, and was an admirable engraver of his own and other men's portraits. Thus Cochin and Moreau, his predecessors in the present series, were delineated by him in eau-forte. The volume is copiously illustrated.

René Doumic some time ago wrote that he had never read 'The Three Musketeers,' and wondered a bit at the interest the book still excites. That the influence of Scott and Dumas is far from having died out is proved, *pace* Doumic, by the popularity of well-written historical novels. Books of this class have been freely published of late in France, and Louis Létang's 'Le Roi s'ennuie' (Paris: Calmann Lévy) is one of the best. It has a large measure of the dash and spirit of the Dumas romance; the hero is a regular D'Artagnan, and the heroine all that can be asked for in the way of a charming *ingénue* and embodiment of persecuted loveliness. The villain is sufficiently black, the intriguing monk satisfyingly wicked, and the book from start to finish reads rattlingly, as becomes a novel of that character. The title is a happy antithesis to Hugo's 'Le Roi s'amuse' (and it is the same Francis I.); but if the king is bored, not so the reader.

Ferdinand Fabre's 'Mon Ami Gaffarot'

(Paris: Colin & Cie.) is properly "a slice of life," and a realistic or naturalistic novel in the truest and best sense of the word. It is a faithful portrayal of a particular circle during a brief period, and nothing could be truer or more exact. It is, besides, delightfully entertaining and clean and healthful throughout: clerical life, middle-class life, no striking adventures, no wild passions; but a charm and a truth that, had they been imitated by other naturalists, would have made the name an honor instead of a reproach.

Our Berlin namesake, *Die Nation*, has collected from past volumes a number of representative articles of intrinsic interest, but also calculated to show the quality of its staff. The editor, Dr. Barth, himself contributes articles on Bismarck and Windthorst; Rudolf Virchow writes on Quatrefages, Otto Gildemeister on Josephine and on Renan's 'Feuilles Détachées,' Emil Schiff on the late Josef Hyrtl, Theodor Mommsen on Horace's *Carmen Sœculare* in the light of the official programme of the festival discovered at Rome in 1871, etc. L. Bamberger is another well-known name on the list. "Junius" finds a topic in Jay Gould's death.

The *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for September is, as usual for this quarter, largely occupied with Commencement doings, such as Henry Cabot Lodge's Phi Beta Kappa address on "True Americanism," the reports of the various associations, etc. Illustrations of the exterior and interior of the new Harvard House of New York accompany a detailed account of its "warming." Miss Mary Coes, who has been appointed to edit the Radcliffe College Department, makes a beginning in this number. A posthumous paper by the late Frank Bolles states the problem of administration amid the enormous growth of undergraduate attendance, and proposes a subdivision of the charge. Mr. Bolles's editorial place will be filled hereafter by Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart.

William Beverly Harrison, No. 59 Fifth Avenue, sends us specimens of Dr. Klemm's relief maps for school use, part on stiff paper for permanent coloring and marking, and another series on waterproofed cardboard, from which pencil marks can be expunged as from a slate. There can be no doubt that political and historical geography can be agreeably learned in this manner, at a low cost for these palimpsests. The relief is of course crudely indicated, altitudes under 2,000 feet being merged in the plain; the rivers, too, tend to exhibit straighter courses than in nature. But these defects are unimportant, as a general view of the physical geography is all that could be hoped for in sheets of 10x11 or 10x15.

The late Brugsch Bey would not have occurred to one as likely to be found in a Philadelphia photographer's portrait gallery of distinguished sitters; but the great Egyptologist is before us, in Turkish official habit, fez on head and sword on arm, with Mr. Gutekunst's stamp on the "imperial panel." The strong face is finely caught, and the portrait is a valuable souvenir.

—At one of the recent morning meetings of Section H—Anthropology—of the British Association, Mr. Arthur J. Evans read a paper on "A New System of Hieroglyphics and Præ-Phœnician Script from Crete and the Peloponnese," embodying the tentative results of his recent discoveries, alluded to in a letter from Crete lately published in these columns. Analogous systems had once existed, Mr. Evans thought, within the European area. He had found similar pictographs on a Dalmatian cliff, they still survived in Lapland, and the "Maraviglie" figures, carved on a limestone rock in the heart of the Maritime Alps, were well known. Evidence of a hieroglyphic system just obtained for Asia Minor in connection with the Hittites had been lacking hitherto for Europe. Dr. Schliemann had begun, and others had carried forward, the discovery on Greek soil of a civilization which was the equal contemporary of those of Egypt and Babylonia. Was this civilization wholly dumb? Homer contained a hint that it was not, and the writer's visit of last year to Greece had yielded a clue to the existence, especially in Crete, of peculiar seal-stones engraved with symbols of a hieroglyphic nature. His still more recent explorations in central and eastern Crete had brought to light a series of these pictographic stones, so that he was now able to put together over seventy symbols belonging to an independent pictographic system. On stones of similar form, on prehistoric vases, and elsewhere appeared a series of linear characters many of which seemed to grow out of the pictorial forms. Here he drew attention to diagrams setting forth both systems.

—The Cretan hieroglyphs, like Hittite and Egyptian ones, fell into distinct classes—parts of the human body, arms and implements, animal and vegetable forms, objects relating to seafaring, astronomy, geometry, and the like; primitive gesture-language appearing in two crossed arms with extended palms. The symbols occurred in groups, showing traces of a boustrophedon arrangement, and exhibiting certain affinities to Hittite forms. The "template," or "templet," of a decorative artist occurred among them; and with a model of this symbol, the writer, guiding himself by a design from a Mycenæan gem from Crete, reconstructed the design of a Mycenæan painted ceiling alike resembling that of Orchomenos and of tombs at Egyptian Thebes belonging to the eighteenth dynasty (*circa* 1600 B. C.). The linear characters were more like an alphabetic series. These fitted on to signs engraved at Cretan Cnossos on the walls of a Mycenæan palace, and again to two groups of signs from the Mycenæan vase-handles. It was thus possible to reconstruct a Mycenæan linear script of some twenty-four characters, each probably having a syllabic value. A large number of these linear syllabic signs were then shown to be practically identical with the syllabic signs used by the Greeks of Cyprus. These Cypriote signs illustrated the phonetic value of the Mycenæan linear characters. Here, then, were two hitherto undiscovered systems of primitive script belonging to the second millennium B. C., and going back to a day when the Greeks were unacquainted with Phœnician symbols. These two older systems certainly overlapped chronologically, as some pictorial forms of the one system appeared in a linear form in the other: the double axe, for instance, occurred in two stages of linearization, the simpler form being identical with the Cypriote character. The pictographs seemed especially Cretan, the Eteocretans being especially addicted to their use; the linear forms were Mycenæan in the widest sense. Reasons from the Bible and from Egyptian monuments were then given for identifying the Eteocretans with the Philistines, or Krehthi, of Holy Writ.

—Prehistoric America was the subject of two of the papers read at the recent meeting of the British Association. Mr. H. Yule Oldham endeavored to show from the manuscript map of Andrea Bianco in Milan, dated A. D. 1448, that Brazil had been discovered previous to that date. Not only does it exhibit the results of the Portuguese discoveries as far as Cape Verd, but there is drawn at the edge of the map, southwest from that cape, in the direction of Brazil, a long stretch of coast line, labelled "Authentic Island," with a further inscription to the effect that it stretches "1,500 miles westward." This fact, taken in connection with Antonio Galvano's story that in A. D. 1447 a Portuguese ship was carried by a great tempest westward until an island was discovered, from which gold was brought back to Portugal, the author concludes, affords presumptive evidence that South America was first seen at that time. In the other paper, Dr. E. B. Tylor argues that by a comparison of the Aztec and Buddhist myths the Asiatic influence on the pre-Columbian culture of America can be proved. He instances the four great scenes in the journey of the soul in the land of the dead, depicted in a group in the Aztec picture-writing known as the Vatican Codex. These are the crossing of the river; the fearful passage of the soul between the two mountains which clash together; the soul's climbing up the mountain set with sharp obsidian knives, and the dangers of the wind carrying such knives on its blast. But these are strikingly similar to the scenes from the Buddhist hells or purgatories as pictured on Japanese temple scrolls. Here too are the river, the two mountains being pushed together by two demons, the mountain of knives and the knife-blades flying through the air on fierce blasts of wind. These analogues are so close and complex as to preclude any explanation except direct transmission from one religion to another.

—At a recent meeting of the Association Française pour l'Avancement des Sciences held at Caen in Normandy, M. Yvernès, chief of the Bureau of Justiciary Statistics, read an interesting paper on "Crime and Criminals in France from 1860 to 1890." It appears that during the thirty years covered by the report there has been a vast increase of crime, and a remarkable diminution of the number of cases in which it was detected and punished. In 1860 53 per cent., and in 1890 63 per cent., of criminals went unwhipped of justice. This increase of crime becomes all the more alarming when we remember that petty offences are usually discovered, and this circumstance renders still greater the percentage of dangerous malefactors who escape. Thus, only 10 per cent. of felonious burglars are arrested, and as some of these are always acquitted, not more than 6 per cent. of this exceedingly flagitious class of criminals receive their due punishment. There has also been a growing tendency to substitute the court of correctional police for trial by jury in the prosecution of common crime. Of cases of grand larceny tried by jurors there were 1,276 in 1860 and 1,496 in 1890; whereas the cases of simple larceny tried by police courts numbered 30,074 in 1860 and 49,801 in 1890. French judges and jurists are getting more and more distrustful of juries on account of the many scandalous verdicts of acquittal or absurd admissions of extenuating circumstances which have occurred. Another instructive fact adduced by M. Yvernès is that men commit six times as many crimes as women, assuming the sexes to constitute equal parts of the population. The criminal record of woman would be still more favorable were it not for the preponderance of infanticide and abortion, which she is often strongly tempted to perpetrate, but which, he thinks, would be less frequent if it were not for the iniquitous para-

graph of the French code relieving the father of the illegitimate child of all responsibility. If the law, he says, permitted "la recherche de la paternité" in France, as it does in Germany, a decrease of the two above-mentioned crimes would be at once perceptible.

—The twentieth annual report of the minister of state for education in Japan for 1892, printed in Tokio in June last, is at hand. The totals on pp. 79-83 show in general a healthful growth of the national system of education. There are 14,071 school districts. Out of a population of 41,696,847, the number of children of school age is 7,356,724, and of these 55.14 per cent. are under instruction. Of children now in school and likely to continue through the prescribed course of instruction, the number is 3,076,324, while 4,056,262 have completed the full school course in recent years. In the matter of female education the advance is not striking, and the Japanese seem rather to have fallen away from their ideals. In the lists of pupils, teachers, and graduates, both in the lower schools and in those higher than elementary, there is a startling contrast between the figures accredited to males and those accredited to females. In the totals we read that in the 19 (national) Government, 23,-216 public, and 2,140 private schools above the elementary grade there are 62,555 male and 4,267 female teachers and 2,298,311 male and 987,391 female students and pupils. In the elementary schools the proportions are but slightly different. There seems to be also a tendency to increase special schools, and to reduce the number of those in which the standard elements of education have been taught. Of foreign instructors, Americans are the most numerous, counting 132, as compared with 67 English, 30 French, 16 German, 3 Russian, 3 Italian, 1 Chinese, or in all 254.

—The various chapters in this pamphlet of 163 pages are of interest as showing the success or failure of particular foreign ideas. In the matter of public libraries there is no advance, but rather retrogression. This, however, may mean that the booksellers and their circulating libraries, both fixed and on the shoulders of peripatetics, supply the public demand, which is still great, according to old methods and channels. Poverty accounts for the chief exemptions from school attendance (497,000 boys, 1,086,000 girls), while illness is the cause next in potency (91,000 boys, 160,000 girls in 1892). Kindergartens show notable increase and efficiency. The study of foreign languages is not as general as it was a few years ago, even English having fallen in favor, while "in many schools the second foreign language was superseded by such subjects as agriculture or commerce." One who is familiar with a dictionary like that of Mr. J. H. Gubbins, which shows the enormous expansion in late years of the Japanese language, in vocabulary at least, by the coinage of new terms expressing modern and scientific ideas, will hardly wonder at this. The condition of the Imperial University is healthful, and the record of graduates a brilliant one. The technical schools deserve more extended notice than we can give, and show surprisingly excellent results, and the same may be said of the Tokio Academy of Music. One pleasing fruit of the latter is the demonstration that Japanese music may be reformed by harmonizing the favorite airs. The schools for the blind and deaf and dumb show marked progress. Twenty-one students are in foreign countries. In voluntary contributions to public education there is increase. How well the people appreciate the benefits of education is shown, with detail and pathos, in the story of the great earthquake of 1891, in Central Japan, which wrecked so many thousands of houses and school edifices. In some instances, before the people rebuilt their homes, they set up sheds for school work, and put teachers and pupils industriously together again. One good result has been the construction of earthquake-proof school-houses. On the whole, this report is an index of the solid and gratifying progress made by the nation in the new life begun in 1868.

## BARTLETT'S NEW CONCORDANCE TO SHAKSPERE.

*A New and Complete Concordance, or Verbal Index, to Words, Phrases, and Passages in the Dramatic Works of Shakspere;* with a Supplementary Concordance to the Poems. By John Bartlett, A.M. Macmillan & Co. 1894. 4to, pp. 1,910.

THE unwearied compiler of 'Familiar Quotations,' as a sort of trial-balloon for the grander work now before us, produced in 1881 a "concordance of phrases rather than of words" in his handy 'Shakspere Phrase-book.' He there assembled every sentence from the dramas containing an important thought, with so much of the context as preserved the sense. This is the particular in which the 'New Concordance' differs most notably from Mrs. Cowden Clarke's, whose abrupt citations favored three narrow columns to the page, against Mr. Bartlett's broad and typographically elegant two columns. An example will best illustrate this: Take *mountain:*

(Clarke) Upon a barren mountain. *Winter's Tale*, iii. 2.
(Bartlett) A thousand knees Ten thousand years together, naked, fasting, Upon a barren mountain, and still winter, In storm perpetual, could not move the gods To look that way thou wert. *W. Tale* iii. 2 213.

This is an extreme case, being a three-line entry in Bartlett, with whom a single line suffices in the great majority of instances, though two lines are as plentiful as blackberries. But the principle observed by our countryman makes his Concordance not a mere index, but also an anthology, which frequently and perhaps generally dispenses one from referring to the text of Shakspere, and which furnishes to the idle-minded a delightful browsing-ground. His pioneer's pages can never be consulted for amusement. We subjoin one more three-liner to show how he makes shift by elisions with too cumbrous passages. The word is *left:*

(Bartlett) The blood he hath lost . . . he dropp'd it for his country; And what is left, to lose it by his country, Were to us all . . . A brand to the end o' the world. *Coriolanus* iii. 1 302.

It will have been noticed that Mrs. Clarke employs but two figures, denoting scene and act, while Mr. Bartlett adds the line, an enormous advantage for prompt reference. This is done conformably to the enumeration in the Globe edition of Shakspeare of 1891. It constitutes the second fundamental distinction from Mrs. Clarke's Concordance, and needs no insisting upon. The third goes back to the aim to exhibit Shakspere's phraseology as well as words. Thus, conjoined with *look* we have *look about, look after, look as, look as if, look as though*, etc., with *hear* (nearly four pages), *hear further, hear me, hear me speak*, etc.; with *house, house affairs, house and home, house of fame, House of Lancaster*, etc.; with *rich* (half a page), *rich advantage, rich armor*, etc. (half a page); with *first, first affection, first and last*, etc. This arrangement of course gives us two alphabets to consult instead of one, and we may say puts a premium on consulting the second first; but if phrases as well as words were to be exhibited, there was no escape from it. It has not, however, been consistently—or perhaps the better word would be universally—carried out, as may be remarked in the case of adjectives, which Mr. Bartlett sometimes sets apart when they are closely connected with their nouns. Thus, after twenty-six entries of *pretty* there are eighty-eight of attributive combinations like *pretty a piece, pretty a proportion, pretty age, pretty Arthur*, etc., but *ugly* is not so treated, presumably because its total is so much smaller, and the same reason would avail for the neglect of *stale* as compared with *fresh, small* with *great* (the difference here in the totals is really striking), *humble* with *proud*, etc.; one hardly expects, however, to find *old* followed by *old abusing, old acquaintance, old Adam, old age*, and the like, while the qualified substantive is all but excluded from the similar phrase series under *new*.

Any further comparison of these two works must be not so much as to scheme as to personal equation. Shall we separate the citations for words spelt alike but differing in meaning or in part of speech? Mrs. Clarke and Mr. Bartlett both say no, but we cannot persuade ourselves that this was a sound decision. It saves the compiler trouble, but not so much as the phraseology causes. The word *tear* in Bartlett fills two pages, embracing say 350 entries; would it not have been worth while to discriminate the verb "(to) tear" from "tear," the watery secretion? Mr. Bartlett's plan has really effected this division in the case of *island*, for after he has disposed of his substantive he appends as separate entries the word used adjectively, *e. g., island carrions, island kings*, etc., and has emphasized this procedure unintentionally by interpolating *islander* out of its alphabetic place between the two sets of quotations. Something might further be said of the value of this particularizing as gratifying statistical curiosity.

Again: Shall we mingle singular and plural under one heading? Mrs. Clarke and Mr. Bartlett agree in this obviously sensible practice. (There is an appearance in Bartlett of separating the possessive *death's* from the great body filling five pages, but it is only an appearance.) Shall we select from, or wholly omit, the copula and certain auxiliary verbs? Both select, and Mrs. Clarke omits what Mr. Bartlett has, especially in view of the phraseology, good reason for admitting. Thus, neither pretends to include every occurrence of the multitudinous "my lord," and each chances to retain the same number (ten). (We remark, by the way, under *lord* in Bartlett the omission of *Hamlet* v. 2 88.)

In his Concordance to the Poems, also, Mr. Bartlett has had a predecessor, and again a woman. Mrs. Furness followed Mrs. Clarke in curtness of quotation, but by way of compensation she bound up the Poems themselves, duly numbered, with her index. Her exhaustive plan of entering *a, and, of, the*—in short, every word—has of course not approved itself to Mr. Bartlett, who treats the Poems in this respect not otherwise than the Plays; and shall we not here, in passing, make Mrs. Furness's perfect work more perfect by noting the omission of a *since* (1078 *Venus and Adonis*)? They differ, once more, in this, that Mr. Bartlett gives a continuous numbering to the *Passionate Pilgrim*. So far as we have compared them, there is absolutely no discrepancy in

their figures, and this inspires confidence in both. For his entire volume it deserves to be mentioned that Mr. Bartlett employs the old-style figure, dear to users of logarithmic tables, and the only proper type for tables of all sorts.

We have now set forth the leading characteristics of a work which effectually puts the seal upon all endeavor in its line. This Concordance is, for the English-speaking world—for the whole world—a supersession of what has gone before, a permanent and undisturbable possession "for all time." Mr. Bartlett's constantly renewed 'Familiar Quotations' has distanced every competitor on either side of the Atlantic; but he has done with it, and another hand, if one so patient and scrupulous can be found, must keep it alive or seek to rival it. The Concordance "age cannot wither," and it will remain an enviable monument to our New World largeness of undertaking, thoroughness, industry, taste, scholarship, side by side with Mr. H. H. Furness's Variorum Shakspere. And if in a measure it casts into the shade and into disuse the loving toil of two not-to-be-forgotten women, there is some consolation in Mr. Bartlett's dedication of it to his wife, "whose ever-ready assistance in the preparation of this book has made my labor a pastime."

## FROM DEVONSHIRE TO INDIA.

*Perlycross.* By R. D. Blackmore. Harper & Bros.

*The Ebb Tide:* A Trio and a Quartet. By R. L. Stevenson and Lloyd Osbourne. Chicago: Stone & Kimball.

*Doreen.* By Edna Lyall. Longmans, Green & Co.

*Kerrigan's Quality.* By Jane Barlow. Dodd, Mead & Co.

*The Story of Dan.* By M. C. Francis. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

*The Potter's Thumb.* By Flora Anna Steel. Harper & Bros.

THE introduction to 'Waverley' sets forth the difficulties encountered in writing a novel about times that are neither ancient nor modern; the author being thus deprived both of the helpful license of antiquity, and of the direct appeal to contemporaneous knowledge and sentiment. Sir Walter Scott avoided his recognized disadvantage by concentrating his force on character and passions, believing that they are but slightly affected by fluctuating fashion. The same faith appears to have guided Mr. Blackmore in constructing his novel of sixty years ago, 'Perlycross,' for though the book is long, it is not because he tarries to describe transient manners or to discuss tedious, exploded ideas. During the last half century external life in rural Devonshire has undergone change almost equivalent to revolution, but if the grave of a Sir Thomas Waldron had been desecrated yesterday, there is every reason to believe that a Perlycross would display agitation, grief, and horror in ways and words very similar to those which expressed such emotions in the reign of the sailor-king. Nowadays, of course, an excitement about the rifling of its great man's grave would hardly last over night, even in a serenely bucolic region. One keen and agile reporter would speedily flaunt the emptiness of Joe Crang's tale of midnight body-snatchers, and within twenty-four hours prepare a detailed account (with diagrams) of Perlycross church, of the heaven above it and the earth beneath, either revealing the sad disrepair of the Waldron vault and the existence of a subterranean passage, or for ever annihilating romantic possibilities. But this mystery, which, measured by modern expertness in detection, is too thin to carry the weight of long suspense, kept old-time Perlycross mildly agog for months, moving the most respectable as the least reputable to startling vagaries of conduct, and letting loose a flood of unsuspected profundities and phenomenal constructive imagination. The incident is so well fitted for stirring up a drowsy society that it would be easy to write an entertaining tale in which the Perlycrucians should be represented as absorbed in the question, What has become of Sir Thomas's body?

Mr. Blackmore has done a much more difficult thing, for, while the movement centres about this strange and wanton outrage, the strength of the narrative is in the development of private affairs, and of their natural, probable connection with the public scandal. The thing achieved is a hearty, wholesome, agreeable picture of semi-rural life which gives the reader a sense of intimacy with place and people almost as perfect as that derived from 'Middlemarch.' The thoroughness of Mr. Blackmore's rendering of the English rustic inevitably suggests both George Eliot and Thomas Hardy, but there the likeness ends, for he differs radically from both in thought, method, and manner. He neither soars to the delineation of pure intellect and spiritual subtlety, nor lingers on base, hard, unpleasant phases of life and character. His irony never hurts, and, except for a little fractious opposition to modern progress, his outlook is uniformly that of a man well pleased with his world and eager to share its good with others. One closes 'Perlycross' with the feeling that life is, on the whole, an excellent thing, and there is no doubt that Mr. Blackmore's constant habit of romantic excursion has much to do with the impression. By wilful introduction of picturesque people and incident he warms the blood. One does not care at all about incongruity or improbability, but thanks him for stimulating a variety of sympathy and for telling a good story in which no sinister intention of instruction or reproof is discoverable.

The first chapter of 'The Ebb Tide' is a fine illustration of Mr. Stevenson's unique power of uniting the frigidly uncongenial interests of psychology and romantic adventure. The souls and the fortunes of the three outcasts shivering on the beach of Papeiti are close to low-water mark, with odds against their rising at the flood. Whether one shall care most for the coming psychic or physical developments is a matter of taste, but of their absolute interdependence there can be no doubt. Thus the sense of continually increasing excitement is due not more to the rapid action and thrilling situations than to the agitating wonder whether it was indeed the devil who opened the door of Destiny for Robert Herrick and Capt. Brown; and whether, when they boarded the schooner *Farallone*, they had not passed for ever into hopeless hell. For the third adventurer, the cockney Huish, there is no concern, and perhaps it is incorrect to speak of three souls on the beach, Huish being of that low order of humanity born without the spiritual germ. He is a repulsive creature—so uncompromisingly crooked, so utterly depraved; yet at the end of the story he alone remains in the mind, disgusting yet distinct, thoroughly known, perfectly understood. Here is a cruel disappointment: not that Huish's representation is satisfactory, but that it is so at the sacrifice of Herrick and Brown, from whom we properly expect to part either with absolute certainty that they went out with the tide, or strong suggestion that they caught it at the turn. As it is, they are left in a situation so improbable and fantastic that the authors who raised the curtain for a serious drama appear to have capriciously rung it down on a farce.

The second part of the story is either a great mistake or a wanton bit of jugglery. Fitting though it might be for the conclusion of a rattling story with no more intellectual pretension, as a sequel to the first part of the ebb tide, it is about as appropriate as a merry jest tacked on to a sombre funeral oration. It would be interesting to know whether Mr. Stevenson or Mr. Osbourne is the originator of Attwater, the proprietor of the pearl island to which the distressed *Farallone* drifted. One can hardly fancy a quarrel for the credit. The gentleman combines in nice proportions the characteristics of one of Ouida's heroes (Strathmore will do) and of such eloquent revivalists as Mr. Sam Jones or Messrs. Moody and Sankey. To complete the model, Chesterfield appears to have been drawn on for manners, Beau Brummel for clothes, and Buffalo Bill for deadly precision with a Winchester. No similar incarnation has ever before been presented to a gaping world, and we can well believe that there was no room to spare even in six feet four of stature with exquisitely proportioned breadth. Whether Attwater is supposed finally to succeed in bullying Herrick into a belief in God, or whether the whole display of religious mania, including Capt. Brown's hysterical repentance, is an expression of cynicism in rather bad taste, we confess ourselves unable to decide.

Setting aside the story, with its great points and its disgraceful defects, one can always turn with pleasure to certain detachable passages where Mr. Stevenson is at his best in thought and style. There are several in which he touches the great style of English prose—the style that appeals to mind, imagination, and taste. One of these occurs in the altogether admirable first chapter, in the description of the three most miserable English-speaking creatures in Tahiti:

> "Two were men of kindly virtues; and one, as he sat and shivered under the *purao*, had a tattered Virgil in his pocket. . . . He would study it as he lay with tightened belt on the floor of the old calaboose, seeking favorite passages and finding new ones only less beautiful because they lacked the consecration of remembrance. Or he would pause on random country walks, sit on the path side, gazing over the sea on the mountains of Eimeo, and dip into the Aeneid, seeking *sortes*. And if the oracle (as is the way of oracles) replied with no very certain or encouraging voice, visions of England, at least, would throng upon the exile's memory—the busy schoolroom; the green playing-fields; holidays at home and the perennial roar of London; and the fireside and the white head of his father. For it is the destiny of those grave restrained and classic writers with whom we make enforced and often painful acquaintanceship at school, to pass into the blood and become native to the memory; so that a phrase of Virgil speaks not so much of Mantua or Augustus, but [*sic*] of English places and the student's own irrevocable youth."

Why, we ask, in the face of this, does Mr. Stevenson waste himself on an Attwater and a Huish?

Miss Lyall's fluency is her undoing. She revels in particulars of place, character, event Death-bed scenes are especially dear to her. In 'Doreen' we assist at the last moments of about half-a-dozen very worthy people, several of them patient sufferers from trying diseases, and all removed by an inscrutable Providence,

apparently for the pleasure of increasing the difficulties of Doreen's career. She is, however, endowed with valor, beauty, charm, and the gift of song, and so, through many tribulations (including a short, triumphant season in jail), arrives at affluence, happiness, and a prominent position in the Ladies' Land League. For Irish sympathizers 'Doreen' is an inexhaustible treasure; it will keep their hearts hot and their eyes wet for a month. The old, old political arguments are rendered with spirit and conviction, and the indifferent or hostile reader might not be shamed to weep for the epitomes of domestic virtue, social charm, and disinterested patriotism left to languish in English prisons, and grossly labelled Fenian, conspirator, or inciter to riot. Even the dynamiter has his halo, though of his wicked ways Miss Lyall distinctly disapproves; in dealing with him and his brother, the hedge-assassin, her intelligence gets the better of her emotion. But the book is really a product of emotion, not hysterical or violent, only very enjoyably intense for those who sympathize with it.

In 'Kerrigan's Quality,' by Jane Barlow, political issues have no part. Ireland's desperate wrong, its poverty, for which there is so much difficulty in fixing responsibility, is the most striking feature of the village in which the scene is laid, but no one is required to feel a pang for the contentedly dirty, shiftless, good-natured inhabitants. On the contrary, one could cheerfully bear the poverty, and almost forget the dirt, for the sake of such quick-tongued, philosophically observant neighbors. The talk that goes on in Glenore is vastly more entertaining than is the story of the "quality" whom Kerrigan established in the big house. The plot is rather extravagant, poorly put together, and ends in an irritatingly gratuitous tragedy. Kerrigan's character is very feebly drawn, and after the bitter disappointment of the home-coming, on which he had built high hopes, he is no more than a walking shadow. The author's strength is undoubtedly in delineation of the idle, happy-go-lucky Irish peasant gossiping about the cabin or contemplating the potato blight with serene yet garrulous disregard of consequences. 'Kerrigan's Quality' excites no suspicion that Miss Barlow has also a talent for sustained narrative.

'The Story of Dan' (Irish again) is a far better tale than 'Kerrigan's Quality,' and the character-drawing is not inferior. Love, passionate and stone-blind, is always fraught with pathetic interest, and few are incredulous of its capacity for folly and wild self-sacrifice. Dan's love-story is very real, very true, and his sacrifice as fine as it is foolish. The author's manner is straightforward, easy, and unaffected. Her conception is simple, yet demands power to utter a tragic note which is touched with rather rare discretion. Immediately after Dan and his sweetheart are thrown together, tragedy is foreseen, but its strain is admirably lightened by the subordinate actors in the drama. There is no pretension about 'The Story of Dan,' and it is a notable success within modest limits.

'The Potter's Thumb' opens with a description of a diseased child displayed by its mother, a native of Hodinuggar, somewhere in India, to two passing Englishmen. The opening does not engage the fancy, but inspires a dread that the peculiarly unpleasant infant is to accompany us through the book, which is long. The dread is dispersed by the discovery that the woman, in attributing physical infirmity to a slip of the potter's thumb, is speaking allegorically. The allegorical mood appears to have possessed the author to the extent of total deprivation of any power for straightforward statement. Mrs. Steel's first novel, 'Miss Stuart's Legacy,' showed considerable constructive ability, which is not lacking in 'The Potter's Thumb,' but very well concealed in a useless and elaborate intrigue perfectly incomprehensible to Western intelligence. Doubtless the frivolous Mrs. Boynton was open to censure for accepting a bribe to effect the opening of the sluice-gates, but we chiefly marvel at her astuteness in discovering that the pearls in the Ayôdhya pot were meant for a bribe. Her crime appears to be plain thieving, not corruption. The mind reels in an attempt to follow the coming and going of that Ayôdhya pot, the profound yet futile duplicities of the courtesan Chândni; and why all the pother about keeping the gates shut only to have them opportunely, indeed providentially, opened, nobody will ever know except, perhaps, the boy who shot himself on account of it. There is no actor in the drama whose life is so well worth preserving as this boy, George Keene. Perhaps such a boy, under such circumstances, would have shot himself, but we fear that he is intended from the first to illustrate the slip of the potter's thumb, the pot doomed to go to pieces in the baking. We could wish that the author had worked her allegory off on the frail Mrs. Boynton, the supercilious Lewis Gordon, or any one in Simla rather than George Keene.

To depict a fragment of Anglo-Indian society, Mrs. Steel uses a great many words productive of dense obscurity. Broadly speaking, it is an ordinary, superficial, and sufficiently agreeable lot, while her dissertations on it are tedious, at times quite senseless. She appears to have no sort of faculty for deliberate analysis. The process is valuable only for the illumination of complex natures; and why Mrs. Steel should choose characters that can be read in the dark, and then pursue investigations with a search-light of which she doesn't know the trick, is another maddening mystery. The native Indians are more satisfactory though less vivid than in her preceding work. It is impossible to know what they are after; and though this difficulty may frequently occur in actual dealings with Dewans, caste prostitutes, and mad Hindu potters, it should be overcome in a book. Let us likewise speak in allegories: the potter's thumb, when not directed by a clear mental conception, is very apt to slip, and the pot that is not made of well-tempered clay will pretty surely break in the firing.

## VESPUCCI THE LANDLUBBER!

*The Letters of Amerigo Vespucci*, and Other Documents Illustrative of his Career. Translated with notes and an introduction by Clements R. Markham. London: Hakluyt Society. 1894. 8vo, pp. xliv, 121.

THE new scrutiny which has darkened the character of Columbus in England and America, and more yet in Germany and Spain, and which has found Sebastian Cabot to be a fraud, and discovers even that John Cabot did not see the main American land in his first voyage, notwithstanding the distinct asseverations of his second patent, now finds Vespucci a landlubber and beef contractor, who put on the airs of a discoverer, wrote attractively, and knew how to work the opinions of those not too near the scene of action in his favor. In each case the method of disparagement is mainly on lines followed by the contemporaries of the famous navigators, revived by critical students who find little more to do than to strip off the veils of sentiment and wraps of hero worship with which later times have enveloped their memories, so as grossly to disguise them. Mr. Markham prints the long story which Las Casas gave in the chief contemporary arraignment of Vespucci, and makes it the basis of his introductory estimate of the man, just as Las Casas's judgment upon the public character of the Genoese Admiral is a justification of the recent estimates of that personage. In Mr. Markham's opinion, "The authority of Las Casas is alone conclusive," and every student of these times knows how constantly he must check off his points by recurring to the narrative of the good bishop.

This probing of what is deemed the falsity of Vespucci's nature has no new features, but the Council of the Hakluyt Society, it seems, determined to lay once more all the original documents before its members, and commissioned its president, distinguished for eminent service in these discussions, to marshal the arguments which these papers supply. The greatest names indeed in this study, from Robertson and Muñoz down, had long united in rejection of Vespucci's claim to have made a voyage in 1497 antedating that on which Columbus discovered the continental coast, when, thirty years ago, a Brazilian, Varnhagen, vamped the story with a series of assumptions, perversions, and substitutions, in undertaking to rehabilitate the character of Vespucci. He has been followed "by one or two" since, notably by Dr. Fiske—though he is not named—which renders it necessary that the merits of these questionable tales should be discussed anew. "They have a place," says Mr. Markham, "in the history of geographical discovery, and require, though they do not deserve, serious consideration." The questions involved in this study are of extreme complication, and the ground is often unstable; and every critical student regrets to find that not only the popular historian, catering as he must to the public demand for explicit statement, but sometimes the investigator, finds it meet to indulge in a finality of opinion better suited to the heat of oral discussion.

Mr. Markham makes much of the fact that Vespucci was a man of fifty—speaking of him, however, in one place as in "old age," and in another as in "middle age"—when he first went to sea, after having led a land life in connection with mercantile enterprises. It seems to us that he treats rather capriciously the evidence of Hojeda, which classes Vespucci with the "pilots," and which is certainly at variance with Mr. Markham's belief that Vespucci was in no sense a pilot. He places, we think, too little reliance upon what a quick apprehension of sea duties without practical experience could do to fit one to navigate a ship. This aptitude he might well have recognized when he makes no question of Vespucci's native ability. He would hardly deny that Vespucci came to be worthy of being called a pilot, when we find the Spanish Government ultimately making him the head of that service. To have attained that position after three voyages indicates pretty clearly that the man had an innate fitness for the seaman's work. Very likely at the time of his embarking with Hojeda in 1499, Vespucci was merely "a very clever and plausible landsman with a keen eye to his own interests," and Mr. Markham deems it a point of some consequence that, in the narrative of his pretended voyage, he misuses nautical words; but this indicates only lack of sea-going, rather than unfitness for it.

Vespucci's blunders were rather geographical than nautical, as when he says he sailed always within sight of land, from the South American coast 870 leagues to the northwest; which would have landed him in British Columbia! Varnhagen and his few disciples conveniently say that Vespucci meant northeast, but, instead of following him in that direction, they make him box the compass in a circuitous route which eventually brings him to Hatteras. But nothing could be more directly in contravention of Vespucci's claim than the fact that those who brought the famous suit to prove that some of Columbus's discoveries had been anticipated, do not bring forward this pretended voyage. Vespucci's claim for it had been printed, Ferdinand Columbus owned the book, and yet, during these years of legal contest, the attorneys for the Crown never once intimated that there was a narrative which would establish their point beyond cavil. There could be but one reason for this omission, and that was that everybody shared with Las Casas the belief in its falsity. After this conclusive argument, even the evidence of La Cosa, Cantino, and Peter Martyr in their maps is mere supererogation, to say nothing of the royal concession to Ponce de Leon to take possession of the unknown Florida coast, if it had already been coursed in the interests of the same monarch by Vespucci, as Varnhagen claims.

In speaking of the mercantile career of Vespucci at Florence, Mr. Markham mentions but does not use the letters of Vespucci at that time which have been preserved. They are the new, unpublished material, we believe, which Mr. Harrisse has more than once told us he intends one day to edit. We notice also that Mr. Markham unqualifiedly condemns as a forgery the recently discovered letter of Vespucci, which was printed at Amsterdam in 1508. That document, of which the only known copy has come to this country and is now in the Carter-Brown library at Providence, and was recently examined by the present writer, may yet be more critically studied than it has been.

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*Climbing in the British Isles.* By W. P. Haskett Smith. I. England. Longmans, Green & Co. 1894.

In the vicinity of Colorado Springs there is a grass-covered mound, some fifty feet above the roadway, which, the native takes great pleasure in informing the Eastern visitor, is called Mount Washington because it happens to be exactly the same number of feet above the sea level as the monarch of the White Mountains. The moral of this is that, to the climber, it is quite as important to know the height of the valleys which form his base of operations as of the peak itself. This is naturally suggested by Mr. Haskett Smith's excellent little manual on climbing in England, because the increasing number of American travellers who take their pleasure in the shape of walking tours, and incline to indulge in a little mountaineering, are likely to turn away from the English mountains on learning that the highest of them is less than half as high as Mount Washington. In so doing, however, they will make a great mistake. It is quite true that Scafell is only 3,200 feet high, but the climber starts from a low-lying valley and has nearly 3,000 feet of climbing before him, the quality of which is comparable to that of the Matterhorn. For, although the great Swiss peak is over 14,000 feet bove the sea level, nearly half of this is saved by those who follow the usual custom and start from the hotel on the Riffel Alp, so that the difference is not so great as would appear at first sight. Moreover, the inns in the lake district, where nearly all the English mountains are, compare not unfavorably with the Swiss inns; and it has become the fashion for Alpine Club men to pay flying visits to the lakes in the winter and spring in order to obtain practice on ice and snow, so that the inns are kept open all the year round.

In the eager search for something to climb, which is the normal occupation of the climbing fraternity the world over, some ludicrous mistakes have been made; and Mr. Smith records how, in March, 1889, a certain Bear Rock, which, he declares, is difficult to find in seasons when the grass is at all long, was gravely attacked by a party comprising five or six of the strongest climbers in England. But, on the other hand, there is plenty of difficult and dangerous work to be had in Cumberland and Westmorland; to say nothing of the chalk cliffs of the south coast, which are 250 to 500 feet high, and on which a slip would almost certainly prove fatal.

It appears that the attention of the Alpine Club was first directed to the English mountains by a Col. Barrow, who challenged the members to ascend what he considered the impossible sides of some half-dozen mountains. This challenge was promptly taken up, and in recent years all the ascents have been made; but most of them should be attempted by practised mountaineers only, and with the aid of a rope. A good many lives have been lost, but of course such accidents will not stop climbing, any more than Mr. James Payn's humorous account of the less serious consequences—"inordinate perspiration and a desperate desire for liquids; if the ascent is persisted in, the speech becomes affected to the extent of a total suspension of conversation." The example of the Rev. James Jackson may be quoted on both sides of the question. He spent many years of his life in climbing, and in his sixty-ninth year walked sixty miles in twenty hours; and when the weathercock of his church got out of order, he was the only man who dared to climb the steeple and set it right. He lived to a great age, and eventually lost his life by a fall on one of his favorite cliffs.

This little volume is of convenient size for the pocket, and those who desire to climb in England will find it invaluable.

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*Modern Methods of Sewage Disposal.* By Geo. E. Waring, jr. D. Van Nostrand Co.

The individual or the community of to-day that for convenience or luxury brings its water-supply to or within its door, must see that it is carried off, and it flows away stained with waste, a defiled and defiling flood. With the concurrent increase in water distribution and in density of population, this problem of disposition is more and more vexatious, for the refuse should neither offend the senses nor damage the health, even if it should not be, as one school of economists insists, a source of revenue. It is in order that these questions may be understanded of the people that the author, justly a popular authority, adds this book to his series of similar works. He very properly maintains that there is no hard and-fast rule for the disposal of all sewage, and that a great city like New York, lying in the throat of the tides, may properly evacuate all its discharges where an increased fish harvest will add to the wealth of the community. But an inland town may not defile a river, nor should it by a vicious system of cesspools or by imperfect sewers pollute its own soil and water. The chemical treatment of sewage is theoretically the most acceptable: there should be no difficulty in adding to or subtracting from the organic waste those elements that will destroy its noxiousness. Practically it cannot destroy all organic matter, and thus the sewage interferes with the integrity of the stream that receives it, and, what is sometimes very important, it makes that water hard. Speaking generally, the proper treatment of sewage is by irrigation and the so-called filtration. This presupposes the storm-water to go one way and the sewage discharge to have its own independent course. Even here the solid matter is only one part in a thousand. Sewage farms may be managed for the sake of the crops or for the sake of the sewage. If the former, it may average for the year at the rate of 150 persons to the acre; if the latter, 1,500 persons. But the character of the soil, its preparation by underdraining, and the degree of rainfall have much to do with it.

Where agriculture may be fairly carried on, this disposition is called irrigation; where the ground is flooded beyond cultivation, it is filtration. But filtration is a misnomer. It is not a mechanical process by which the deleterious parts of the sewage are left stranded in the soil, to be disposed of in some mysterious way by the roots of plants. It is a secerning, the abstraction of those constituents by a vital process, preparing them for plant use, and the conversion of harmful waste into harmless remainders. Sewage filtration (for which *transformation* would be a much better name) consists in the discharge at intervals through the soil of liquid sewage. The intermittent feature is necessary to give the beneficent bacteria opportunity for work. The result is an effluent comparing favorably, both to the eye and to chemical tests, with much water that is drunk with relish and without harm. This is applicable to isolated country houses as to towns. In the scientific determination of what may and may not be done with sewage, the Massachusetts Board of Health has rendered, as it does with every subject that it takes up, inestimable service, not merely to that commonwealth, but to the public at large. In utilizing the Board's data and drawing upon his own extended experience, Col. Waring has prepared for the intelligent citizen who is neither a chemist nor an engineer, but who desires to care for his own health and to protect his neighbor, a most serviceable volume.

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*A History of Germany in the Middle Ages.* By Ernest P. Henderson. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 8vo, pp. 437.

It is creditable to American culture that the first attempt to supply the lack in English literature of a history of Germany based on the results of modern research should be made by an American scholar. Mr. Henderson is already known by a volume of 'Select Historical Documents of the Middle Ages,' which shows that he has familiarized himself with the sources of history, and has thus rendered himself competent to weigh with discrimination the results reached in the researches of the great scholars who have been engaged for the last two generations in rewriting the annals of their native land. The present volume, which is the first of three, carries the story down to the close of the great interregnum which followed the extinction of the House of

Hohenstaufen. Comprising a period which extends from the 'Germania' of Tacitus to the rise of the Hapsburgs, in less than 450 pages, the narrative is of course exceedingly condensed, and there is no space for unnecessary detail; a careful selection of the leading events is all that can be expected, and it is enough if the reader is able to follow the complicated movements of so strangely compound a body as the Holy Roman Empire and its entanglements with Italy and the papacy. This Mr. Henderson has succeeded in doing, and we are enabled, among other things, to see clearly how the power of the Holy See was built up on the ruin of Germany by the careful stimulation of its ceaseless civil discords. Occasionally, however, the effort at condensation results in the omission of that which the reader ought to be told. Thus, in the year 899, it is said of Hatto of Mayence that to him, eleven years later, "the German nation was to owe the preservation of its endangered unity"; but we look in vain for an account of this event, and are left to conjecture what it was. So, after the death of Ludwig das Kind, the last Carolingian, we find the throne occupied by Conrad I., but are not told how he got there or that he had been Count or Duke of Franconia. Again, on the death of Henry II. it would have been worth while to state that his successor, Conrad II., was Duke of Franconia and founded the Franconian dynasty, which was to last for a century.

Little omissions of this kind can readily be supplied in another edition, which we trust may speedily be called for, but the most serious drawback to the book is the entire absence of literary form. In a work so compact, graces of style are, of course, scarcely to be looked for, yet it could be written smoothly and attractively, and could be moulded into an organic whole, instead of being, as much of it is, a series of dry, rather disconnected, and interjectional statements of fact. This does not detract from its usefulness to the student, who will find it a valuable résumé of an exceedingly important and interesting section of European history, but it renders it less attractive to the general reader. We trust that Mr. Henderson will complete his task, and that the English-speaking peoples will at length have a compendious history of Germany that can be relied upon as presenting the latest results of scholarly investigation.

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*Theatrical Notes.* By Joseph Knight. London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

*Dramatic Essays.* By Leigh Hunt. Selected and edited, with notes and an introduction, by William Archer and Robert W. Lowe. London: Walter Scott; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

Mr. Knight informs us that the substance of his 'Theatrical Notes' appeared in the pages of the London *Athenæum*. He has in fact here reprinted a running commentary on the chief performances in London since Mr. Henry Irving acted *Hamlet* at the Lyceum Theatre twenty years ago, to the production of the late Lord Tennyson's hopelessly undramatic "Falcon" by Mr. and Mrs. Kendal in 1879. He declares that he has material for a second volume if the present contribution prove acceptable. Useful as books of this type are to the careful student of stage-history, it is hardly to be hoped that a volume like this of Mr. Knight's could ever attract more than a very small number of readers. It has a fatal fault, it is dull—deadly dull. It is valuable as a contemporary record of the impression produced by successive performances on an experienced playgoer who writes soberly and seriously and decorously. But only those—and they must needs be very few—who are really interested in the British stage of twenty years ago can overcome the tedium of turning Mr. Knight's pages. His style is flat and colorless, and is disfigured with French phrases for which it would be easy to find English equivalents.

A volume of Leigh Hunt's dramatic essays has been rescued by the capable hands of Mr. William Archer and Mr. Robert W. Lowe. No doubt Mr. Archer is right when he declares, in his suggestive introduction, that Leigh Hunt "may be reckoned the first English dramatic critic." Hunt seems to have been the earliest newspaper critic of the contemporary acted drama, for the best of Lamb's and of Hazlitt's writing about the stage was retrospective. As Mr. Archer says, "Hunt was probably the first journalist in England who brought real talent and sincerity to the task of theatrical chronicling." He was the theatrical critic of the *News* from May, 1805, to the end of February, 1807, while from January, 1808, until he went to prison in February, 1813, he filled the same office on his own paper, the *Examiner*. Then from September, 1830, to February, 1832, he was the whole staff of the daily *Tatler*. It is from the *News*, the *Examiner*, and the *Tatler* that Mr. Archer and Mr. Lowe have selected the articles which fill this welcome volume. Even at the beginning, Leigh Hunt was confident of himself—not to call him cocksure; he was brisk and lively; he made himself promptly feared and respected, and he loved his work, by which he probably did more good than harm. The first third of this century was a period in England of extraordinary dramatic penury and of equally extraordinary histrionic fertility. The contemporary dramatists were Reynolds and Dibdin and Cherry. The contemporary performers were the Kembles, Cooke, Kean, Dowton, Mathews, Young, Mrs. Jordan. This state of the stage facilitated the labor of the theatrical critic, for it is far easier to estimate the worth of an actor when he is seen in half a dozen old plays with which the critic is already familiar, than it is to judge at the same time both the play and the performer, as the critic must needs do when the play is a novelty. Leigh Hunt had this advantage, but he fell short of the highest level of achievement.

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*A Dictionary of Applied Chemistry.* By T. E. Thorpe, Professor of Chemistry in the Royal College of Science, London, assisted by eminent contributors. In three volumes. Vol. III. Longmans, Green & Co.

This, the concluding volume of the Dictionary, is considerably larger than either of its predecessors, containing 1,058 pages, and thus bringing the total to 2,487. The titles run from Oak-Bark to Zymurgy. In the alphabetical division of the space it is not uninteresting to note that S occupies 408 pages, P 227, T 121, W 100, R but 20, and Y 1. Some of the more important articles are: Oils, Fixed and Fats, 39 pages, by A. H. Allen; Petroleum, 40, by S. P. Sadtler and Boverton Redwood; Photography, 30, by J. M. Thomson; Potassium Salts, 30, by George Lunge; Silver, 17, by E. J. Ball; Sodium Sulphate, Carbonate and Caustic Soda, 68, by George Lunge; Spectrum Analysis, 20, by W. N. Hartley; Starch, 34, and Saccharimetry, 46, by John Heron; Sugar, 22, by J. A. R. and B. E. R. Newlands; Sulphur and Sulphuric Acid, 86, by C. R. A. Wright; Triphenylmethane Coloring Matters, 26, by Otto N. Witt; Vegeto-Alkaloids, 37, by W. R. Dunstan; Water, 56, by P. F. Frankland. There are about 350 well-chosen cuts in illustration of the text; the most fully illustrated subjects being Paraffin, Petroleum, Pyrotechny, Sodium, Spectrum Analysis, Starch, Sugar, Sulphuric Acid, Thermometers, and Thermostats.

Prof. Thorpe and his colaborers are to be congratulated on their achievement. By a well-planned and successfully executed division of labor it has been possible to put the three volumes of the Dictionary in the hands of its readers at the rate of one a year; and while three years is a long time when counted in terms of the rapid progress of applied chemistry, it is short in comparison with the usual slow and belated appearance of the dictionaries and encyclopædias of chemical science. Freshness and timeliness are of very great importance in a work of this sort, and in these volumes they have been achieved as fully as is probably within the reach of human effort. It is difficult in a work of this kind always to draw successfully the line between the pertinent and the impertinent in subject-matter; but, on the whole, it has here been judiciously done. Such subjects, however, as Octyl, to which 5½ pages are given, Solution, 7 pages, and Tetryl, 6 pages, seem hardly in place in a dictionary of applied chemistry; and the more so in this instance as the work is designed as a companion to the revised edition of Watt's 'Dictionary of Chemistry,' in which these and similar subjects receive adequate treatment. One matter to which we referred in our notice of the first volume strikes us again in looking through this, namely, the incomplete performance of the promise made in the preface to the first volume, that special attention would be paid to the bibliography of subjects. While this is beyond reproach in some cases, as, for example, in the article on Photography, in many instances such reference-lists are scanty or altogether absent.

These are, however, slight blemishes. The freshness and authoritativeness of the articles, their succinctness and clearness, are the distinguishing features of the work, and render it invaluable to both chemists and technologists.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Prof. Nathan. A Selection of Authorities on Descent, Wills, and Administration. St. Paul: West Publishing Co.
Appleton, Robert. Elena. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Bech-Meyer, Nico. A Story from Pullmantown. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. 25 cents.
Beers, Prof. H. A. From Chaucer to Tennyson. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent. $1.
Bennet, Prof. C. E. Tacitus's Dialogus de Oratoribus. Boston: Ginn & Co. 80 cents.
Bishop, Mrs. Isabella Bird. Six Months in the Sandwich Islands. New ed. Putnams. $2.25.
Black, William. Highland Cousins. Harpers. $1.75.
Bradoon, M. E. All Along the River. Cassell. 50 cents.
Browne, W. H. Kent's Commentaries on American Law. St. Paul: West Publishing Co.
Brusie, Prof. C. F. Storm's Geschichten aus der Tonne. Boston: Ginn & Co. 65 cents.
Carman, Bliss, and Hovey, Richard. Songs from Vagabondia. Boston: Copeland & Day.
Clark, F. T. On Cloud Mountain. Harpers. $1.
Coman, Prof. Katharine, and Kendall, Prof. Elizabeth. The Growth of the English Nation. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent. $1.
Curzon, G. N. Problems of the Far East. Longmans, Green & Co. $6.
Dean, Mrs. Andrew. Lesser's Daughter. Putnams. 50 cents.
Drake, S. A. The Making of the Ohio Valley States. Scribners. $1.50.
Du Maurier, George. Trilby. Illustrated. Harpers. $1.75.
Ellis, E. S. The Great Cattle Trail. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Harraden, Beatrice. At the Green Dragon. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Hatton, Joseph. Under the Great Seal. Cassell. 50 cents.
Ladd, Prof. G. T. Primer of Psychology. Scribners. $1.
Lives of Twelve Bad Men. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnams. $3.50.
Lord, Prof. Frances E. The Roman Pronunciation of Latin. Boston: Ginn & Co. 40 cents.
Matthews, Brander. Vignettes of Manhattan. Harpers. $1.50.
Meade, Mrs. L. T. The Medicine Lady. Cassell. 50 cents.

Memoirs of Chancellor Pasquier. Vol. III., 1814-1815. Scribners. $2.50.
Metcalf, R. C., and Thomas. English Grammar for Common Schools. American Book Co. 60 cents.
Milne, W. J. Elements of Algebra. American Book Co. 60 cents.
Monk, Thymol. An Altar of Earth. Putnams. $1.
Moureau, Adrien. Les Saint-Aubin. [Les Artistes Célèbres.] Paris: *L'Art*; New York: Macmillan.
Monro, D. B. The Modes of Ancient Greek Music. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Munroe, Kirk. The Fur-Seal's Tooth: A Story of Alaskan Adventure. Harpers. $1.25.
Müller, Prof. F. Max. Three Lectures on the Vedânta Philosophy. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
O'Connor, Miss Mary D. The Life and Letters of M. P. O'Connor. Dempsey & Carroll.
Pierson, Rev. A. T. The New Acts of the Apostles. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.50.
Price, W. T. A Life of Charlotte Cushman. Brentanos. 75 cents.
Price, W. A. A Treatise on the Measurement of Electrical Resistance. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Primer, Prof. Sylvester. Lessing's Nathan der Weise. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.10.
Reeve, J. K. Five Hundred Places to Sell Manuscripts. Franklin, O.: *Chronicle* Press. $1.
Savage, R. H. The Flying Halcyon. F. T. Neely. 50 cents.
Seward, T. F. The School of Life. James Pott & Co. $1.50.
Sheldon. Prof. H. C. History of the Christian Church. 5 vols. T. Y. Crowell & Co.
Shipman, B. J. Handbook of Common-Law Pleading. St. Paul: West Publishing Co.
Shuckburg, E. S. A History of Rome to the Battle of Actium. Macmillan. $1.75.
Stevens, Prof. G. B. The Johannine Theology. Scribners. $2.
Stevens, Thomas. Around the World on a Bicycle. Illustrated. 2 vols. Scribners. $5.
Traill, H. D. Social England. Vol. II. From the Accession of Edward I. to the Death of Henry VII. London: Cassell; New York: Putnams. $3.50.
Van Daell, Prof. A. N. Extraits Choisis des Œuvres de Paul Bourget. Boston: Ginn & Co. 85 cents.
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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 27, 1894.

## The Week.

It pleases Mr. Platt, who has made the nomination of Mr. Morton for the Governorship of New York, and all the Republican leaders and newspapers that are falling into line in support of it, to say that Gov. Flower's withdrawal as a candidate for renomination means that he is unwilling to run against so strong a candidate as Mr. Morton; yet not one of them believes this to be the case. The real reason of Gov. Flower's withdrawal is as well known to them as it is to every other competent observer in the State. He has withdrawn because the nomination of Mr. Morton gives the Democrats a chance of victory. So long as they believed their party to be without such a chance, the Democratic managers were willing that the Governor should run again; but so soon as Morton's nomination was certain, they realized that the outlook had changed so much for the better that, with a strong candidate, they had a chance of saving themselves from defeat. That they have some reason for taking this view cannot be denied. Mr. Morton takes the field simply as Boss Platt's candidate, and if he should be elected, he will go into office as Platt's man. On this point we have only to cite Republican evidence for conclusive proof.

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The Republican platform adopted at Saratoga last week was evidently written by a common scold. It denounces about one thousand facts and tendencies which it observes in the Democratic party, without saying, however, what the Republicans would do or ought to do if they had the power. For example, the Democrats have enacted an income tax. This is declared to be a tax on prosperity, and an inquisitorial measure, authorizing the invasion of counting-rooms and domiciles and the exposure of private business. Naturally we look for some promise or hint that the Republicans will repeal so odious a measure as soon as possible. Nothing of the kind. There is not the remotest suggestion that that tax will be repealed or modified in any way. So, too, with regard to the tariff. About one-half of the platform is engaged in exposing the badness of the new law. The innocent reader might infer that this is to be repealed, or at all events that the duties are to be materially advanced as soon as the Republican party can muster votes enough for the purpose. Here again the platform is silent. There is not even a promise to restore the duties on wool. This omission cannot be the result of oversight. There is a specific charge in the platform that the South has been enabled to secure protection for the chief products of that section while reducing protective duties on the products of the North; but only one Southern product is mentioned, namely, rice. The only other distinctively Southern product which is susceptible of protection is sugar, and here the protection has been reduced one-half — the bounty of two cents being superseded by a tariff of one cent. But if the charge of favoritism to the South were true, we should look for some promise to right the wrong. We find none. All this shows that the Republican party is not going to make McKinleyism an issue in the coming campaign.

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On the silver question the Saratoga Republicans have taken an entirely safe position. "We favor an honest dollar," they say. Nobody can object to that, although some definition of an honest dollar might be desired. "We oppose any effort, whether by the removal of the tax on State-bank issues or the free coinage of silver, to lower our currency standard; and we favor an international agreement which shall result in the use of both gold and silver as a circulating medium." There is no harm in this, and that is saying a good deal when we recall the utterances of ex-Speaker Reed and Senator Lodge and the platforms of some other conventions. "An international agreement which shall result in the use of both gold and silver as a circulating medium" is an extremely indefinite proposition. Both gold and silver are used now as a circulating medium, but silver is not coined *ad libitum* for private persons. Assuming that the convention meant an international agreement for free coinage of both metals, the chance of getting it is about the same as of getting an agreement to stop the movement of the tides. Nevertheless, the resolution is to be distinctly commended.

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The Ohio idea of finance is, that the poor man is entitled to poor money. At all events that is what the Democratic politicians think, and the Republicans, with John Sherman in the lead, are only a few steps behind them as a general rule. This year the Republicans adopted the Reed-Lodge idea of discriminating in our tariff legislation against countries that would not agree to international free coinage of silver. This was just sufficient to impel the Democrats to "go one better," by endorsing free coinage without international action. Of course the latter is much the worse platform of the two. It ought to, and probably will, result in condign punishment at the polls, for which there are other good and sufficient reasons in the conduct of Senator Brice. It is a pity that somebody had not been present to give these sapient delegates a brief history of the attempts made in Ohio to provide poor money for poor men. In 1875 they set out to do this. The poorest kind of money in sight then was greenbacks, silver being still above par. So the Ohio Democrats, with "Old Bill Allen" at their head, after full deliberation and due warning, adopted a platform calling for more greenbacks, the amount to be limited only by "the wants of trade." The wants of trade meant, of course, the wants of anybody and everybody in trade, and that meant unlimited greenbacks. The issue was made upon this basis. The Democrats at that time were in possession of the State Government in all its branches; Allen being Governor and being a candidate for reëlection. The doctrine of poor money for poor men was subjected to examination and discussion on the stump. The result was that "Old Bill Allen" was defeated by Rutherford B. Hayes. This victory caused Hayes to be nominated for President the next year. Allen was never heard of in politics again. The lesson served its purpose for sixteen years. Then the Democratic party had another fit of poor money for poor men, choosing silver this time as the poorest thing within reach. This time again they had possession of the State Government, James E. Campbell being Governor. In 1891 the party put a free-silver plank in its platform, Gov. Campbell having said that he was "willing to chance it." The chances went against him by 21,000 majority, notwithstanding the fact that it was a year of Democratic success in the country at large.

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The Democratic congressional committee at Washington has sent out a list of the documents which it is supplying to the clubs for campaign purposes. Most of them are on the subject of the tariff and are unobjectionable. They represent all shades of opinion on the Democratic side. On the silver question, however, there is only one speech in the list, and that is the worst one that could have been found—that of W. J. Bryan of Nebraska. The Democratic party not being sufficiently pro-silver for Mr. Bryan, he has gone into the Populists' camp and is now seeking an election to the Senate by their votes. It is either a gross blunder or an unjustifiable outrage that such a speech should be the only one sent out as representing Democratic opinion. Something might be said, also, of the fact that the only speech in the list on the anti-

option bill is that of Gen. Wheeler of Alabama, a supporter of that outrageous attack on the common rights of American citizens. The chairman of the committee is Senator Faulkner of West Virginia, but he is not one of the executive committee. The latter is composed of Senators Jones of Arkansas, White, Mitchell of Wisconsin, Smith, and Pasco, and Representatives Pigott, McRae, McAleer, Whiting, Jones, Bynum, Heard, Forman, McMillin, and Wheeler.

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The resolutions passed by the Louisiana sugar-planters, who seceded from the Democratic party the other day, declare that the bounty on sugar in the McKinley tariff was the equivalent of a duty on importation, and was virtually a contract between themselves and the United States running till 1905. This leads to the inquiry what kind of a contract the Government made with the wool-growers and all the other protected interests. Were these contracts running for ever? The year 1905 was written against the sugar bounty not to extend to that date, but to offset and negative the idea that it was to continue longer and become a permanent policy. It was a tacit acknowledgment that bounties, although they are the equivalent of duties, are more transparent humbugs, more easily understood, and therefore more unpopular. This was the reason why a time-limit was put to them. Now the question is a very proper one, Did the transparency and unpopularity of the bounty system have the effect to make it more sacred than all the disguised and hidden bounties in the tariff were? We cannot see that any such consequence followed. Another resolution which these planters adopted "solemnly protests against the continuance of the treaty with Hawaii, by which, under the recently enacted tariff, the producers of sugar of those islands, with the coolie labor, will receive a bounty from the sugar-consumers of the United States of over $6,000,000 per annum." On this point they have our hearty sympathy, but we doubt whether they will win that of the Republican party.

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"Apaism" is the barbarous word invented or adopted by Bishop Spaulding to describe the anti-Catholic organization which is now cutting so considerable a figure in politics in various parts of the country. We shall probably hear a good deal of this society for the next year or two. Chairman Hurd was doubtless right in telling the Ohio Democrats last week that the new secret and proscriptive organization was almost solidly against their party, and that it contributed not a little to McKinley's famous majority of a year ago. Both Neal and McKinley were invited at the time to give their opinion of an oath-bound and secret society, on a religious basis, going into politics. Neal openly condemned it as repugnant to American ideas and political methods, and McKinley—dodged. His dodging won him the A. P. A. votes, and his success in that respect seems to have set the fashion for the Republicans ever since. They dodge open expressions either for or against the A. P. A., but take its votes with a good deal of complacency. They were asked at Saratoga to go on record against it, but smothered the thing in the committee on resolutions. But sooner or later they will have to come out against it. The A. P. A. will not be content to furnish votes to the Republican party without recognition. It stepped in and ran the Republican primaries at Springfield, Mass., the other night, and now it is reported to have defeated Senator Lodge's candidate for Congress in the Lynn district. Such an aggressive organization will not go on as a silent partner of the Republicans. It will demand recognition and alliance, and if rebuffed, as it is sure to be when the pinch comes, it will set up for itself and soon go the way of all its multitudinous Know-Nothing predecessors.

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Mr. William Everett has declined to be a candidate for renomination to Congress from the Seventh Massachusetts District, and the Democratic machine is gratified to get rid of him. He has rendered himself objectionable to the professional politicians of the party by his refusal to make himself a mere dispenser of patronage. He tried to withdraw altogether from connection with the business, and he has done nothing more than, in a very few cases, to act as the medium between his district and the departments, confining his services then strictly to bringing before the appointing power such facts as he knew, and thus letting the people speak for themselves, "remembering always that I was not the representative of a party organization merely, but of an integral district, every citizen of which had an equal claim to have his needs brought before the department which selects official servants." Of course, the professional politicians in any party "have no use for" such a man, and it is a credit to Mr. Everett that the machine was opposed to his renomination. No Democrat can carry the district this year, and its next representative will be a Republican who has no qualms on the subject of patronage.

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In a statement to his constituents Mr. Everett reviews the record of the Democratic House, in which he finds much to commend. Although he could not bring himself to vote for the Gorman tariff bill, he thinks that the President did well not to veto it, as neither the country nor Congress could have borne longer delay, and he believes that "the new act, with all its faults and all the evil influences which shaped it, is a great and real victory over the principle of protection, crowning the persistent efforts of the tariff-reformers for twelve years on the floor of Congress with a substantial victory, the augury of new advances in commercial emancipation." Mr. Everett speaks of his pleasure in supporting "that essentially Democratic measure, the repeal of the Federal Election laws"; says that he "followed without the slightest misgivings President Cleveland's views on foreign affairs"; and commends in the highest terms his action in the riots at Chicago. There were several occasions when he could not follow the leaders of the Democratic party, but Mr. Everett says that he could not find that his independent votes lost him the respect and regard of his party colleagues. He is profoundly convinced that "the ablest men on both sides of the House do injury to their own better judgment and higher ideals, their mutual respect, and their usefulness and reputation among the people at large, by thinking so much of party allegiance and party organization, which they seem to have persuaded themselves are an end instead of a means—often a very cumbrous one." A civil-service reformer before he entered Congress, Mr. Everett will withdraw a more ardent advocate of the merit system, believing, as he does from his observations there, that "the spoils or patronage system of appointment, particularly as exercised through members of Congress, is unjustifiable in principle and mischievous in practice, a hindrance and not a help to the parties which alternately exercise it." It is a misfortune that so good a public servant cannot be retained.

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It is rather absurd to hail as "home rule for cities" the very mild amendment on that subject adopted by the Constitutional Convention at Albany. All that it does is, to give the mayors of the large cities and the mayors and local legislative bodies of the smaller cities power to pass judgment upon special legislation affecting those cities. If the local powers approve, the bills are sent after passage to the Governor for action; if they disapprove, the bills must be passed again by the Legislature by majority vote before being sent to the Governor. It would be extremely difficult to find much "home rule" in this proceeding. The chief advantage of allowing the local authorities to go through the motions of having some power in the premises would be that the delay and publicity attending the performance might call additional attention to the subjects involved, and might in this way secure wiser final ac-

tion. To ask the people of the cities to regard the amendment as the gift of home rule, is to give them very slight credit for intelligence. The real home-rule amendment is that for separate elections.

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While the tariff bill was under consideration, the Chamber of Commerce of Seattle, Wash., passed a series of lugubrious resolutions, protesting against the removal of the duty on lumber, and predicting dire disaster to the lumber interests of "the great State of Washington" if the duty should be removed. As lumber is the most important product of western Washington, and as Seattle is the chief commercial city of the State, this action of a representative commercial body naturally attracted wide attention. But something has gone wrong with the predictions, for we read in the chief McKinleyite newspaper of Seattle that the lumber business is just now in a phenomenally flourishing condition. "More than fifty vessels" are loading for Valparaiso. Orders from China and Australia "have increased 45 or 50 per cent." As a result, the Puget mill at Port Gamble has started "in full blast," and the one at Port Ludlow will soon do likewise. Port Blakely has been running night and day for two weeks. Had such activity come after increased duties, we should have all known to what cause to attribute it; as it is, we can only wonder at the mysterious ways of Providence.

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It is gratifying to observe that the financial disasters lately experienced in the colony of Victoria are having a salutary effect upon the policy of the Government. The high protective duties have failed to yield any increase of revenue, and a strong feeling has arisen in favor of their reduction. As in this country, those who favor this policy do not advocate free trade, but tariff reform, although a free-trade association is in active existence. If all the elements favoring reduced duties can be united, they will make a strong party, and it appears that they are agreed in demanding that the maximum rate of duty shall not exceed 25 per cent. If this low rate makes the Victorian reformers appear to be in advance of those in America, it is to be remembered that they have a stronger case. This country is one of the greatest manufacturing countries of the world, but the population engaged in manufactures in Victoria is but a minute fraction of the whole. The total population is 1,167,000, while those engaged in factories number only 43,192. During the term of office of the present Government it is claimed that 28,000 persons have been settled upon the land, so that it is obvious where the great interests of the colony lie. As Victoria has always been the stronghold of the protectionists, the election will be watched with great interest. The recent triumph of the free-trade party in New South Wales is thought to augur well for the extension of the movement. It may be added that the Victorian Government claims to have retrenched its expenses £1,500,000 within the last two years, though there is still a heavy deficit.

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The question put to the bimetallists by the London *Economist*—Why are there such vast accumulations of gold in the banks?—has drawn forth answers which are very suggestive of weakness of position. One correspondent states that so great and widespread an appreciation of the currency as that which has recently occurred has no parallel except in the "falling era of the Roman Empire," and adds: "Who can say that if there had not then been congestion of wealth in Rome to the detriment of Roman industries, the sword of an invader could have been thrown into Roman scales to outweigh Roman gold?" This has an impressive sound, but it is hardly relevant to the issue. The climax of weakness appears to be reached by the specific explanation which another writer offers of this accumulation of gold in the banks. He maintains that the people who have deposited this gold have done so with the expectation that its appreciation in value would bring them in a profit equal to the interest which they could obtain by investing it. We doubt if a single man has deliberately hoarded gold with any such expectation. It is conceivable that this may have been done at the time of the general demonetization of silver, although we know of no evidence to prove it. But it is not even conceivable that it should be done now, because every one anticipates a period of rising prices. A rise of prices would involve a loss of capital as well as of interest, and even stationary prices would mean loss of interest. The people that hoard gold are not given to such speculations.

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The "Independent Labor Party," got up by Tom Mann, has been displaying so much activity in England lately that it has become a bugbear to the politicians, and is the only thing which now makes the Liberals doubt whether they could win at a general election. It forms an uncertain element in a good many constituencies, and is likely to draw off a certain number of votes from the Liberals. Tom is now laboring hard to make it a Socialist party, and has been boasting a good deal of his success. What he aims at is the reorganization of the whole state on the collectivist principle; that is, "the state" is to own all the land, all the machinery, and all the capital, and to give us all work to do, according to our capacity, and the state would of course consist of the Manns, the Powderlys, the Debses, and the like, with probably a professor or two thrown in. The London *Economist* feels called on to warn the trade unions against falling into Tom Mann's snares and becoming political, as a sure way to waste their strength and bring themselves into insignificance, but the advice will probably not be taken in its entirety. Meddling in politics is very attractive to the workingman, and especially to the leaders of the labor organizations, who do the talking and writing. They are rarely content with the modest rôle of mere negotiators between workingmen and employers. They want to figure in the wider field of statesmanship, and be big men about election time.

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"What will the Duc d'Orléans do?" is a question which the French newspapers are now busily asking, some of them with sympathetic interest, but most of them with an emotion not much stronger than mild curiosity. The duke is a young gentleman who has, so far, manifested himself to the world chiefly by two escapades, one of a public and the other of a private sort. Of the latter, nothing need be said. The former consisted in his melodramatic appearance in Paris, some two or three years ago, when he asserted with loud cries his right as a Frenchman to perform the military service which the country exacts from her sons, and insisted that he should be sent at once to serve with the colors. Instead, he was most unsympathetically sent to jail, where he received many attentions from the best Parisian society. His prison life was largely spent in making himself the delight of his guests, but severer mental labors were not neglected. His table was supplied from one of the great restaurants, and some of the *menus* which he composed at this time show a gastronomic experience and wisdom quite beyond his tender years. After a brief detention the harsh republic sent him—a martyr in will, if not in fact—quietly home to his papa. Two of the great French newspapers—or rather their editors, M. François Magnard of the *Figaro* and M. Arthur Meyer of the *Gaulois*—seem much to admire the young duke. Perhaps fifteen or twenty more or less well-known journalists follow them. But while all these agree in sentiment, there is no agreement in the counsels that they give. So M. Magnard counsels patience and waiting, where his confrère urges confidence and activity. If the duke follows the advice of the *Figaro*, he will undoubtedly find life for some years much more enjoyable than if he decides for action. For nothing is more certain than that he could not reach the second mile-post after he passed the frontier of France as an "actif," before finding himself in a guard-house.

*REORGANIZATION OF THE NAVAL OBSERVATORY.*

IT is gratifying to know that Secretary Herbert has at last listened to the protests of scientific men on the past management of what is in reality, if not in name, the national observatory of the United States. He publicly admits that its administration has not been what it should be, and has taken what doubtless seem to him effective measures of reform. It is significant that these measures are taken only when a system which, at the old observatory, was an abuse, had, at the new one, become such a discredit to the country that something was almost sure to be speedily done by Congress if not by the department. Even if what the astronomers have got as a result of half a century of asking proves to be stone rather than bread, it is something to have it so frankly conceded that their demands were just, and their efforts directed to the promotion of the public interests.

Whether the new measures of organization will result in the desired reform can best be judged by a glance at the evil to be remedied. The old observatory cannot be said to have had any organization. It differed from all other bureaus of the Government, scientific and administrative, in not having any well-defined public functions for the nonperformance of which it could be called to account. The Weather Bureau is officially expected to record and predict the changes of weather; the Coast Survey to engage in geodetic and surveying operations; the Geological Survey to investigate the geological and mineral resources of the public domain and prepare a map of the United States. But the observatory was never formally charged with any duty more important or arduous than the storage, care, and issue of charts, chronometers, and spy-glasses for the naval service. No law or permanent regulation even required it to make or publish astronomical observations. It could never be convicted of inefficiency or neglect of duty, because it had no duty to neglect. The secretary of the navy from time to time ordered naval officers of rank and prominence to duty as superintendent, just as he would send them to command the Brooklyn navy-yard during a tour of shore duty. If during the last twenty years any regard has been paid to possible astronomical qualifications in choosing a superintendent, an examination of the selections made fails to show it. It has been said that the view sometimes controlling the selection was that the less the superintendent knew about the work the better, because the less he would be tempted to "interfere" with the researches of the able professors who composed the astronomical corps. Professors and civilian astronomers were appointed from time to time and ordered to report to the superintendent for duty; the secretary of the navy wisely leaving it to the superintendent to prescribe that duty, because he himself knew nothing of astronomical work. But it could scarcely be said that, for any practical purpose, the superintendent knew any more than he did. If a superintendent felt the need of law and order, the best he could do in any case was to find out what the professor wanted to do, and then order him to do it.

The result of all this was precisely what might have been foreseen. Now and then an able and ambitious astronomer would get into the corps of the observatory and make observations or discoveries which would gain for him a wide personal reputation, and perhaps a high position in the world of science. But the majority soon found by experience that efforts to set the Thames on fire were not conducive either to mental satisfaction or to physical well-being, and wisely refrained from them. The case at the new observatory was worse than at the old one in proportion to the complexity of its machinery. Its condition since it was occupied two or three years ago might be described as one of almost complete paralysis, so far as astronomical activity is concerned.

Secretary Herbert's reform consists in leaving the establishment under a naval head as heretofore, but placing the astronomical instruments and personnel under the complete control of Prof. Harkness, the senior member of the observatory corps, with the title of "director of astronomy." He is to report upon the efficiency of the force, determine its duties, and inspect its work, day and night. The whole scope and character of the work to be done is to be determined by him alone, unaided by board or council, and he is to be entirely responsible for its scientific value.

This confidence in an astronomer is very well so far as it goes, but it leaves a crowd of questions unanswered. What duties are left for the superintendent, who, according to the new plan, is still to be a naval officer? To which authority, the superintendent or the director, is the clerical force to look for orders? Which is the custodian of the correspondence? Who shall control the expenditures and decide upon the contracts for repairs to be entered into? If, as it is to be expected, all these doubtful questions are to be decided in favor of the naval head of the establishment, it is not clear that any real reform has been inaugurated. Formerly it was held that each person in charge of an instrument was responsible for the observations to be made with that instrument. But this was found to amount to nothing, because the person in charge of the instrument had no real power. Now, one person is in charge of four or five of the instruments, with but little more power than he had when in charge of one. There is an instrument-maker attached to the observatory, but the director has no control over him. The director must make reports to the secretary of the navy, and prepare work for publication, but he has no clerk to copy his letters or reports. He will want labor performed, but has no control over the force of laborers.

But if it is finally decided that the astronomical director shall control not only the astronomical work, but everything necessary to that work, then the functions of the naval officer in charge sink into insignificance. The whole work of the establishment is scientific, and if there is any person connected with it whose services are not required for such work, he is a superfluity. An establishment cannot work successfully under two heads. If the naval superintendent is still the managing head, then trying to hold a subordinate responsible for the work is like trying to hold a sailing-master responsible for the course of a vessel when the captain has hold of the helm.

After all the attention given to the subject, the Navy Department seems imbued with the old mistake which alone led to the toleration of the abuses in the past administration of the observatory. This is the notion that the work of the establishment can be divided into two branches, the one administrative and the other scientific; and that it is in some mysterious way very useful to the naval service. The fact is that its essentially naval functions are quite unimportant and could be better performed elsewhere. No ships sail from Washington on their cruises, and it would be better to keep the appliances of navigation at such navy-yards as Brooklyn or Norfolk than at Washington. This is especially true of the chronometers. The practice of sending these instruments several hundred miles overland to be placed on board ships is so detrimental to their performance that we wonder at its having been so long persisted in. The whole naval branch of the observatory could be well housed in very inexpensive quarters at the Brooklyn navy-yard, and a removal to that point would be in the interest of both efficiency and economy. The character of the work, which consists merely in repairing and testing the instruments, would not suffer in the least, while the good name of our national observatory would be redeemed, and its economical administration assured.

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*THE CORPORATION PROBLEM.*

IN the *Political Science Quarterly* for September Prof. J. W. Jenks of Cornell has a well-considered article on such corporations as he calls "capitalistic

monopolies," meaning by that term such companies or Trusts as practically eliminate the chances of competition as well by the large amount of capital required as by the fact that they are natural monopolies. The article in question truthfully says that we should not seek to abolish huge corporations even if we could, for in no other way, so far as we can now see, can the cheapening process in manufacture be continued. The degree of saving in expense possible in the case of a large company differs in different lines of trade; but all those familiar with business conditions as they now are, admit that important economies are thus possible in any department of trade or manufacturing when carefully examined.

The public dread of huge combinations of capital seems to arise from the feeling that the majority of these great companies are getting rich at the expense of the public; in other words, that they are keeping for themselves all the possible profits of the combination. While in a number of cases the profits of these corporations have not been relatively as great as they might have been—inasmuch as there has been something of a division with the consuming public—yet the tables presented in the *Quarterly* show at least that the gradual decrease in the margin of profits has been checked by the combinations. The Standard Oil Company has repeatedly shown in print that the price of oil is much less now than it was before the formation of the Trust. The argument, so far as it goes, is a strong one, and no doubt is one reason for the comparative success of that combination. Yet a comparison of the prices of crude and refined oil for twenty-five years, while showing a marked decline in the difference between the two—that is to say, in the margin of cost and profits—shows also very little reduction in this margin for the last dozen years. During this period there has been a great increase in the value of by-products—an increase great enough to have apparently justified a still lower price for oil, while at the same time yielding an increase of profits to the Trust.

In the same way the diagram of the cost of corn and spirits at Peoria shows a larger difference since the formation of the whiskey monopoly than before, and the diagram for the sugar monopoly shows a slightly higher margin of difference after than before the formation of the Sugar Trust. No doubt some of the old sugar refineries previous to the Trust were run without profit, and from their point of view an advance in the price of the refined article was justified; yet we must remember that this was true only of those refineries which were badly situated, or had neglected to provide themselves with the most modern machinery. Then, too, the cost of manufacture has been materially lessened through the ability of the combined company to control the market for the raw material and to lessen the expense of distribution. On the whole, after making every allowance for the fair profit to which these huge combinations may be entitled, there is yet no reason to doubt that they have kept for themselves by far the largest share of the profits which the economies of the combination permitted.

Prof. Jenks presents fairly the general case of the corporations. In his opinion, for example, "it is doubtful if in the long run and on the whole our so-called robber barons of the monopolies are much harder on their competitors than is the system of free competition—and this from the standpoint either of the competitors or of society at large." The main indictment, then, against the huge combination is in brief as follows: that the extra profits arising out of economies possible under the corporation form are not divided between the corporation and the consuming public—to say nothing of the employees—but are kept by the combinations to a greater degree than is consistent with economic justice. The state which gave these combinations their opportunity may rightly control them. But to what extent is such control advisable? Putting aside the socialistic programme as quite inexpedient, the article makes two suggestions: first, the state should recognize the right of combination to an unlimited extent as necessary for the lowest cost of production; and, second, the public must, in the interest of both consumers and investors, know the nature and general business condition of the monopolistic organizations. Prof. Jenks, further, suggests an inspector or a commission which shall have power to get sworn returns, inspect accounts, etc., as in the case of national banks.

Practically these recommendations look no further at present than the enforcement of publicity, and it must be confessed that we do certainly need more information about the business and profits of these combinations if they are to be justly and fairly regulated in the future. A number of difficulties at once suggest themselves, supposing this programme to be agreed upon. Which industries should be subject to these examinations, and which not? Should these investigations go so far as to reveal business secrets now so carefully guarded? Another difficulty would lie in the fact that such investigations would have to be conducted by the States themselves. There is so much jealousy already existing between the States regarding the domicile of corporations as to make it doubtful whether any one of them —New Jersey for illustration—would be willing to take the initiative and so possibly check the rush of incorporators to Trenton. Still, from an abstract point of view, there is no reason why the sugar, oil, lead, or whiskey combinations should not be required to file complete statistics of operation as well as railroads, or banks, or insurance companies. Commercial causes may be relied upon to keep down the profits of combinations to a certain extent—such, for example, as the competition of foreign refined sugar with the domestic article when the protective duty is abolished; yet if we look the civilized world over, it seems probable that the question of the intrinsic fairness of the dealings of corporations with the consuming public will one day have to be met. Indeed, it may easily be that in time these organizations would themselves welcome a fair degree of publicity as a protection against extreme legislation.

While, therefore, there is at present no cut-and-dried remedy for the abuses possible in a state or society where huge combinations furnish the greater part of the necessaries of life, yet a discussion of the problem which comes to no definite conclusion, but merely looks toward fuller information, is not to be condemned, since a better understanding may at least avert rough or crude attempts at solution.

## *PROGRESS AMONG THE PROTECTIONISTS.*

In an article entitled 'Value of Labor Statistics,' the *American Wool and Cotton Reporter* is led to make some remarks to manufacturers which, in view of their source, have great significance. It expresses its approval of the practice of comparing the yearly earnings of working people in manufactures in this country with those prevailing in similar occupations in countries which may be regarded as competitors. Such a practice, it maintains, is at least more useful than that of setting against one another daily or weekly schedules of wages; but, after all, it confesses, the most instructive facts concerning the comparative remuneration of laborers "can never be deduced from, or even discovered in, the most comprehensive and most carefully prepared statistical tables yet in vogue."

There are two elements in determining comparative earnings which are of vital importance, but which, from the complexity of the circumstances, can hardly be considered in any general statistical tables. One is the efficiency of labor in different countries and in different branches of industry; the other is the "average standard of intelligence," the habits of workmen in the general ordering of their lives, as to saving, education, ownership of homes, etc. As to the former element, the *Wool and Cotton Reporter* brings forward the case of carders of cotton, asserting it as a well-known fact that in an American mill using the English carding-machine, working the same stock for making the same num-

bers of yarn, our carders will produce in the same time 30 per cent. more carding than is produced in an English mill under like conditions. As to the second point, the *Reporter* observes that to appreciate its significance it is only necessary to compare the status of workmen in one locality with that of workmen similarly engaged elsewhere in the same industry and in the same region, perhaps only a few miles away. The greatest differences will be found to exist in their modes of living, their general intelligence, and their thrift.

"Now," the *Reporter* continues, "the ultimate purpose of the employment of the alleged facts in such comparative tables is to use them as data for reasoning to a conclusion that one of the two sets of operatives similarly employed is existing and developing under much more favorable conditions, or under much less favorable circumstances, as the case may be, because of the politico-commercial system that may be in vogue in the one geographical locality or the other. Now we desire to say that, for the most part, generalization upon such facts as these tables assume to give concerning two or more theoretically similar groups of manufacturing operatives differently located will be hazardous, because of the palpable insufficiency of data."

We are glad to see such sensible observations as these in a journal circulating among protected manufacturers; for the bearing of these facts upon the arguments for protective duties which are most in vogue among these people is obvious. They have all been brought up to believe that they could not compete with European manufacturers because American laborers had to be paid much higher wages than those of any other country. In order to bolster themselves up in this superstition, they have called in the assistance of the Government to furnish them with just such worthless statistics as are above described. Many of them, we doubt not, sincerely accept these statistics as conclusively showing that without a protective duty nobody could profitably make anything in this country; and if the statistics proved anything, they ought to prove what they were constructed to prove. But, for the reasons now laid before our manufacturers by their own organ, such tables of wages are useless. It would be easy to prove by them that the English cotton manufacturers could not compete with those of India, because the latter pay their workmen only a fifth or a tenth of the English wages, and that therefore England needed protection against Indian goods. As a matter of fact, the English manufacturers beat those of India, except in coarse cloths, at their own doors, and the Indian manufacturers are now whining because Parliament will not let the Indian Government adopt a protective tariff.

Nothing can be more wholesome for our manufacturers than to be told by a voice which they will regard as friendly that it is time for them to discard their stock argument. The sooner they emerge from their traditional state of apprehension of the competition of "European pauper labor," the quicker will they begin the magnificent commercial career upon which the incomparable advantages of this country invite them to enter. Heretofore, they have blindly turned their backs upon the markets of the world, and tried to build a wall about this country which should allow goods to pass out while preventing them from coming in.

## *NAVY SCARES.*

LORD FARRER, whose reputation as a financier is well known, has an article in the last *Contemporary Review* on Sir William Harcourt's budget, which touches incidentally on one of its most important features. As is already well known, Sir William is the first Chancellor of the Exchequer who has had the courage to attempt to infuse order into the financial chaos known in England as the succession or "death" duties. Suffice it to say, without going into details, that although these duties are very heavy, landed property has hitherto almost wholly escaped them, in part owing to the general practice of transmitting estates by "settlement," either at the time of a man's marriage, or on his eldest son's coming of age.

The point in Lord Farrer's article, however, to which we call attention is not so much financial as moral. He shows that what has put Sir William Harcourt to his wits' ends and compelled him to find new sources of revenue is the call for a larger navy, which the ministry dared not resist, but which entailed an addition to the estimates of over $15,000,000. It is the need of finding this sum somewhere without increasing the existing burdens of the poorer classes, which drove him to taking up the succession duties. Now, the call for more army and navy almost always comes from the upper classes. It is they who are most concerned about the security of the Empire, and who are, or profess to be, most afraid of the French and the Germans and the Russians. They have stopped calling for a larger army, because voluntary enlistment has apparently reached its last limits, and, if the army is further increased, it must apparently be through conscription, which no party is bold enough to propose. But there is apparently no limit whatever to the size which they think the British navy ought to have. Some years ago they were content if it were larger than the French navy, France being then the only maritime power of importance. But of late Germany and Russia have both begun to have considerable navies, and, if our fighting men have their way, we shall soon have a large navy also. Consequently the promoters of navy scares now maintain that Great Britain must have a navy equal to any other two navies, and of late they have even begun to talk of three navies. Sir William has therefore taken them at their word. Great Britain is to be a match for any two maritime powers, but the money is to come out of the pockets of the heirs to the landed estates—that is, the men who want the increase of the navy are to pay for it. As Lord Farrer says, "The classes who call for increased naval and military expenditure have had an excellent object-lesson. They have been taught that those who call the tune must pay the piper."

Lord Farrer points out that the sole result of the last "naval scare" was that other powers increased their navies as fast as Great Britain increased hers, and this will undoubtedly be the result of the present scare also. But he predicts, with a good deal of force, that if the upper classes are to pay for it, there will not be another for a long time. There may be behind these scares a certain amount of real anxiety about the security of the empire, but their main motive is undoubtedly, as with us, simple national vanity—the desire to display great strength in foreign eyes and to be able to "lick" somebody. There is not the shadow of danger to our soil from any quarter, and yet we have every year a cry for a bigger navy, in order to impress the imaginations of foreigners and make them "stand around." A recent naval writer in one of our magazines, in picturing the future of a great American navy, makes the cutting out of ships condemned in foreign ports for a violation of the customs regulations one of its duties. Then there is in England, besides this, an immense pressure from the upper and upper middle classes in favor of anything which will find occupation for their younger sons, who are now very hard pushed for employment, and for whom the navy has always been a favorite field. But they have never before had to put their hands into the pockets of the eldest sons in order to pay for the ships, and the probabilities are that, if the expenses of large armaments are to be met by a class tax, it will greatly abate the warlike spirit.

The truth is, that the naval and military craze of modern nations has now reached such a point that increased security must be sought in diminution of armaments. Powers, instead of watching each other and following each other up the scale of expense, must enter into negotiations for some fixed proportion between their navies, so that when a naval scare breaks out it will take the form of a demand for reduction. The notion that the only remedy for the

present situation is a general war is ridiculous, because every war adds to the reasons for going to war again. Territory or prestige is lost which must be recovered, or a national thirst for revenge is created which must be slaked.

## THE REPORT OF THE IRISH LAND-ACTS COMMITTEE.

DUBLIN, September 4, 1894.

THE Parliamentary session now concluded has been singularly disappointing in legislation relating to Ireland. The report of the Irish Land-Acts Committee, however, redeems it in no small measure. It is the contention of the majority of Irishmen that, under existing conditions, ameliorative measures, even when passed for their country, are in their administration cramped in their application, or shorn of benefits intended to have been conferred by them. "Raw and unboiled justice," the letter of the law, is not all-sufficient for the needs of a people.

Landlord opinion, until a recent period, held Ireland, as it were, in a vise. The country had to be brought almost to the verge of insurrection before the acts of 1870, 1881, and 1887 could be passed. In England, where a smaller proportion of the population depended upon the land for sustenance, and where the necessities of the agricultural classes were not so pressing, the untrammelled force of public opinion has, without material suffering or disturbance, and without any alteration in the law, effected more than has been effected in Ireland by all that has passed of late years. One of the ablest and bitterest of Irish Unionists writes in the August number of the *National Review:*

"Since the passing of the Land Act of 1881, 294,054 rents have been fixed by the courts [in Ireland]. The old rental of these farms was £6,140,602 16s. 6d.; the revised or judicial rental is £4,861,127 15s. 2d.—a reduction of 20.8 per cent. Now, I ask any one acquainted with British agriculture to take this solid fact and compare it with what he knows has taken place in England and Scotland. I am perfectly within the mark when I say that British landlords within the same period have lost 40 per cent. of their rental. They also create and maintain the plant of the farm. The Irish landlord does nothing in this way. He simply draws a rent from the land."

The Land-Acts Committee was constituted last April upon a minute of reference, "To inquire into and report upon the principles and practice of the Irish Land Commissioners and county court judges in carrying out the fair-rent and free-sale provisions of the land acts of 1870, 1881, and 1887," etc. It was composed of five Irish nationalists and four British Liberals; of five Irish and three English Unionists. Mr. Morley was the chairman. It held thirty-five meetings, examined a number of individual and official witnesses, and has reported upon the first portion of its reference; the Unionist members, with the exception of one, having retired under protest.

The clear intentions of the act of 1881 are found to have been neutralized or circumscribed to a considerable extent by the decisions of the Irish courts and by methods of administration. Section 8 of the act appeared clear enough:

"No rent shall be allowed or made payable in any proceedings under this act in respect of improvements made by the tenant or his predecessors in title, and for which, in the opinion of the court, the tenant or his predecessors in title shall not have been paid or otherwise compensated by the landlord or his predecessors in title."

The application of this clause was altered from its evident intention in consequence of a judgment by the court of appeal in the case of Adams vs. Dunseath. If a tenant held one hundred acres of land at five shillings an acre, and by the expenditure of £100 (say in drainage, working, or the diversion of a stream) doubled the value of the holding, he would, in consequence of this decision, become entitled only to the interest on his expenditure (£100 at 5 per cent., say £5), while he should pay an increased rent of £20 to the landlord, who had never raised a finger or expended a penny in the business. This decision has dominated all transactions in relation to the administration of the acts. It appears all the more extraordinary when we consider the conditions of debate and procedure under which section 8 came to be placed upon the statute-book. When the bill went up to the Lords, the words "no rent shall be made payable under this act in respect of improvements made by the tenant or his predecessors in title" were struck out. A limitation, based upon the act of 1870, exactly corresponding to what in Adams vs. Dunseath was afterward declared to be the law, was rejected, on coming back to the House, by a majority of 134. Sir Stafford Northcote, the leader of the Opposition, proposed a further modification as to "enjoyment," which was rejected by a majority of 130—Mr. Gladstone using the following language:

"The doctrine accepted at the time of the Land Act of 1870, and which he certainly declined to accept the night before, was the doctrine that the enjoyment by the tenant for a certain time of his own improvements might have reimbursed him for the cost of these improvements, and by a natural process they passed over to the landlord. But that was not the bas s on which they proceeded now, and there was no occasion for it. The tenant's improvements were the tenant's own property, and he would not admit the principle that the time during which he had enjoyed those improvements was any reason for their passing away from him."

On the previous day Mr. Gladstone had made this declaration:

"In the act of 1870 we did, in respect to the tenant, recognize the principle that he might be compensated by a reasonable lapse of time in respect of improvements he had made, and that the use and profit of these improvements for a certain time might be considered as compensation; but we do not recognize that principle in the present act. None of the enactments of the present bill are founded on that principle. . . . It is much better, I think, that those who make improvements should have the whole benefit of the improvements."

When the bill was again sent back to the upper house, the Lords inserted the words as to enjoyment proposed by Sir Stafford Northcote. The House of Commons again rejected them, this time by a majority of 128. The word "otherwise" was then inserted before "compensated," and the Lords subsequently agreed to the clause in the shape in which it now stands. We do not wonder that the committee should report:

"It cannot, therefore, be matter for surprise that the Irish tenantry should seek to secure that property in their improvements which Parliament unquestionably intended to declare to be their right. Even if the records of the two houses did not so unmistakably show the intentions of the Legislature, it is plain that it cannot equitably be argued that because certain improvements do not fulfil the technical legal conditions to entitle a tenant, on quitting his holding, to be compensated for them under the act of 1870, the landlord is entitled to charge rent on them to the sitting tenant under the act of 1881 as if the landlord had made them or had paid for them out of his own pocket. Yet the law has been administered on this principle for thirteen years, and about 300,000 rents have been fixed, subsequent to the decision in Adams vs. Dunseath, which was delivered on February 28, 1882, six months after the passing of the act."

The land commissioners, however, went further even than the Court of Appeal. The latter, in giving judgment, especially declared that the tenant would be entitled not alone to his interest on his outlay, but to a proportion of the increased value attributable to his legal interest in the holding. Will it be believed that the land commissioners and land courts, while accepting as binding upon them the portion of the decision that limited the tenant's interest, set at naught the clause under which they were entitled to grant him a share of the increased value? The Court of Appeal gave its decision twelve years ago. From its empyrean height it has ever since until now (when one of its members was brought face to face with the present committee) calmly watched its judgment in the interest of the tenants set at naught. Would it have taken no means to draw the attention of the minor courts to their decision if they had neglected to apply that portion of their judgment which ran in the interest of the landlords? Little wonder that the committee express "extreme surprise" at the discovery of this state of the administration of the law.

"As to the interest of the tenant, which, according to the Court of Appeal, entitles him to a further share in the value of his improvements beyond the mere interest on his outlay, the evidence of these witnesses is plainly to the effect that what they understand by the interest of the tenant is simply a right to the percentage on his outlay upon improvements. This conclusion is confirmed by their testimony that they fix a fair rent to be paid by the present tenant at what a solvent tenant desiring to become a tenant of the holding could fairly pay from year to year. That is to say, they fix the rent at what might be paid by a person having no interest in the holding, and take no account in measuring the fair rent of the present tenant's statutory interest."

Thus, whether intentionally or otherwise, the Court of Appeal frustrated the intentions of Parliament, the land commissioners narrowed their judgment, and between the two the interests of the tenant have been neglected.

The committee further comes to the conclusion that the "rents fixed by the courts between 1881 and 1885 have been, since 1886, and are at the present time, materially excessive." The law costs are shown to be burdensome in the highest degree—in ordinary cases eating up fully one year's gain of all reductions effected, and in the instance of 21,847 rehearings and appeals resulting in an alteration of but £2,383 in a rental of £467,141, costing the parties at least the enormous sum of £250,000.

The Ulster tenant is still shown to enjoy material advantages over his fellows in other parts of Ireland. There, where free sale prevails, to the general exclusion of the landlord's right of preëmption, the average price of tenancies is shown to be 16.8 years' purchase, while in Leinster it is only 6.1 years' purchase, in Connaught 10.2, and in Munster 10.

Lawyers and the courts have so refined respecting "grass-lands," "town-parks," "demesnes," and "subletting," all of which are excluded from the benefits of the acts, that the Irish landowners are considerably bewildered and attorneys-at-law reap a rich harvest. The committee refer to the "microscopic nicety of judicial interpretation." Populations here of 800 or 600, then again of but 500 or even 360, are declared to constitute a town. The case of pasture holdings presented unexpected features. "If let to be used wholly or mainly for

pasture, exclusion takes place unless the tenant resides on the holding, or uses it with the holding on which he resides; but all pasture lettings are excluded, irrespective of residence, if the land is valued at or over £50." A tenant is excluded who by subletting is not technically in occupation at the date of serving the notice to fix a fair rent. "The construction of the exceptions, raising a number of intricate questions as to whether assent or acquiescence [on the part of the landlord] is consent, what constitutes 'triviality,' and so forth, has, in the opinion of your committee, operated harshly and excluded large numbers of tenants from the benefits of fair rent and security of tenure."

Legislation further securing to Irish tenants the benefits of their improvements, and clearing up legal technicalities, is declared necessary. It is recommended that the "judicial term" should be reduced from fifteen to ten years. The codification of the land laws is suggested, "in such language, form, and manner that the landlords and tenants in Ireland (or at least such of them as are reasonably educated) should, like the inhabitants of Continental Europe and America, be able, without professional assistance, to discover their respective rights and duties."

The revelations in this report are not likely in Ireland to conduce to increased confidence in the law, to steady progress and improvement, and to the quieting down of agitation. The country does not, however, appear to me in a mood, even considering the rejection of the Evicted Tenants' bill by the Lords, to enter upon a course of violent agitation such as supervened thirteen years ago, when the Compensation for Disturbance bill was thrown out by the same chamber. Nevertheless, apart from the question of home rule, there is less chance than ever of "the Irish sphinx gathering up her rags and departing" from Westminster. Government of a country through reliance upon the public opinion of its inhabitants is often discouraging, but the case of Ireland proves that at the worst it acts like the dew of heaven, compared to the hopeless, complicated, creaking combination of shifts and expedients that must be resorted to in the effort to rule satisfactorily without it.

D. B.

## WOMEN STUDENTS AND WOMEN TEACHERS IN GERMANY.

BREMEN, September 3, 1894.

THE preparation of women for, rather than their admission to, the universities is at present the paramount question with all Germans who advocate the higher education of the sex. The universities have all along intrenched themselves in their refusal to admit women or to grant them degrees behind the fact that, having no gymnasia, women could not properly prepare for university study. This argument, the faculties' chief bulwark of defence, is now being met and undermined by the establishment of such gymnasia or classical preparatory schools. Three such schools are now well under way at Carlsruhe, Berlin, and Leipzig, respectively, and associations for the foundation of similar institutions are formed, or are forming, in other cities; that in Munich, the Verein zur Gründung eines Frauengymnasiums, counting among its most active members several of the university professors. The stress laid upon these preparatory schools by the universities is sufficient proof of their importance, and it is not too much to say that their inception marks an epoch in the education of women, for the opening of the universities must inevitably follow. Indeed, the executive committee of the Berlin Vereinigung zur Veranstaltung von Gymnasialkursen für Frauen (*Frauengymnasien*), whose chairman, Prince Heinrich zu Schoenaich-Carolath, is a member of the Reichstag, announces boldly that it can confidently assure graduates from such gymnasia of their admission to the philosophical and medical faculties of Prussian universities. The attitude of the universities is in truth less rigidly oppositional than at any previous time. The writer has succeeded in collecting some official proofs in support of this statement.

The new gymnasia owe their existence to associations, of women chiefly, though in every case men have been found who favored the project and were ready to help in the work. Carlsruhe was first in the field, its Mädchengymnasium, which was founded by the Verein Frauenbildung-Reform, having been opened with a small class in September, 1893. The course is for six years, the first year being preparatory, the other five covering the ground of the boys' gymnasium. Girls twelve years old and upwards may enter.

Berlin followed next, its Gymnasialkurse für Frauen, instituted by the local Verein already mentioned, opening in October, 1893, with a class of fourteen. The course here is much shorter—three to four years—and entering pupils must have reached their sixteenth, and are advised to wait till their eighteenth, year. They must, moreover, have graduated from a girls' high school, or pass an examination equivalent to the finals in such a one.

The Leipzig gymnasium, whose principal (*Direktorin*) is Fräulein Winscheid, who took her degree of Doctor of Philosophy at Heidelberg University, was founded by the Allgemeiner Deutscher Frauenverein, and began its work in April of this year with eleven students. The course is for four years, and pupils must have attained their sixteenth year.

These beginnings are all more or less experimental, and as to numbers small; but this must not be taken as the measure of the demand that has made them or as indicative of ultimate results. The price of this higher-grade instruction—at Carlsruhe 200, at Berlin 250, and at Leipzig 240 marks per annum—is necessarily comparatively high. Out-of-town pupils must, moreover, pay for board, which brings the costs up to 1,200 to 2,000 marks a year. Forty dollars to $62, or $300 to $500, for such a purpose seems, indeed, to American ideas reasonable enough, but here in Germany values are different, and, too, custom has begot the habit of mind in those who pay, of regarding the girl's education as too unimportant to be paid for at the same rates as is the boy's. In the Landes-Ausschuss of the Reichslande recently, the sum of 1,600,000 marks was proposed and voted for boys' schools without debate, but when the next day the sum of 64,000 marks was proposed for girls' schools, there was fierce opposition, and the measure was not passed till the modest amount was diminished by 4,000 marks; a result which led State Secretary von Puttkamer to say that this evident tendency to restrict the education of women filled him with alarm, for that already in no civilized land was so little done for the education of women as in Germany. Such tendencies, and the greater requirements of the gymnasia themselves, the advanced and (for the German girl) new course of study, added to the fact that they carry her on through the years sixteen to twenty, when, according to all preconceived ideas here, she should be married or at least "finished," are other elements that for some time will keep the attendance in those gymnasia limited to the few who *must* or *will* prepare themselves for higher intellectual work.

In all these schools the plan of study is modelled more or less on the regular boys' gymnasia. Greek, Latin, mathematics, German, English, French, philosophy, and the natural sciences—zoölogy and physics, or botany, or both—are taught. When the course is shortened, as at Leipzig and Berlin, from six to four or three years, the requirements for admission are greater. These gymnasia are, moreover, so far officially recognized as to have received from the respective educational authorities in whose domains they lie permission to exist; and there is little doubt that their graduates will be admitted by the same authorities to the *staatliche Maturitätsprüfung*, which tests the fitness of students to pursue their studies in the universities.

The universities stand at present on this subject of admitting women as follows: At Berlin no woman may study anything under any conditions whatever. "Negotiations to this effect [*i. e.*, the admission of women] are going on now," writes the secretary, "as they have been for years; but a favorable result, that is to say, for the women, is not likely to be reached very soon." The tone of the replies that the writer has received from the secretaries of the universities mentioned, the degree of politeness, and the form thereof, are so amusingly reflective of the attitude of their respective institutions to the question at issue, that it is a great pity lack of space prevents the quotation of them in full.

At Göttingen, women who can present a *written* certificate of fitness from a university teacher are admitted as *Zuhörerinnen* to any lectures for which they obtain the consent of the professor who delivers them. "However," adds the secretary, "a further improvement in these conditions is expected in the near future." He also adds, what is more important still: "After due attendance on lectures, admission to the doctor examination in general will not be difficult." This, as will be seen, is the most liberal condition of things obtaining at any German university.*

At Heidelberg, women may attend lectures in the scientific-mathematical faculty, but only as *Zuhörerinnen* and by permission of the professors concerned. They may also take the doctor's degree in this faculty, and, in special instances, in the philosophical faculty too; the condition in both cases being that the course of study leading up to the degree must be pursued at Heidelberg. The permission to attend confers no *right* to do so, however, and it may be withdrawn arbitrarily and at any time. The *Zuhörerin* has no rights.

At Leipzig, as heretofore, women may attend by permission many of the courses of lectures, but they may not take a degree, and they are in no case recognized as members of the university. The situation here is, in short, what it has been for many years.

At Jena similar conditions prevail, only here the required permission is still more difficult to obtain, application having to be made first, through the university *Curatel*, to the grand-ducal patron of the institution, and after that, in second instance, to the professor himself.

At Freiburg, women may attend as guests, *Hospitantinnen* (which is only another word for *Zuhörerinnen*), the lectures in the philosophical and *medical* faculties. This latter

*The writer has since learned that a woman is about to take the doctor examination at this university.

fact is especially noteworthy, for this university would seem to be the only one where women are admitted, unless very exceptionally, to the medical lectures.

Now it is the right to study medicine and to take the medical degree that, next after admission to the courses in philosophy, is most ardently desired and striven for by the women who are endeavoring to open the universities' closed doors. Indeed, so far their ambition does not seem to venture beyond the conquest of these two faculties. So urgent have their appeals become, however, within these lines, that the Hessian Landstände and the imperial Reichstag have had debates on the subject, and the Prussian Cultusministerium has asked the opinion of the various faculties as to the admission of women to the universities, *especially* to the medical lectures. The result of this inquiry has not been made public, but it probably was adverse, for the personal factor influences the opinion even of a German university professor, and the competition here in the learned professions is so great already that to increase it by admitting women to a share in it is the last thing the majority of those concerned will willingly consent to. Indeed, one such German remarked once frankly to the writer, that it was not a question of the right of women to, or their capacity for, higher study; it was a question of the struggle for existence, which was hard enough already without the admission to it of the rivalry of a whole sex. And this is undoubtedly the kernel of the whole contest here.

However, in spite of all opposition, the improvement in the position of German women, both as educated and as educators, has really set in, and the prospect is more encouraging for them than at any previous time. The new regulations as to girls' schools and the training and testing of women teachers (*Bestimmungen über das Mädchenschulwesen, die Lehrerinnenbildung und Lehrerinnenprüfungen von* 31 *Mai*, 1894) lately made public by the Prussian Cultusminister show that the educational authorities are at last aroused to the necessity of a change in this department of their charge. It is the Girls' High Schools (*Höhere Mädchenschule*) and the women teachers in them that are to profit by the new regulations. Heretofore the higher classes in these schools have been exclusively in the hands of men—women teachers, like women students, have been relegated to second place or to no place at all. None of the prizes of their profession have been open to them, even in the instruction of their own sex. In subordinate positions always, always proportionately underpaid, women teachers have had to contend with the hard and largely thankless task of breaking ground with the rudiments, for the more fortunate male teacher to sow the seed. Now, however, one at least of the three upper classes in the girls' high schools is to be in the charge of a woman teacher; and where the principal is a man—which is generally the case—he is to have a woman as associate principal beside him. Women teachers are also to be employed more generally throughout all the classes. Along with these larger opportunities thus opened to them are greater requirements from them. Women teachers wishing to attain these higher positions must pass a more rigid, more extensive, and more scientific examination, the conditions of which are given in the pamphlet cited above.

This advance in their status as teachers is as important in its way for the women of Germany as is the opening of the girls' gymnasia. In these schools, too, the teaching is at present almost exclusively done by men. Latin, Greek, mathematics, and the sciences are still a masculine monopoly. But with the graduation of the first class from one of these new institutions, this will have ceased to be, and the German woman will be armed at last with what by their own confession the universities must accept as the open sesame to their doors.

J. B. S.

# Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons' fall announcements embrace Mr. John Codman Ropes's 'Story of the Civil War, 1861–65,' in three parts, with maps and battle-plans; 'The Southern States of the American Union, considered in their relations to the Constitution of the United States and to the resulting Union,' by J. L. M. Curry; 'American Songs,' a collection of representative poems, with analytical and critical studies of their writers, edited by A. B. Simonds; continuations of Conway's edition of Paine's writings, of Ford's edition of Jefferson's, and of King's of Rufus King's; the third volume of Theodore Roosevelt's 'Winning of the West,' 1784–1790, the founding of the trans-Allegheny commonwealths; the third of Traill's 'Social England'; 'Prince Henry the Navigator,' by C. R. Beazley; 'The Egyptian Book of the Dead,' edited by Charles H. S. Davis, M.D., with a complete translation and numerous illustrations from the papyri; 'Rhythm and Harmony in Poetry and Music,' by George L. Raymond; and sumptuous holiday editions of Irving's 'Sketch-Book,' Walpole's 'Memoirs of the Reign of George III.,' and De Amicis's 'Holland and Its People' and 'Spain and the Spaniards.'

Dodd, Mead & Co. will reprint Mrs. Trollope's 'Domestic Manners of the Americans,' in two volumes, from the first edition of 1832, with twenty-four illustrations from contemporary drawings. They will also publish 'The Empress Eugénie,' the first volume in Pierre de Lano's 'Secret of an Empire.'

Dr. Birkbeck Hill's essay on Harvard College, which has grown into a book, will appear through Macmillan in the course of another month or two.

Hunt & Eaton have in preparation 'Travels in Three Continents,' by the Rev. J. M. Buckley.

D. Appleton & Co. have nearly ready 'City Government in the United States,' by Alfred R. Conkling. Other fall publications of this house will be G. Maspero's 'Dawn of Civilization'; Lombroso's 'Criminal Woman'; Ferri's 'Criminal Sociology'; Max Nordau's 'Degeneracy'; Quatrefages's 'The Pygmies'; 'The Warfare of Science,' by Andrew D. White; 'Discourses,' by Prof. Huxley, who also furnishes an introduction to a 'Life of Sir Richard Owen'; 'Education of the Greek People,' by Thomas Davidson; 'Evolution of the Public School System in Massachusetts'; the fourth volume of Prof. McMaster's 'History of the People of the United States,' and the second of Maclay's 'History of the United States Navy'; 'General Hancock,' by Gen. Francis A. Walker; 'Our Presidents,' an illustrated work of which John Fiske, Carl Schurz, W. W. Phelps, and others furnish the text; and 'Schools and Masters of Sculpture,' by Miss A. G. Radcliffe, likewise illustrated.

The Leipzig publisher F. A. Brockhaus announces an 'Allgemeine Geschichte der Philosophie mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der Religion,' by Dr. Paul Deussen, professor in the University of Kiel and author of various studies of the 'Vedanta.' The work will be issued in two volumes, of which the first will treat of "East Asiatic Philosophy," including Indian, Chinese, and Japanese systems of thought, and the second will comprise the speculations of Greece, Egypt, Persia, Judea, Alexandria, mediæval and modern Europe, and be entitled "West Asiatic and European Philosophy."

'Die Huldar Saga,' by Konrad Maurer, a reprint from the Proceedings of the Bavarian Academy of Sciences, is an admirable and exhaustive study of one of the latest and perhaps least important of the Icelandic sagas. Prof. Maurer's researches as to the origin, age, and value of this apocryphal work lead to some interesting observations on the peculiar literary condition of Iceland at the present day, as manifested in the still vigorous vitality and often too exuberant growth of the saga.

The Icelandic *Althing*, by the way, has under consideration a bill which, if adopted, will give to Iceland her first railway. The enterprise, which is under the direction of an English syndicate, contemplates a line from Reykjavik, to extend about fifty miles. Trains are to be run six times a week during the summer months, and during the winter at as regular intervals as the weather permits. In return for this service the Government is asked for an annual subsidy of 50,000 kroner (say $14,000) for a period of thirty years. The same company offers to furnish regular steamship service between England and Reykjavik throughout the year. Heretofore Iceland has been practically cut off from the outer world for six months each year.

'Poor's Manual of Railroads' for 1894 responds to the current demand for full statistics of investment properties, and contains numerous valuable additions to its usual list of corporations. Its statistics of street and electric railway companies, introduced this year for the first time, are in many respects the most complete and satisfactory yet compiled. Investors are similarly favored by an appendix dealing with miscellaneous and "industrial" corporations and with the public debts of States, cities, and counties. These additions help to keep the 'Manual' what it has so long been, the most indispensable among investment handbooks. Its chief defects are a very inconvenient arrangement and indexing, and it would seem possible that both these could be remedied.

Mr. Edward McPherson pays tribute once more to the wretched memory of the American people, and to our politics without continuity because without principle, in his 'Handbook of Politics,' for 1894 (Washington: Robert Beal). It is, as he says, with a pardonable insinuation of failure, "very largely a record of the efforts of the Democratic party, which was given full control of the legislative and executive branches of the Government in 1892, to grapple with the financial and political situation of the country." But Mr. McPherson's partisanship goes no further than to saddle the Democratic party with the sins of its "doughfaces." He faithfully records the documents in the case of the Tariff, the Silver bill, the repeal of the Federal Elections act, the Hawaiian fiasco (as to annexation) and success (as to letting those who had made their bed lie in it), and finally the railway adventure of Debs. For ready reference this work is, like its forerunners, invaluable.

The Public Printer at Washington has lately invoked the protection of the Secretary of the Interior against bad "copy" and other extravagant indulgences of officials ignorant of or

indifferent to printing-house economy. He insists, rightly enough, that copy should be edited, and generally type-written, before it is sent in to him, that proofs should be promptly returned, and expensive corrections avoided, etc. Secretary Smith has, of course, given instructions in this sense to his subordinates, but Mr. Benedict might almost be suspected of a satirical object-lesson in printing the order with all its rhetorical and grammatical defects, even to the faulty punctuation which he could certainly have amended without offence to his chief. However, in this particular his own letter leaves much to be desired.

The reprints of the week have included two standard works in substantial single volumes finely illustrated, Whymper's 'Travels among the Great Andes of the Equator' (Scribners), and, by way of contrast, Greely's 'Three Years of Arctic Service' (same publishers). Each has its index and its maps, and each its peculiar charm as a narrative of adventure. One is glad to have, also, 'Quits,' by the late Baroness Tautphoeus, honored with the comely dress already given by Messrs. Putnam to 'The Initials'; being, like that, in two handy volumes in olive-green bindings. With vol. xxv. the Dryburgh edition of the Waverley novels comes to a close (Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan). 'The Surgeon's Daughter' and 'Castle Dangerous' form the contents of it, and some of Mr. Walter Paget's designs are among the very best of the diversified array of woodcuts. It is, however, the letterpress which gives distinction to this edition, taken in connection with its cheapness.

From the Board of Trustees of the Missouri Botanical Garden comes their fifth annual report. Of the eight scientific papers, the third is on the sugar maples, and is from the pen of the director, Prof. Trelease. He enters into an interesting discussion of the botanical names of the sugar maples, and comes to a somewhat different conclusion from that of Prof. Sargent. Rather reluctantly, it appears, he abandons the name *Acer saccharinum* to the silver maple, but finds the name *Acer saccharum* available for the tree which is commonly called sugar maple in the Northern States. The tree of the Carolinas and Florida is here *A. Floridanum*, while the third of the sugar maples is *A. grandidentatum*, ranging from Montana to Mexico. With Sargent these are all reduced to *A. barbatum*. This name, which Torrey and Gray say was founded on the flowers of one maple, the fruit of another, and the leaf of a third ('Flora of North America,' p. 684), and which therefore should have no recognition of any kind, Trelease is content to use for a variety of *Acer saccharum*, the other variety keeping the old name of *nigrum*. The volume contains also a careful monograph on the genera *Gayophytum* and *Boisduvalia*, by Prof. Trelease; a paper on willows, by Dr. Glatfelter, who proposes to distinguish the North American species by minute differences in the venation of the leaves; and a table giving the earliest and latest dates in 1892 of the leafing, flowering, and fruiting of three or four hundred plants, and a similar, though much shorter, list for 1893. There are a few other papers besides these, and the volume closes with some "Notes and Observations" by the director.

In volume xxii., part 1, of the Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan, Mr. Percival Lowell contributes another paper on Esoteric Shinto. He dwells especially upon the phenomena of god-possession, which, though now nearly monopolized by Riyobu, or the union of the native and imported cults, is essentially of indigenous origin. Mr. W. G. Aston (though in England, and dying by inches from the cold caught in Seoul during the night of the awful Corean riots in 1884) still contributes profound critical studies. He shows the origin of the *hi no maru* (sun-circle), or national flag of Japan, tracing it to primitive Chinese animism. As China was and is a theocracy, natural calamities such as drought, famine, pestilence, earthquake, and damage by lightning are owing to the Emperor's shortcomings, while good crops, animal and terrestial prosperity and freedom from calamity spring directly from his faithfulness in function. He is, therefore, the Son of Heaven. The sun symbolizes the sovereign ruler, and the moon is the emblem of his consorts and ministers. Hence from very ancient times and with variation of artistic representation, the Chinese banners have borne the image of the sun and moon. Japan over a thousand years ago borrowed the same symbols, and on coins and flags they may be seen to-day. The fact that two suns cannot shine in the same heaven is the root of old bitterness as well as the present war between Tei Koku Nippon (Japan, the country ruled by a theocratic dynasty) and the Ta Tsing empire. Mediæval Japanese flags also contained the same elements and symbols as the Corean national flag of to-day, first adopted and saluted by foreign powder in 1882. Mr. E. H. Parker gives a valuable account of Japan up to A. D. 1200, translated from the mediæval Chinese writer, Ma Twan-Lin. He concludes that the account in the 'Kojiki,' or most ancient book of Japan, of the "divine generations" of the Mikado, "is not only pure twaddle, but is not even consistent twaddle." Prof. Garrett Droppers's paper on a Japanese credit association has been already noticed in our columns.

Signor Nino Quarta's "new interpretation" of Petrarch's canzone, "Chiare, fresche e dolci acque" (Naples), probably has the last word in the long controversy concerning this poem. His pamphlet of eighty-two pages is an astonishing mixture of erudition, keen analysis, humor, and loquacity. One thinks of the Corliss engine made to beat up a batter. Incidentally, however, the triviality of the discussion is relieved by the fresh and important evidence which Signor Quarta adduces to prove Laura's birthplace, and summering-place as well, to have been some village *between Vaucluse and Avignon*. If justified (and it is made very plausible), this propinquity, hitherto unsuspected, between the poet and his inamorata, throws a new and strong light upon the canzone, especially upon the earlier ones. Sites and scenes supposed to lie in dreamland, or at least in a merely conventional landscape, take on now a local habitation and a name.

—The current number of the *American Journal of Archæology* contains a study, by Prof. Marquand, of a terracotta sketch which represents a portion of the second of Ghiberti's bronze gates for the Baptistery of Florence. Mr. Marquand states his reasons for supposing this to be a preliminary sketch in clay made by Ghiberti's own hand. It is somewhat larger than the original portion of the gate, and the modelling bespeaks the sculptor rather than the painter. An excellent photograph accompanies the study. The remaining illustrations of the number reproduce the beautiful votive-relief discovered in 1893, not far from Phaleron, representing on one side Hermes and the nymphs, and on the other Basile and Echelos borne in a chariot. The meaning and details are discussed by Mr. Crosby. Mr. A. L. Frothingham, jr., furnishes a note, with plan, on a curious dome-like tomb discovered at Vetulonia by Cav. Falchi. It differs from the Mycenæan tombs in that the ground-plan is square, and that the walls remain exactly vertical till they reach the base of the dome. It is the forerunner of Byzantine domes on pendentives, just as the Mycenæan tomb is the prototype of the Pantheon. Possibly, Mr. Frothingham suggests, its plan may have been derived from similar but more scientific structures in Assyria. The summary of archæological news has always constituted a special and valuable feature of this periodical, and the present number contains more than a hundred pages of reports from all quarters of the Eastern world.

—If the first volume of the 'Life and Correspondence of Rufus King' (Putnams) is a promise of what is to come, the series will prove a remarkable addition to American political history. The editing of the papers was begun by Dr. Charles King, a son of Rufus King, and has been completed by Dr. Charles R. King, a grandson. This has resulted in a double advantage: contemporaries could be consulted, and the results of modern research examined. The period covered by this first volume is from 1755 to 1794, but King's public activity was not marked until his election from Massachusetts to the Continental Congress in 1784. He served continuously in that body till the Constitution was framed, was a member of the convention framing it, and was one of the first Senators from New York. The history of this critical period is told in his correspondence as it has not been told before. Questions of land cessions, of Western Territories and their government, of impost, of constitution, and of administrative and foreign policy under Washington—in all, King's agency was immediate; and on all, his notes and letters are interesting and valuable. The editors lay too much claim for him in respect to the Ordinance of 1787, and their statement cannot be accepted as final. King was, in the beginning of his Congressional service, something of an extremist, following the lead of Gerry, a man who was singularly gifted in conjuring up remarkable possibilities, and living, as it were, in a sort of chamber of "political horrors." For example, King saw danger in the appointment of Bishop Seabury, as he thought he would be a channel of improper information to his spiritual head, the King of England. It was the same spirit that led him to disapprove of the Annapolis Convention, believing that relief should come from Congress.

—In time his political beliefs underwent a change, and he became a Federalist, undoubtedly in consequence of his associating with the business men of New York. This influence makes his correspondence of high value, as the newly-formed Administration had to cope with many business questions: taxation, funding, tariff, navigation law, and sale of lands. Even its foreign policy was colored by this element, for the unsolved questions with England which led to the Jay mission, and the difficulties with France, were felt more immediately in commercial than in political circles. King left many notes on these current events, which supplement Madison's 'Debates' and Maclay's 'Journal'; and there is also so much of novelty that we cannot begin to make extracts. Into this good not a few avoidable errors and omissions have crept. The omissions in the incomplete letters on pages 317 and 417

could easily have been repaired, and what is omitted from the letter to Madison is of high importance. Import is printed on p. 74 for impost; but this error is balanced on p. 77, where impost is printed for import. The Madison letter on p. 358 was written in 1788, and not 1789. The editor might have inserted full names in brackets, where the MS. gives only the initial letter. What were "dry" taxes (p. 260)? King must have erred in recording any coolness between Washington and Robert Morris (p. 622). The two men were intimate until Morris's failure; and it is hardly conceivable that Morris could have plotted against the General in 1783, in favor of so discredited an officer as Gates. Besides, the presence of so warm a partisan of Washington as Gouverneur Morris in the Office of Finance would have been a check on such an attempt. The story is highly improbable.

—There is danger that he who reads running may apply the old saw about the μέγα βιβλίον to Dr. Gudeman's edition of the *Dialogus* of Tacitus (Boston: Ginn & Co.), but he who ponders over it in his closet will surely prefer Scaliger's *mot* on Casaubon's Persius. More than five hundred pages of introduction and commentary to only fifty-five of the Latin text is indeed startling; and yet so thoroughly well has the work been done, so carefully has the editor studied the questions by which the little tract is beset, and so clearly and independently has he set forth his conclusions, that we are almost ready to believe that a κτῆμα ἐς ἀεί has at last been obtained in the case of one at least of the Latin classics. Dr. Gudeman is convinced of the Tacitean authorship of the work, and he adds new and strong arguments to the old stock. His critical apparatus in its fulness recalls Wecklein's to Aeschylus; the bulk of his commentary is in great part accounted for by the fact that he has quoted the most important parallel passages in full, instead of merely giving references to the authors cited. Those who still preserve the traditional reverence for Class A B of the manuscripts must in future reckon with Dr. Gudeman's strong claim for class Y if their favorite is still to bear the palm. On the whole, the contents of the book are a credit to American scholarship, and its outer dress calls for thanks to the American publishers.

—The recently expressed intention of the German Government to establish a Catholic Faculty of Theology in the University of Strassburg has unexpectedly met with very general and quite bitter opposition on the part of the Catholic press in Germany. The same attitude was taken by the Catholic Congress held at Cologne during the last week of August. This assembly, which realized Carlyle's conception of an "eloquent palaver," after passing the usual reactionary resolutions in favor of the restoration of the temporal power of the Pope, the readmission of the Jesuits to Germany, and the ecclesiastical control of the public schools, demanded that a university should be founded at Fulda independent of the State, approved by the Holy See and directed by the Catholic bishops of Germany. Of course such an institution would be nothing but a theological seminary of an extremely narrow type, in which secular science would be tolerated only as the handmaid to scholastic divinity and Jesuitical casuistry. The students would thus be completely cut off from the fresh and abundant sources of modern academic culture. The disastrous effects of this educational isolation have been clearly and forcibly exposed by some of the most liberal and enlightened Catholics, as, for example, by Dr. Franz Kraus, Professor of Church History and Christian Archæology in the University of Freiburg, and Dr. Heinrich Reusch, Professor of Theology in the University of Bonn. The former, in an address delivered as rector of the University, in 1890, on "The Study of Theology in the Past and Present," declares that the severance of the study of theology from the old universities by the establishment of separate seminaries would be "a death-blow to the Catholic Church in Germany," and that those who advocate such a measure, thinking it to be a meritorious work, are really "the worst foes of Catholicism." In a little volume, issued in 1879, and entitled 'Die deutschen Bischöfe und der Aberglaube,' Prof. Reusch states that since the middle of the present century there has been a vast increase of "this literature of superstition" within the Catholic Church, and that this almost incredible and exceedingly noxious growth has attained its present dimensions under the fostering care of the bishops and other clergy.

—That this lamentable condition of things has not changed for the better during the past fifteen years is proved by the appearance of Dr. Theobald Bischofberger's manual called 'Die Verwaltung des Exorcistats nach Massgabe des römischen Benediktionale,' of which a second enlarged and revised edition was published by Roth at Stuttgart in 1893. Herr Bischofberger is a priest who evidently prides himself on his powers as an exorcist, and relates with equal unction and assurance his experiences in casting out devils, some of which are quite worthy of an African conjurer. There is hardly any affliction of mankind in mind, body, or estate in which he does not detect diabolical agencies, from national disasters like the spread of malignant epidemics to petty domestic annoyances like the uncanny abduction of cow's milk and the mysterious disappearance of hen's eggs. He also affirms that a spot where a murder or other heinous crime has been committed, if the offence remains undetected or unexpiated, is sure to be infested by demons, and the inmates of a house erected upon such a site will be peculiarly liable to demoniacal possession, however innocent they may be personally. Dr. Bischofberger goes so far as to advise the purchaser of a piece of land to make sure that it is unencumbered by devils as well as by debts, otherwise he may have to suffer more from a demoniac lien than from mortmain or any other kind of obligation in law.

—The sudden failure of the Peary and Wellman expeditions, and seemingly also that of the Jackson-Harmsworth venture to Franz-Joseph Land, once more emphasize the uncertainties which attach to the exploration of the northern ice-fields. Mr. Peary, untrammelled by Government orders, and with a free foot to choose his own route and methods, returns to his winter quarters on Bowdoin Bay, Inglefield Gulf, having accomplished practically nothing. Exceptional arctic weather was doubtless the main cause of this, but something is perhaps attributable to a departure from the fundamental plan of travel which Mr. Peary himself so strongly argued was necessary for success in an expedition of the kind which he conducted. In his memorable crossing of Greenland in 1892 he was accompanied by but a single associate; in his last effort he had with him seven companions, the greater number of whom were incapacitated in the early stages of their journey. True, the atmospheric conditions were very different from what they were in 1892—a difference that can be easily read on the scale of arctic weather which measures the interval between March 6 and May 1, the respective days of starting of the two expeditions. A winter of seemingly unusual severity still held a firm grip upon nature when the party set out, and from first to last it appears to have been an almost continuous struggle with the furious elements. With a temperature reduced to —50° or even to —60° F., and with a wind blowing with hurricane velocity, with the dogs dying one after the other, "frozen into solid blocks," as they are said to have been, it is surprising that a distance of 120 miles should have been covered. Arctic critics may contend that no start should have been made till the weather was settled. The answer to this is, that without this early start, in the hope of reaching Independence Bay on the northeast coast, nothing looking to an extensive exploration beyond Greenland could be accomplished. The disastrous termination of the Wellman expedition (for such, indeed, the crushing by ice of the *Ragnvald Jarl* must be considered) can hardly be charged to the commander. It was after he and his thirteen associates were well on their way, and struggling with the great northern "pack," that the mishap occurred. Like Mr. Peary, Mr. Wellman has expressed his determination to try again.

## GUMMERE'S OLD ENGLISH BALLADS.

*Old English Ballads*, selected and edited by Francis B. Gummere, Professor of English in Haverford College. [Athenæum Press Series.] Boston: Ginn & Co. 1894.

FORTUNATELY it is no longer necessary to plead the cause of the popular ballad. Everybody admits its value as literature, and every student of life or letters or language feels the necessity of occupying himself with it. There are no better ballads preserved than the English (*i. e.*, the English and Scottish), and the ballads of no other people have been studied with more enthusiasm or with so much success. The acknowledged master in this field of investigation, Professor Child, has edited the ballads of our tongue with a wealth of learning and a humanity of taste which make his noble series of volumes (now nearly completed) one of the chief glories of American scholarship. Professor Gummere has seen the necessity of making the best of our ballads accessible in a single volume, with due apparatus, and he has carried out his project with complete success.

Drawing chiefly on Professor Child's great work, to which fitting acknowledgment is made, he has selected fifty-four of the best English and Scottish ballads.

"In most instances the editor has selected what seemed to be the best text, although in one or two cases the best had to yield to the suitable. A few omissions were necessary; here and there, but not very often, combinations were made of different texts; and some unimportant substitution of words was allowed as between version and version."

This method, impossible in editing the poetry of art, gives us texts quite as stable as we can expect the text of a traditional ballad to be. No other plan was possible in a selection; for variant versions the student will naturally consult Prof. Child. The difference between this plan and the eclectic method pursued, for example, by Allingham in his well-known 'Ballad Book' is clear. Allingham's texts

represent his own opinions and are not usable by serious students; Prof. Gummere's texts represent tradition, and are not only readable, but available for scientific study.

The selection includes the long "Gest of Robin Hood," "Otterburn," "The Hunting of the Cheviot (Chevy Chase)," "Sir Andrew Barton," "Sir Patrick Spens," "Child Maurice," "Child Waters," "King Estmere," "The Wife of Usher's Well," "St. Stephen and Herod," "Tam Lin," etc., and could not be bettered. The three hundred pages of text contain a series of ballads sufficiently varied and extensive to give a view of the field not merely of English traditional narrative verse, but of the characteristics of the ballad poetry of all lands.

The glossary is brief, but sufficient for the practical purpose for which it is intended; still, we think it would have been better to give more references. Most of the really interesting or exceptional usages have, however, a citation. The notes are full enough to explain the difficult passages and to illustrate the main points needing illustration. Of course they are much indebted to Prof. Child. Nobody can say anything about ballads without referring to him constantly; and the spirit of Prof. Gummere's dedication is as far as possible removed from any wish to conceal obligations. His whole book, in fact, is the best possible introduction to the great Corpus, and ought to lead many persons to a study of that enchanting work. The various appendixes give handy information, in the briefest shape, about ballad bibliography, metre, style and form, verse, minstrels. They supplement the notes, and contain a number of excellent original observations; but they more especially serve as excursuses to the introduction.

This introduction is indeed Professor Gummere's chief contribution to the subject. It is about one hundred pages long, and is abundantly supplied with footnotes which testify to wide and accurate scholarship. It is written with much charm of manner, and has that indefinable quality which we are accustomed to call "brightness" ("brilliancy" implies too hard and glittering a finish). Many scholars of the younger generation show a disregard of literary form—be it ignorance or contempt; but our author is not of them. His style is easy, without being careless; it is often allusive; it has not a few quips and here and there a crank; but it is not affected and it never loses control of itself, never quite throws its wig at the congregation. In its effect we have found it stimulating, and it bears the test of a second and third perusal.

The introduction attends first to defining. The ambiguity of *ballad*, *popular*, *Volkslied*, etc., drives the author to the adoption of a new technical term—"communal": "A communal ballad is a narrative ballad of tradition which represents a community or folk, not a section or class of that community and not a single writer." The ballad is the "outcome and expression of a whole community," and "this community must be homogeneous—must belong to a time when, in a common atmosphere of ignorance, so far as book-lore is concerned, one habit of thought and one standard of action animate every member, from prince to ploughboy." "Ballads of the primitive type . . . were the product of a people as yet undivided into a lettered and an unlettered class." These definitions afford pretty sure ground for the difficult investigation that is to follow—that of the genesis of the ballad. This is an investigation which Prof. Gummere was particularly well qualified to pursue. His special studies, begun in his dissertation on the Anglo Saxon metaphor, continued in his standard work on 'Germanic Origins,' and in a less-known but suggestive and stimulating little essay on myths, contributed to the "Haverford Studies," are now carried over to the subject of popular narrative poetry.

As was to be expected, the method of the introduction is scientific. The author shows competent knowledge of what others have done in his field, but he does not for a moment allow his independence of thought to be confined. On the matter in hand there are two main opinions before the world. The view fostered by the Romantic school, and fallen into discredit with the gradual discrediting of the theories and ideals of Romanticism, is "that the community, as a whole and a unit, makes poetry of the people." The other view, seemingly more rational and certainly more in favor just now, is that "poetry of the people is made as any other poetry is made, except that it is subject to purely oral transmission, and therefore to infinite variation and the chances of popular control."

Prof. Gummere obviously leans toward the former of these theories; but he does not disguise from himself or his readers the difficulty of apprehending it or even of stating it intelligibly. His good sense revolts from answering in vague phrases or mere figures of speech, as has so often been done, the searching question: "How does a song cross the gulf between this spirit of the race, this latent community of sentiment, and the concrete fact of melody and words?" He therefore finds it necessary to review the whole history of ballad criticism, especially in this article of origins. The necessity was a fortunate one. No such account of this interesting and important subject is to be found in any language, so far as we know. It is thorough and impartial, and enlivened throughout by pertinent and vivacious critical remarks. We should hardly have believed it possible to sum up so clearly the confused, half-poetical, half-mystical, wholly evasive attempts of the Romantic school to express itself as to how "the folk" once upon a time composed poetry. The "mystery" is not explained, for it is not explainable; but the bounds of the Land of Nod are surveyed with all possible exactness. The non-Romantic or rationalizing theory is really "an identification of the origins of the ballad with the origins of poetry as a thing of literature, barring the facts of environment at the outset and oral tradition in reaching a later public. In both cases the artist is a final cause." This view, which at first seems so simple, appears to Prof. Gummere to involve a perilous logical leap, and he calls a halt until one can examine the "essential elements of the ballad as it must have been at its best."

It may be admitted that every extant ballad owes its actual form to some individual singer, who stands between us and the assumed primitive singing community; but this admission, contends Prof. Gummere, does not solve the problem of ultimate origins any more than the agency of Wilhelm Grimm in giving to the 'Kinder- und Hausmärchen' their literary form explains the origin of popular tales. The ballads that have come down to us are not, as they stand, the pure product of communal authorship; they are rather the survivals of the old state of things, or, in some cases, the result of a survival of the old spirit working under changed conditions. They contain elements which distinguish them from the poetry of the schools. Above all they contain an element of impersonality, so far as authorship goes; they have no author's "I" or editor's "we." The critic "must detach from the ballad, which is a compromise between tradition and art, all those elements in which art and the individual can have no share, and must inquire whether the balance for communal force can be explained on the simple basis of oral transmission." The condition of our material makes certainty unattainable. For example, no Anglo-Saxon ballads have survived. We must resort to combination and inference. The singing of ballads, the dance, the refrain, the observed phenomenon of rapid improvisation by members of a throng—such are the "elements" which, in Prof. Gummere's opinion, make for the communal origin of popular narrative poetry and make against the rationalistic theory of its individual authorship. The primitive connection between song and dance and the very early association of ballads with the dance-song are indisputable. To be sure, one must reckon with the leader—the *Vorsinger*—but the further back we get, the more shadowy he becomes, so that it is not absurd to infer, for primitive conditions, a communal song and dance with no definite leader. The refrain, too, which is beyond a doubt the property of the throng, is the oldest element in the dance song and in the ballad; it grows less and less important as the leader comes more and more into prominence, until finally it disappears altogether when the ballad ceases to be used for the dance and loses its obviously communal character.

These facts, taken in connection with the well-known improvisational powers of many unlettered communities, seem to Prof. Gummere sufficient to create a strong probability in favor of a strictly communal origin for ballad-poetry. As primitive men "knew neither writer nor writing, so they knew nothing of the literary unit, the poem in and for itself. All was in flux; out of a common store of tradition, by a spontaneous and universal movement, song rose and fell according to the needs of the community." The individual minstrel comes later. He "is an agent at once of preservation and of destruction, for he rescues specimens of a type which his incipient artistry is bound to destroy."

Our brief summary of Prof. Gummere's Introduction is hardly fair either to the closeness of his argument or to the literary merit of the whole essay. Still, we have doubtless said enough to give our readers some hint of the interest that attaches to this scholarly book.

## TEXT-BOOKS OF UNITED STATES HISTORY.

*A History of the United States for Schools.* By John Fiske. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1894.

*A History of the United States.* By Allen C. Thomas, Professor of History in Haverford College, Pa. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 1894.

SCARCELY a year passes without some new attempt to recount our national history for the young. Half-a-dozen such lie before us, which date at furthest back to 1890, and Professor Goldwin Smith's brilliant sketch might, from its mere size, be added to the list for this period, which embraces the names of the late Prof. Alexander Johnston and now of Mr. John Fiske. No school history of American origin has yet become a classic, and while intelligent teachers will welcome and profit by both of the two latest, whose titles we give above, neither of them is, in our judgment, so much

better than its predecessors as to be likely to stem the flood of composition and competition. One had a right to expect much from Mr. Fiske's well-known faculty for luminous exposition, though his powers of condensation had perhaps hardly been tested. As an apostle of evolution, too, he might have been counted on to exhibit in a masterly manner the organic growth of American institutions. He assures us, in fact, in his preface, that he has "aimed, above all things, at telling the story in such a way as to make it clear how one event led to another."

Now what is the greatest single event in the one hundred and five years of the republic's existence? Undeniably the civil war. When did it end? Some will answer literally, in 1865, with the surrender of Lee; others, in 1877, when President Hayes withdrew the Federal troops from the support of the carpet-bag governments; others, in 1894, when the war-tariff policy was reversed as far as was possible in view of the pension burden. When did it begin? Some will say in 1861, with the firing upon Sumter; others, in 1860, with the secession of South Carolina; others, in 1859, with John Brown at Harper's Ferry; others, in 1854, with the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska bill; others, in 1850, with the passage of the Fugitive Slave bill. For forty-four years, then, at the very least, the conflict of the two sections and the consequences thereof have occupied public attention without intermission. But what is the genesis of the Fugitive Slave law? Every one knows that its foundations, as of all the events enumerated, were laid in the compromises of the Federal Constitution—Lincoln's "house divided against itself," Seward's "irrepressible conflict." The historian, therefore, has one thread running down the woof from the beginning, of vital interest at the present moment, by which the child's mind can naturally and easily be led back in a causal connection. No other thread of equal antiquity is so distinct, none possesses anything like its importance. Not one of the group of American historians above enumerated has firmly grasped this thread, and Mr. Fiske is even conspicuously inferior to several of them in his attempt "to make it clear how one event led to another." Slavery is to him actually a "new question" in 1820. In the nine lines which summarize the Constitution of '89 there is not a word respecting slavery or compromises, and in fact Prof. Thomas alone, of our six authors, takes notice of the clause tolerating the slave trade, or of that which provided for slave representation—the national political premium on the perpetuity of a system which economically was always committing suicide.

Suppose a bright lad reads, in the daily press, of Miss Wells's recent mission to England to enlist foreign public sentiment against the horrible lynchings to which her race is subjected in the Southern States, and by contagion even in the Northern. What is there in Mr. Fiske's narrative to show him the connection between these atrocities and the defunct system of slavery? Nothing, for there is nowhere any description of American slavery—not an anecdote from which the child's imagination might glimpse the truth: the burning alive of slave men and women in Massachusetts, burnings in New York, in New Jersey, in all the Southern slave States, still continued upon the freedmen and justified by current Southern public opinion, ecclesiastical as well as vulgar. Prof. Johnston does mention the New York colonial holocaust, and has a phrase about "the cruelty of the system." He also touches fairly upon the race question. He records, too, the abolition of the foreign slave trade, but without remarking the sanction given to it by the Constitution, or picturing the infernal traffic, about which our bright lad might have read in a recent magazine.

It must be a false motive in an historian to cover up what is barbarous in the nation's history; and what, above all, should our Evolutionist be doing in that galley? The offence becomes grave when we recall the complaint of the lack of moral instruction in our schools, and consider that history is one of the most potent vehicles of such instruction. Prof. Fiske errs with Prof. Johnston in narrating the Mexican war without an allusion to its pro-slavery inspiration. This is virtually, of course, to put that war on a level of glory with the Revolution and the war of 1812, and the child reads of its victories with the same pride as of Trenton or Lake Erie. He sees "the flag" and nothing else, and imbibes unconsciously the immoral precepts of that day: "Our country however bounded," "Our country, right or wrong." Under such circumstances the national conscience must perforce be neglected by our school historians. Few mention the abolition movement, as none truly defines its principles; few give it its chronological place, with its philanthropic pedigree. Mr. Fiske picks it up in 1837, and implies that *then* "the little band of abolitionists began an agitation which they were determined should not stop so long as slavery endured." Not a word of Lundy and his *Genius of Universal Emancipation*, but the trumpery Lundy's Lane is itemized in this, and in nearly all our six histories. Not a word, except in Johnston and Thomas, about the mobs directed against the abolitionists, and Thomas alone commemorates Lovejoy. Not a word about the service rendered the cause of free speech in this country by the Alton martyr and the abolitionists. Must the child go for this to the Life of Channing? Can one infer the wave of feeling caused by Brooks's assault on Sumner in the Senate chamber from Johnston's "cruelly beaten [where?] by a South Carolina Representative," or Fiske's "atrocious and cowardly act" occasioned by "a speech of an exasperating character, containing some personal allusions . . . which were not in good taste"? Not a syllable in any of the six about the significance of the outrage in having been perpetrated where it was, by a fellow-Congressman, for words spoken in debate; the Senate as a body consenting, and Brooks's constituency reëlecting him! Thomas gives in an appendix Lincoln's immortal second inaugural address; Mrs. Barnes, who quotes from the Declaration of Sentiments of the American Anti-Slavery Society, also gives a portion of John Brown's immortal address to the court. What would happen to the child's moral sense if the whole of the latter were printed by Fiske, in silent comment on his text: "He [John Brown] was, of course, captured and hanged. His attempt was an insane piece of folly, and found but little sympathy or approval in the North"? True, but is the "of course" the chronicler's or the moralist's? And if there was little sympathy at the North for the *attempt*, was there no sympathy for the *man*? Did the Northern conscience not recognize its own?

We might, from the evolutionary point of view, criticise Mr. Fiske's History in sundry other particulars; but our space is overrun. Prof. Thomas's work seems to us, on the whole, the best of those here considered in its treatment of the *main question* (in one form or another) of American politics from 1789 to 1894. He has an excellent observation on the effect of the civil war in lowering "in many ways the moral tone of the whole country"; and might have shown how the survival of the Republican organization as a war party has put it in the very shoes of slavery as an obstruction to independent thought and effort touching all reforms. Only now (if there is to be no step backward toward protection) have Stuart Mill's words of congratulation at the close of hostilities come true:

"The chains of prescription have been broken; it is not only the slave who has been freed—the mind of America has been emancipated. The whole intellect of the country has been set thinking about the fundamental questions of society and government; and the new problems which have to be solved, and the new difficulties which have to be encountered, are calling forth new activity of thought, and that great nation is saved, probably for a long time to come, from the most formidable danger of a completely settled state of society and opinion—intellectual and moral stagnation."

## FOUR HISTORIES OF PHILOSOPHY.—I.

*A History of Philosophy.* With especial reference to the Formation and Development of its Problems and Conceptions. By Dr. W. Windelband. Authorized translation by James H. Tufts, Assistant Professor in Chicago University. Macmillan & Co.

*History of Modern Philosophy.* By Richard Falkenberg. Translated with the author's sanction by A. C. Armstrong, jr., Professor in Wesleyan University. Henry Holt & Co.

*An Historical Interpretation of Philosophy.* By John Bascom. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

*A History of Modern Philosophy.* By B. C. Burt. 2 vols. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

If history is to be conceived neither as mere narration nor as the study of obsolete politics, but as an account of man's development, then the history of the mind is surely the main thing, and that of thought must stand at its head. It is odd how different to different sciences is the importance of their own chronicles. Mathematics can boast of a long and interesting past; but it is neither needful nor usual for mathematicians to know much about it, except only in certain special branches—the theory of elasticity, for example—which are regularly studied in the discussions that gave them birth. An examination of the beginnings of mechanics throws, as is well known, no feeble light upon the science itself; while physicists hardly concern themselves about early optics or early meteorology. Certainly of no natural science can it be said, as might very well be maintained of metaphysical philosophy, that its history is of more consequence than its doctrine. The University of Paris, and every mediæval university, required a student to be fairly well trained in the history of philosophy before they would allow him to teach it. The metaphysics of those days was theology, and theology was metaphysics. Now Charles Thurot and many good authorities understand that in Paris, after a man had taken his hood of master of arts, he had to study fourteen years more before he could be admitted to the degree in theology. That study was, of course, almost entirely historical. Denifle understands that only fourteen years *in all* were required; but what a contrast even that to modern practice.

Dr. Windelband is a German professor of high reputation. His manual history of philosophy, now presented to English readers in such English diction as can emanate from the most modern, if not (after the flesh) the most

wealthy, of earth's seats of learning, is well known everywhere; his larger work is celebrated. Throughout Germany, this scholar is extolled for his accuracy, for the energy of thought with which he compresses a whole philosophy into a paragraph, and for his crystal clearness. The most faithful student must tremble at the idea of criticising such a work. We will suppose that the college "senior" for whom the book is intended, reads upon p. 342 about the *Parva logicalia*, which are a series of mediæval treatises explaining how the forms of everyday thought are to be made amenable to strict logical rules—explanations highly useful in times when formal accuracy of logic was exacted in all those scholar's-disputations which filled most of the scholar's waking hours. Windelband, speaking of that one of these *Parva logicalia* which relates to "supposition," *i. e.*, the logical denotation of nouns, remarks that the importance attributed to this subject was "not without its precedent in antiquity"; to which he somewhat cruelly adds that "the reader need only be reminded of the investigations of Philodemus on signs and designations." Our student, not being blessed with Teutonic phlegm, blushes at this as a snub; for the investigations of Philodemus with which he is expected to be so familiar are contained only in a somewhat recently transcribed and fragmentary papyrus from Herculaneum, of which Dr. Windelband in this history has only recorded the bare title, περὶ σημείων καὶ σημειώσεων, which he now translates, "On Signs and Designations." Stung to the quick by the imputation of unusual ignorance, our ingenuous youth rushes to the college library, gets the transcription of the papyrus by Gompertz, and proceeds to dig out the Greek until he has mastered the substance of it. Having done this, he finds to his amazement that the title cannot, agreeably to the contents, be understood to mean, "On signs [*i. e.*, words and the like] and designations," but, on the contrary, must be rendered "On signs [*i. e.*, facts symptomatic of other facts] and their significance [*i. e.*, their inferential value]"; and further that the substance of the treatise bears not the remotest affinity with the "supposition" of nouns, but is a discussion of the philosophy and value of inductive reasoning! In short, he discovers that the superlatively learned Windelband can certainly never have opened the volume of which he talks so glibly. After that, the poor fellow will begin to doubt whether Dr. Windelband has so much as read Henry of Ghent (whose works are downright *rare*), though he talks of him as an intimate; and he will almost be tempted to extend that doubt to Richardus de Mediavilla, whose name is printed in this volume Mediavia.

The above is, perhaps, not the worst of swarms of amusing blunders of detail with which the book abounds, and which the translator had better have obtained leave silently to rectify. Roger Bacon is spoken of as a product of the Franciscan order, which is as if Marie Antoinette were called a product of the French Revolution. Albertus Magnus stands shoulder to shoulder with Roger Bacon—a worse error yet, exposing defective perception of the calibres of men, and at the same time naïve want of acquaintance with the spirit of natural science. Besides, in truth, Bacon never tires of satirizing Albert. True, he does not name him—that were unnecessary and coarse. But there is no mistaking the characterization, which, so aptly fitting the most prominent man in the learned world of that day, cannot be meant for some indiscoverable nobody, when Bacon plainly says he means a person of universal celebrity. Errors of a more important description are equally rife. Windelband speaks of the hæcceity of Scotus as a *form*, instead of a *formality*, or *formal principle*, a widely different thing. This error has been committed by others, but it none the less argues a terrible misapprehension of the central idea of Scotus, as well as a total obliviousness of the literature of the dispute between Thomists and Scotists. We notice, too, that Prantl's unfounded theory of a "Byzantine logic" is spoken of as if it were beyond all doubt. This hypothetical "Byzantine logic" is represented by a single book, the Greek of which is fishy to the last extreme. It is full of phrases which can only be explained by the Latin, and its ideas are even more Latin than its language. In short, it is a manifest translation from the Latin.

Dr. Falkenberg's history is eminently modern in its methods and prefereuces. It furnishes what may be called the conceptions best received in Germany to-day of the different systems of modern philosophy. It is little colored by personal views, is luminous, sensible, and accurate. Not its least recommendation is that it has been translated by a man able to write an agreeable English style. It is to be feared that unfortunate presswork, quite painful to the eyes, may detract from its usefulness.

Dr. Bascom, who has hit upon an expressive title for such a sketch of history as his, is well known as a dualistic intuitionalist. The business of his life has been to fit out young men destined to practical pursuits with a kit of ready-made opinions and to train them in not criticising the same. Everywhere throughout this book he is occupied with the good or bad practical results of the different philosophies. What has been taught is the question that interests Dr. Bascom, and on that head he makes many shrewd observations, forcibly expressed; but as to what train of thought it was that led to any doctrine he does not care, and teaches his scholars not to care. The most important knowledge, he holds, "admits of no further explanation than is involved in the very act of knowing" (Bascom's 'Psychology,' p. 13). Or, as he says in another place, "sound philosophy gives no entrance to the feeling that, knowing a thing once, we need to know it again, in some other way, in order to know it" ('Historical Interpretation,' p. 390). This is declaring war on criticism in general. Provide yourself, young man (is his general tone), with a full set of sound beliefs, and then take good care of them, and don't indulge in idle longings to know things in two different ways: so you will have a successful and happy life, and go to heaven when you die.

That a history of philosophy ought to be written in the country where it is to be used, is a maxim that gains in weight the more one reflects upon it. Mr. Burt's pretty volumes, besides being written by an American to meet the wants of American students, present several excellent and original features. In the Kantian volume, one-third of the space is devoted to English philosophy. The corresponding ratio in Falkenberg, though the translator of that work has entirely rewritten and greatly enlarged the English section, is only 1-10. Among German authors, such intense concentration of thought, such subtilty, such fine edge upon ideas as Scotus, Ockham, Hobbes, Hartley, Berkeley, James Mill, Clifford exhibit, will be sought in vain. Everybody knows that there is a German history of philosophy, admirably translated, that has been of very great usefulness in this country; we mean Morris's Überweg. But now that work, more than twenty years old, is growing out of date. Besides, it states only the conclusions of philosophers, not their reasonings, and then, it is written from a foreign point of view. We need an American history of philosophy, upon an encyclopædic scale. It does not matter much whether we have good summaries of Aristotle, Descartes, Kant, nor even of the second grade of philosophers, but it is for information about writers whom few can find time to read, Samuel Parker, Toland, Arthur Collier, Jean Senebier, Tetens, Rosmini, and hundreds of other third-rate philosophers, that such a work is greatly needed. Mr. Burt devotes a section (sometimes several) to each writer, who is taken up, his life briefly narrated, his doctrine stated, and his influence estimated. If Mr. Burt does not display an exceptional power of comprehensive statement, the clear, sensible, and logically excellent arrangement of his work lights it up very much in more senses than one. We could wish he would take more pains to satisfy our curiosity as to just how each metaphysician came to think as he did.

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*Teutonic Switzerland. — Romance Switzerland.* By W. D. McCrackan. Boston: Joseph Knight Co. 2 vols., pp. 315 and 270.

We are in the habit of looking upon Europe as practically immutable, compared with growing, ever-changing America. But as a matter of fact it has been shown lately that the cities of Germany grow and alter more rapidly than our own; and to realize how many changes are constantly taking place in mountainous Switzerland, it is only necessary to compare two or three successive editions of Baedeker's guide-books with one another. Every year new mountain railways are built, new points of view made accessible, and so many other changes are made that thirty or forty extra pages are required to describe them. Indeed, the mere facts and dry directions multiply so rapidly that all historical details and touches of local color in description have to be gradually eliminated. Thus a Baedeker ten years old would to-day utterly fail of its purpose as a guide; but if you should happen to come across one in a hotel book-case, you would find in it much interesting reading-matter which has been gradually crowded out by the accumulating facts and directions.

Under these circumstances it was a happy thought on the part of Mr. McCrackan to write these two volumes, which are intended to be a sort of literary supplement to a guide-book, themselves avoiding all practical directions regarding routes and hotels, but supplying the "atmosphere" which has gradually been banished from the guide-books. Doubtless, also, the author valued the opportunity thus provided to make use of chips that accumulated in his workshop while he was writing his 'Rise of the Swiss Republic.' His present volumes might be briefly described as a pleasant mélange of descriptions of cities and mountains, together with historic glimpses and short biographies of famous men and women who were born in Switzerland or made it their home—Rousseau, Voltaire, Mme. de Staël, Calvin; Saussure, the subduer of Mont Blanc; Sismondi, Amiel, Agassiz, and others.

Globe-trotters think it necessary to go to Japan in order to find the modern side by side with the mediæval, but Switzerland presents many sights almost equally incongruous. "In Bern you can see on the streets a car-line, run

by compressed air, side by side with picturesque milk carts drawn by dogs." Or contrast the luxurious hotels at Interlaken, filled with fashionable loungers from the city, with this picture:

"A pitiable old woman draws a cart. Little boys are scraping dung from the white road. Two women, mother and daughter, are hoeing potatoes, while a grandchild is playing in the dirt—the group forming a perfect Millet, unconsciously artistic. A man drives by on a box-cart full of liquid manure—the drainage of the stables—that leaves behind it a trail of stench to pollute the air. In truth, the life of this peasantry often resembles the misery of city slums as closely as existence out of-doors can do."

The greatest of all contrasts is the electric and cable railway, bringing thousands up to electrically lighted hotels in elevated situations which a century ago were visited only by chamois-hunters and cowherds. Mr. McCrackan devotes a chapter to these railways, dealing leniently with them, as being for the greatest good of the greatest number. This on the æsthetic side; and then it is so much cheaper, too, to go to Mürren, for instance, by railway, than it was by the old method of having your baggage carried up by tortured porters, that one can understand what the author means when he says that the "art of climbing on foot, with its risks and exposures, is going the way of stage-coaching, as a hobby for rich amateurs." But the strongest argument in favor of these railways is overlooked by Mr. McCrackan. It is this, that formerly a tourist had expended all his energy by the time he reached the altitude where the scenery began to be sublime, whereas at present electricity takes him up to a point whence every step further reveals new vistas of grandeur; the train itself, meanwhile, is out of sight in five minutes, and, therefore, makes no dissonance in the Alpine solitude.

For those who prefer the old method of seeing the Alps, plenty of elbow-room remains. They may, for instance, join a party of peasants gathering wild hay, of which process our author says:

"On a fixed day, the haymakers start in companies, carrying with them large nets, or pieces of cloth, to wrap the hay in. For weeks they live in upper solitudes where a false step or an instant's dizziness is fatal. The hay, thus painfully procured, is stored in the upland chalets until it is required for the cattle wintering in the valleys. There is something piteous in this scraping together of every blade of grass; and yet this mountain hay is sweeter and better the higher it grows, fuller of aromatic herbs that give it a delicious, healthful flavor for the cattle."

Among the historic details set forth in these volumes none is more amusing than the fact discovered in the House Chronicle of Grindelwald that, as late as 1777, the glaciers which have since constituted the fame and wealth of that village were looked upon as unwelcome intruders into the valley; so much so that the old monk Sarnen, famous as an exorcist, was begged to operate upon them. To-day "the hotel-keepers are looking for some one to hypnotize the glaciers, and to keep them from crawling back into their mountain recesses." In their indifference to the grandeur of such phenomena the Swiss villagers of a century ago were not alone, for up to that time all Europe regarded the snowy regions of the Alps with the same feelings of terror and æsthetic indifference that the Indians of Washington display towards the summit of Mt. Tacoma. Mr. McCrackan, indeed, goes so far as to intimate that the Swiss themselves have to this day not learned to admire their mountains and glaciers for their own beauty and grandeur, and he ruthlessly destroys another old Swiss myth—that of the world-famed sentimental homesickness of the mountaineers: "There is no sentimental mountaineering cult about them," he says. "They are apt to complain of the hard work when you question them; and their unhappiness in the plains is apparently more of a physical discomfort, due to the heavy air and change of food."

Of the chapters on cities, that on Geneva is the best. The odd fact is mentioned that the Genevese have never erected a statue to their famous citizen Calvin; and believers in free trade will find on pages 13-15 an excellent illustration of the effect of a foolish protective policy in neutralizing rare advantages and resources for trade. In the chapter on Zürich it is erroneously stated that Wagner completed his "Lohengrin" there. In the pages on Lucerne, Engelberg, and other places, there are some delightfully realistic descriptions of the manners and customs of British, German, and French tourists worthy of Daudet. As for the Swiss themselves, our author finds the most salient features in the national character and appearance to be a certain *Urwüchsigkeit*, which makes them "honest as the air, gnarled as the trees are"; the absence of class distinctions and of fashion; frugality, sometimes verging on niggardliness and sordidness even in the rich; and the rarity of personal beauty. But his generalization becomes too sweeping when he says that "the Alemannian race, which predominates in German Switzerland and southern Germany, is perhaps the plainest in Europe," for there is infinitely more personal beauty in southern than in northern Germany. We will take leave of these entertaining volumes with some suggestions regarding two towns of Italian Switzerland. As Monte Generoso is really the lion of Lugano, and is now accessible by railway, mention of it might have been fitly made, for tourists in general do not yet know of this incomparable view, which is far superior to that from the Rigi. For the benefit of invalids in search of winter sunshine attention should have been called to a striking peculiarity of Locarno. This peculiarity, to which the chief forester of Switzerland first called the reviewer's attention, and which he tested subsequently, is that Locarno has many more sunny days in winter not only than any other spot on the Italian lakes, but than the cities of the Riviera, or of northern and central Italy. It is indeed one of the most extraordinary phenomena in Europe, this sunlit corner of Lago Maggiore.

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*Cruising in the Netherlands.* By R. C. Davies. London: Jarrold & Sons.

ALTHOUGH the author does not state it in his book, the daily "forecasts" in the Dutch newspapers relate more to water than to temperature, and to the moisture in the earth beneath rather than in the air or heavens above. Less important than of wind and rain is the knowledge of the depth of water in the rivers, canals, *zee*, *meer*, and *diep* of the Netherlands. Mr. Davies, some years ago, wrote an entertaining book on the cruise of his boat *Atalanta* in Dutch waterways. Since that time a number of Englishmen, as he states (and, to our knowledge, several Americans), have voyaged through the inland waters of this submarine country. They have found much to enjoy while thus far away from the beaten tourist track. Rural Holland is thus both visible and enjoyable. Here the ancient distinctive costumes are worn with as much pride as of yore, while the habits of the people are more primitive. Life on the waterways is the life for the artist and the traveller seeking fresh impressions.

Having made three cruises in the inland waters from Leeuwarden to Ghent, Mr. Davies, in this handy book of about two hundred pages, furnishes information which is almost wholly practical. He tells of yachts, boats, models, prices, help, wages, local regulations, routes, charts, maps, canal dues, etc. In short, he gives exactly what the intending traveller over shallow waters wants to know. His twenty-five short chapters describe his water journeys, and he tells in outline what he saw in the villages, towns, and cities. He is no Havard or De Amicis, and his style is free, unstudied, and by no means classic. He has read Motley, and expects the boat-tourist to have read and to keep on reading him, but he does not quote or apply Motley's passages. Indeed, he would gladly see the nine volumes of our American author condensed into one, with the polysyllables left out. He has many good words to say about the Dutch, and even their language becomes only a kind of grandfatherly English, after a little practice with tongue and ear. In Friesland the resemblance to each other of the two languages is almost comical.

The little book is abundantly but cheaply illustrated and has a good map, besides the detailed route of the *Atalanta*. Not a few Dutch things which to a foreigner seem stupid, unreasonable, behind the times, and utterly uncouth, are shown by this book to be eminently useful, appropriate, and exactly suited to necessities and environment.

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*A Handbook of Mythology.* By E. M. Barens. Maynard, Merrill & Co. Pp. 334.

IF any one thinks it profitable to teach classical mythology systematically, he will find this book a useful manual. But the whole subject was felt to be stale even in the second century; and, if the pardonable pedantry of the Renaissance and the less excusable affectation of certain later periods have momentarily revived a taste for such frigid decorative lumber, these resuscitations have been less and less successful at each attempt. Meanwhile Islam, India, Scandinavia, and even Persia and old Egypt, have given fresher material to modern letters; and, if it is argued that detailed instruction is needed for the understanding of authors whom very few students read without notes—to say nothing of our copious classical and other dictionaries—it should seem still more important to teach the myths which have been brought into general notice by the poets of this century, whose works are often read without any notes whatever; and this would, on the scale of the present volumes, necessitate a considerable library on a very slight subject. It does not seem worth the while to attempt to teach mythology systematically, except as an introduction to the comparative study of religions, for which this book is neither intended nor adapted.

It is furnished with a pronouncing index, and with process illustrations of ancient sculpture, which might be of use. It is divided, rather loosely, into two parts—myths and legends—which the author does not, and could not, keep distinct. The second part is by far the better one, and makes very interesting reading for young people. The first part is divided (quite *au grand sérieux*) chronologically, as if we were dealing with real history, while the true chronology of myths—that which registers their origin and development—seems to be almost wholly neglected.

We have noticed several inaccuracies, such as the derivation of Dioscuri (p. 33) "from *dios*, gods, and kuroi, youths," and misprints such as Bœstia for Bœotia (p. 24).

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*The History of Sicily.* Vol. IV. From the Tyranny of Dionysios to the Death of Agathoklês. By Edward A. Freeman. Edited by Arthur J. Evans. Macmillan. 1894.

THAT Prof. Freeman was a writer who kept far in advance of his printers will be deemed fortunate by those readers who had hoped with his guidance to explore the labyrinth of Sicilian history, and who now have the fourth volume of his great work within reach. More than this, Mr. Evans, Freeman's son-in-law and the editor of this volume, intimates that two more may be expected, one on the Roman Conquest of Sicily and another on the Norman. In our review of the previous volumes, we set forth the characteristics of Freeman's colossal work so amply that we have now little to add. We regret that he began his history with the flood, or earlier, instead of with the Norman conquest, because, while his immense activity in research and his inexhaustible fertility in conjecture have enabled him to insert a good many trifling details into the history of Greek Sicily, he has not, on the whole, thrown new light on the general current of that history. The evidence was all in ages before he was born, and any one could read it in the works of the ancient historians. But Norman Sicily, and, indeed, the annals of the island under the rulers of Hohenstaufen, Anjou, and Aragon, have never been well written, and it was particularly desirable that a man whose information thereon surpassed that of any of his contemporaries should cover that field. We rejoice that Freeman's notes on Norman Sicily were left in such condition that they can be published.

Concerning the present volume it may be said that Mr. Evans has done his work very carefully and reverently. Almost all the notes and several of the appendices are by him, and they show that he has the ability to make simple and brief statements, which his father-in-law had not. His specialty is numismatics, so that he has been able to throw illustrative side lights from his study of Sicilian coins. In several places where the posthumous manuscript failed, the editor avoided a break in the narrative by quoting from Freeman's short 'Story of Sicily.' The fourth century B. C., which is embraced by this volume, saw in Sicily three remarkable rulers—Dionysius, the magnificent tyrant, Timoleon, the Washington of antiquity, and Agathocles, the cruel tyrant; and the reader will find that Freeman presents all that Plutarch and Diodorus, the chief authorities, say about them, besides a vast amount of conjectures which only Freeman himself could spin. His hatred of "the sons of Canaan" in their eternal conflict with the "sons of Hellas," his alertness in hunting up the origin of every village, his trick of antithesis and repetition, his vigor and his erudition, are as conspicuous in this as in any of his works. After we have been amazed by some of his qualities and wearied by others, we involuntarily think of Gibbon, and wish that our modern apostle of the "science of history" could have learned the art of condensation and of narrative from the "unscientific" author of 'The Decline and Fall.'

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Husband of No Importance. Putnams. 50 cents.
Balfour, Dr. G. W. The Senile Heart: Its Symptoms, Sequelæ and Treatment. Macmillan. $1.50.
Chute, H. N. Physical Laboratory Manual. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 80 cents.
Davis, T. W. R. The Questions of King Milinda. [Sacred Books of the East.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Eckstein, Ernst. A Monk of the Aventine. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Fielde, Adele M. A Corner of Cathay: Studies from Life among the Chinese. Macmillan. $3.
Grinnell, Elizabeth. How John and I Brought up the Child. Philadelphia: American Sunday School Union. 80 cents.
Henty, G. A. In the Heart of the Rockies. Scribners. $1.50.
Johnson's Universal Cyclopædia. Vol. V. A. J. Johnson Co. and D. Appleton & Co.
Jones, Benjamin. Cooperative Production. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmilan. $2.50.
Kernahan, Coulson. Sorrow and Song. Philadelphia: J. B Lippincott Co.
Kingsley, Henry. Ravenshoe. 2 vols. Scribners. $2.
Layard, G. S. Tennyson and his Pre-Raphaelite Illustrators. London: Elliot Stock; Boston: Copeland & Day.
McPherson, Edward. A Hand-Book of Politics for 1894. Washington: Robert Beall. $2.
Norris, W. E. A Victim of Good Luck. Appletons. 50 cents.
O'Rell, Max. John Bull & Co.: The Great Colonial Branches of the Firm. C. L. Webster & Co.
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Perrin, Prof. B. Homer's Odyssey. Books V.—VIII. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.50.
Raymond, Evelyn. The Little Lady of the Horse. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Shedd, Prof. W. G. T. Dogmatic Theology. Vol. III. Supplement. Scribners. $4.
Smith, Mary P. W. Jolly Good Times To-Day. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Smyth, Prof. H. W. The Sounds and Inflections of the Greek Dialects. Ionic. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $6.
Storer, Prof. F. H., and Lindsay, Prof. W. B. An Elementary Manual of Chemistry. American Book Co. $1.20.
Sweet, Henry. An Anglo-Saxon Reader in Prose and Verse. 7th ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Thayer, W. R. Poems, New and Old. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
The Red Rose of Savannah. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Thompson, Maurice. Lincoln's Grave. Chicago: Stone & Kimball.
Thorndike, Mrs. Rachel Sherman. The Sherman Letters. Scribners. $3.
Vance, Rev. J. I. The Young Man Foursquare. F. H. Revell Co. 50 cents.
Whitcomb, S. L. Chronological Outlines of American Literature. Macmillan. $1.25.
White, Prof. H. A. The Origin of the Pentateuch in the Light of the Ancient Monuments. Richmond, Va: B. F. Johnson Publishing Co. $2.
Whymper, Edward. Travels amongst the Great Andes of the Equator. New ed. Scribners. $4.
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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 4, 1894.

## The Week.

THE present plight of the New York Democrats recalls what seemed to Burke the appalling thing about the ruin wrought in France a hundred years ago —namely, that it was the work of "men of mean or secondary capacity." At the hands of some splendid though depraved genius, such a wreck of government might have been accepted with better grace. But to see vulgar and sordid mediocrity or stupidity laying waste the fair national inheritance was the crowning disaster of all. In much the same way do self-respecting Democrats contemplate the performances of the Saratoga sans-culottes. They could have pardoned some stroke of brilliant wickedness, but such blind and stupid blundering is hard to bear. Yet, after all, it is but the logical result of Democratic methods and management in this State for the past ten years. More and more have the Democrats of character and ability been thrust out of the party councils and the posts of honor awarded to the men of mean or secondary capacity, and character worse than secondary. So when the leaders came to a desperate turn, where a candidate of another cast was plainly needed, and began to scour the State for such a man, they could not find him. All of that kind they had carefully killed off. So nothing was left but for political stupidity to apotheosize itself.

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Judge Gaynor is reported to have said that "his inclination would be to do almost anything to help Senator Hill, because his recent development in the Senate satisfies everybody that he is a very able man." This is a somewhat Delphic utterance, but it is capable of interpretations which, we trust, Judge Gaynor, for his own sake, will promptly repudiate. To help everybody who shows himself an "able man" would land the best of us in moral quagmires of amazing depth. Benedict Arnold, Aaron Burr, and William M. Tweed were very able men, but few respectable citizens would on that account have agreed to aid them in their enterprises. In fact, the abler a man is, the more attention we need to give to his character and designs. "Do anything to help me" was probably the very thing Hill said to Maynard before he charged him with the duty of stealing the election returns; and we should have thought that this would have impressed a man in Judge Gaynor's position with the need of carefulness in making Hill offers of assistance. Since the Maynard affair, which was not a mistake committed in haste, and which Hill afterward defended on the stump, alliance with Hill even for purposes which he reveals ought to be discreditable. To promise assistance in unknown purposes ought for a respectable man to be impossible. Therefore Judge Gaynor may rest assured that his "inclination" to help Hill is a suggestion of the enemy of souls, a prompting of the carnal heart which he should promptly repress and cast out. We all feel such inclinations now and then. The devil takes us all up every now and then to mountain-tops, and promises us everything we see if we will only fall down and worship him. Happy is the man who knows how to refuse him every time.

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The decision of the Republicans of the Constitutional Convention to submit the apportionment and canal amendments separately, and all the other amendments in a body, is a serious blow to Mr. Hill's candidacy. If all the amendments had been submitted in a body, Mr. Hill could have appealed to Democratic partisanship to defeat the whole batch as containing a menace to the party, and in this way he might have rallied many unwilling voters to his support. But with apportionment standing alone on its merits, it will be impossible to make an issue of it for general party purposes. When we come to examine the thirty-one amendments which are to be accepted or rejected in a body, we find that, with the single exception of the one on the subject of prison labor, none of them is objectionable and most of them are extremely desirable. The prison-labor amendment is utterly indefensible. A more objectionable principle to embody in the constitution of a State it would be difficult to mention, but when the worst view possible is taken of it, the fact remains that the same principle prevails at present in our prisons, and that there will be little accomplished by its adoption in the constitution save to make any change impossible without constitutional amendment. Bad as this would be, it does not strike us as bad enough to justify the rejection of the other amendments. The list of the desirable changes is a very impressive one. It includes separate elections, the application of the merit system to the civil service of the State, the extension of the period of citizenship previous to election from ten to ninety days, forest preservation, the prohibition of railway passes for public officials, the prohibition of pool-selling, and the judiciary, education, and charities articles. Separate elections alone constitute so imperative a reform that it would be advisable, in our opinion, to accept the whole list in order to secure that change.

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The *Tribune* printed on Monday last interviews with the heads of thirty-five business houses of prominence in this city, and every one of them reports a marked and rapid improvement in business of every sort. All make this statement without reservations of any sort, and some do not hesitate to ascribe it in terms to the new tariff. The *Tribune's* headings are: "Business Improving—The Outlook Encouraging—Extensive Preparations to Meet the Growing Trade," etc. Now the *Tribune* during the summer distinctly denounced talk of this sort as unpatriotic, and the editorial page does not countenance it. The writer of the "Money and Business" article says:

> "Financial and trade-papers all record a distinct reaction in business, though differing as to its extent and nature. Some express the opinion that the recent improvement has culminated; others that a renewed and larger advance may be expected later. But the *Tribune* weeks ago described the increase as like the flood which follows the breaking of a dam, giving no indication of lasting increase in the volume of the current."

This is really the proper way for a high-tariff man to look at it. To say that business is permanently improving, and that "the outlook is encouraging," is distinct disloyalty to the party, and extremely un-American. What a protectionist should say is, that "the dam has broken," and the trouble will be renewed by and by. We are, however, puzzled by the fact that, according to the *Tribune*, the dam broke "weeks ago." Should not the torrent, then, have passed by by this time? The pessimism of the *Tribune's* editorial position also shows that pessimism is not always un-American. The Good American differs from the Bad American in knowing when to be pessimistic. The Bad American is nearly always pessimistic about the wrong things, and at the wrong time.

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We notice also a good many advertisements, like John Wanamaker's, announcing cheap goods, as a consequence of the new tariff, and asking people to buy them because they are cheap. These advertisements should be addressed to Democrats alone. Republicans cannot possibly countenance cheapness of any description. That "a cheap coat makes a cheap man," we know from one of the highest Republican authorities, and Senator Lodge and other eminent Republicans have distinctly denounced cheapness as an English device. And what are they rejoicing over in England to-day? Why, they will under the new tariff be able to sell their cheap goods in our markets. It seems to us the Republican journals can hardly

warn their readers too strongly against this flood of corruption with which we are now threatened. The youth of the country are now all being tempted by undisguised offers of cheap pantaloons. Many a boy will undoubtedly date his moral decline from the purchase of the first cheap pair.

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The Portland *Oregonian* contends that wool-growing in this country is "doomed to practical extinction." It thinks that mutton sheep may survive, at all events till they are killed. Yet it may turn out that the land and pasturage now applied to wool-growing will be hereafter used for something more profitable to the nation. The only object of wool-growing is to have wool, as the only object of mutton-growing is to have mutton. We do not produce sheep for their beautiful eyes. The art of having wool is superior to the art of growing it. This is a shocking idea to many people, we know, but they will get reconciled to it, doubtless, in the course of a few years. There is nothing so good as an experiment to test the truth of any proposition. It was proved in England that free wool did not stop wool-growing in that country, although the contrary was predicted and believed. The trouble about wool-growing in Ohio has been that the price of land was too high, not that wool was too low. Yet it will always be profitable for farmers to keep a certain number of sheep to consume odds and ends that would otherwise be wasted. The only unprofitable branch of the business will be the using of land worth $50 an acre to produce something worth at the rate of only $25 per acre.

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The decision of the United States Circuit Court of Appeals modifying Judge Jenkins's strike order will be generally acquiesced in. The order of Judge Jenkins was an injunction to restrain the employees of the Northern Pacific Railroad from "so quitting the service of the receivers, with or without notice, as to cripple the property or prevent or hinder the operation of the road." It was perfectly certain from the beginning that this order could not stand, because it was an infraction of personal freedom. Nevertheless, there was a general desire to have the case argued out in the higher courts instead of being made a political issue in Congress, in order to see what, if any, restraints the common law laid on the employees of a quasi-public corporation. It had been decided before that a crew could not abandon a train between stations, to the inconvenience and distress of passengers or the loss of perishable goods. In such a case there was a public duty to be performed. How far would this principle extend? Were the relations between a solvent corporation and its employees different from those between a receiver of an insolvent one and its employees? These and other questions gave importance to the expected decision. The Circuit Court of Appeals has not decided any more questions than were necessary. It holds that the employees of a railway may quit work either singly or *en masse*, and that they may confer together in order to secure simultaneous quitting. As long as their acts are peaceable the law will sustain them, but violence and intimidation will not be tolerated. The rules which apply to a solvent railway apply equally to an insolvent one. This decision is in harmony with the principles of free government, and is much more rational than an impeachment of Judge Jenkins would have been, which was proposed by certain hotheads in Congress. Perhaps Judge Jenkins's decision was beneficial on the whole to the men, in the way of giving them time for reflection and cool judgment, but the doctrine upon which it was based has no place in American polity.

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The defeat of Mr. Breckinridge was not the only notable triumph of the recent Kentucky primaries. In the Louisville district Edward J. McDermott, a young lawyer of high standing, excellent character, and proved capacity for public affairs, was nominated over Congressman Carruth and one other candidate by a plurality of nearly 2,500 votes. Mr. McDermott made his campaign for the nomination without the aid of a single daily newspaper, and also without the aid of either spoils or friendship for the spoils doctrine, for he had a conspicuous record as a civil-service reformer. The defeat of Mr. Carruth was most significant in this respect, for almost his last act in the closing days of the late session was a bitter attack upon the Civil-Service Commission. The vote polled at the primaries, which in Kentucky are conducted exactly like an election, was about 75 per cent. of the total registered Democratic vote. Under the registry law every voter gives his politics when he registers his name, and is so designated on the list. As the Democratic majority in the Louisville district is from 5,000 to 7,000, there is no doubt of Mr. McDermott's election. He will be a distinct gain to the forces for honest and intelligent government in Washington.

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The Populists in Kansas are fast being overwhelmed in a storm of ridicule. The disclosures about their use of passes are most comical. They came into power denouncing the old parties for their subserviency to the railroads, and now their leaders are found to have been the greediest set of beggars for favors ever known. Moreover, they are ready to lie and cheat in order to "beat" the railroads out of rides. The State auditor has had his pass taken away because he added an "s" to his name when his wife went on a journey, and erased the letter when he wanted to use it himself. The attorney-general had a pass which was not transferable, and a conductor found a judge riding on it in the southern part of the State the other day. The attorney-general thinks that "there is no use in making a fuss about a little thing like that"; but these revelations cannot fail to increase the disgust of the people with the whole Populist crew. They seem to be the cheapest lot of politicians ever thrown to the surface by a "tidal wave."

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The tendency towards a common election day in November has brought about uniformity in all the Northern States except Rhode Island, which still clings to April as the time for choosing State officers; Oregon, June; and Maine and Vermont, September. The proportion is somewhat larger in the South, where Louisiana elects in April, Alabama in August, Arkansas in September, and Georgia and Florida in October. The force of tradition seems to be the principal element which operates to maintain the old system in the North, reinforced in the case of Maine by the desire of the Republican politicians to make their State prominent and give a "favorite son" a boom for the Presidency by rolling up a great majority in September for its "moral effect" upon the national elections two months later. The Southern States have had a special motive for separate elections in the desire to remove the voting for State officers from possible interference by federal officials, serving under the old election laws, at the same polls where the people vote for Congressmen and Presidential electors. Now that these laws have been repealed, the expense of an extra election is likely to incline the people to abolish the system and fall in with the prevailing tendency.

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It is refreshing to find the faculty of a university at last discovering and confessing that hazing hurts its reputation and retards its progress. The freshman class of Princeton is smaller this fall than last, and both President Patton and Dean Murray admit that this is due in part to the hazing outrages of recent years. The dean says that he has heard of a number of cases in which parents have decided to send their sons elsewhere solely on account of hazing, and the toleration of the practice has also operated in instances which are known as a check upon the generosity of those who contemplated giving money to the institution. The faculty are now agreed that hazing "must go," and the students have also voted unani-

mously to sustain them. Cornell also opens the year with a reduced entering class; and the authorities at Ithaca are not behind those at Princeton in recognizing the cause and the cure of their malady. The new chancellor at Syracuse University announced at the beginning of the term that the attitude of the institution was squarely against hazing, that men guilty of it would be expelled, and that "if the law of the State takes hold of you, I would be glad to assist in punishing that ancient form of barbarism." The practice would not have survived so long if faculties everywhere had taken such a stand as this. The great trouble has been that in too many cases the students felt that their performances were winked at by the authorities. An appeal to their manliness will seldom fail. The traditional rush of "Bloody Monday" at Harvard was done away with this week through such an appeal to the two lower classes by the faculty, who announced that the students would be put entirely on their honor and that police interference would not be invoked.

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Congressman Harter says that he cannot take part in the political campaign in Ohio this year, since the Democratic platform has declared for the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1. This policy, if carried out, would be disastrous to the business of the country, and especially to wage workers; and Mr. Harter says that he can have no share in bringing such misery upon his fellow-citizens. His decision is highly creditable. What the Democrats in Ohio need is a good beating, and for this the rods are already in pickle. The Republicans of Ohio are only a shade better, but in this matter shades count.

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M. de Foville, in an article in the *Économiste Français* on the production of gold, says that the yield in the last eighteen years has amounted to $2,040,000,000. It was larger in 1893 than it has ever been in any one year. This shows, he says, "that the production of gold has never been so rapid as it is. At no time in the economic history of civilized peoples, has the gold yield ever been what it is now." Of course, the effect of this on the bimetallic controversy is simply crushing, but it will not raise the character of gold in the eyes of thinking men. It will justify the bad opinion of the metal which its conduct during our war and since then has produced among our people. It is quite evident now that it lay still in the mines until it got a large number of thinkers to commit themselves soul and body to silver, and is now rushing out simply to mortify them. A metal that does this, we feel bound to admit, deserves little consideration at our hands, and is certainly not entitled to an honorable place in our currency. Trickiness and subterfuge are as little creditable to metals as to men. Silver behaved very differently. It came out as well as it could, without delay or deceit. Its antipathy to gold is, in fact, fully justified by what we are now witnessing. The gold-bugs will doubtless chuckle, but we do not envy them their victory. They may line their purses with the new gold, but the poor man with honest, modest, silver in his pocket will have most reason to boast.

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M. Leroy Beaulieu makes a very ill-natured point on the bimetallists in the last *Journal des Économistes*. He says they want an international agreement to fix a common value for silver coins. But, he adds, the Congress which did this would accomplish only the tenth part of its task, for it would as well have to fix the discount on the paper money which so many nations are now using instead of silver and gold. The current money of Russia, Austria, Italy, Spain, and Portugal, to say nothing of Greece and the Argentine Republic, is legal-tender paper, which has in all these countries a discount ranging from 11 to 250 per cent. These would all agree to give silver any value we please, because they never use it. But to make the standard of value the same in all countries we should have to bind them to keep up the value of their paper, or get control in some manner of their printing-presses. It would do us little good to have them fix the value of silver in relation to gold if they kept on issuing depreciated paper. He suggests, instead of the bimetallic chimera, a general international convention for the unification of the coinage—that is, the issue by all nations of gold coins of the same weight and fineness which would circulate everywhere. For silver he would make no provision at all, but another French writer, in an article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, suggests a universal silver dollar and free coinage. There can be little doubt that the tendency of the whole democratic world is in the direction of the free unlimited coinage of both metals, without legal tender, or legal ratio. Then everybody can deal in whichever metal he pleases; the "gold bug" will disappear, and the poor man can have his "cheap money"—which he will not want, however.

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The French protectionists are now very much in the position that ours would have been in if they had carried the election of 1892 and had had to explain the business depression with a high tariff still in the hands of its friends. Protection has had free course in France and been glorified, yet foreign commerce has fallen off disastrously, factories have been shut up, and wages reduced just as if a tariff-wrecking party had got the upper hand. A late bulletin of the French Labor Bureau presents a lamentable picture of the woes that have overtaken French industry. Of the butchers in the Department of the Seine, 40 per cent. are out of work; 17 per cent. of hatters are idle; 25 per cent. of the metal workers in the Department of the Nord have no work; 33 per cent. of the operatives in the woollen mills of La Marne are locked out, and so on through a portentous list. Now what does the French McKinley, M. Méline, say to this? Just what his noble American brother would have said under like circumstances—that is, he calls for more protection. The duties he had put on were high enough for the time, but the wicked foreigners had got around them, and now they have ceased to be "adequate" and must be shoved up a few more notches. But there are signs that this sort of talk is becoming wearisome in France also. There is already a powerful movement to restore reciprocity with Switzerland, and in many other ways the free-traders see cause for encouragement.

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The full text of the new Anglo-Japanese treaty is published in the *Japan Mail* of September 1. It is drawn on the general lines of a treaty of reciprocal amity, commerce, and navigation, and the jurisdiction of British courts in Japan, together with "all the exceptional privileges, exemptions, and immunities enjoyed by British subjects" in that country, is to be wholly abandoned. The treaty is not to go into effect, however, until after five years. This delay is but proper in view of the fact that the codification of Japanese law is not yet completed; it also gives British residents fair warning of what is coming and an opportunity to remove from Japanese jurisdiction if they choose. A protocol includes an agreement on the part of Japan to join the International Conventions for the Protection of Industrial Property and Copyright, and a schedule of tariff rates on the principal articles of Japanese importation, no duty being higher than 15 per cent. ad valorem. The *Mail* reports the native press and political leaders to be well pleased with this recognition of Japan's right to treat on equal terms with civilized Powers, and to be confident that England's example will speedily be followed by other nations. This would seem inevitable. But the "Old Resident" is already lifting up his voice in protest against being left to the tender mercies of native police and judges, and a like plaint will doubtless be heard from Americans in Japan when their turn comes.

### THE NOMINATION OF HILL.

THE nomination of David B. Hill for Governor of New York at once makes straight the paths of all sorts and conditions of men. Nobody need be in any doubt as to the call of duty in the coming campaign. Usually there are complications and hesitations growing out of the mixture of local, State, and national interests on one and the same ticket. There was fear of such complications in the election of city officers this fall. If, for example, Mr. Gaynor had been nominated for Governor, he would have received the support of most if not all of the Independents, and of many Republicans, whose admiration of his course in sending Boss McKane to State prison would have found expression in this "off year" by a silent vote. This would have created a diversion and a contrariety of aims in the councils of the Committee of Seventy, and perhaps have prevented the nomination of a union anti-Tammany ticket in this city. Moreover, if a colorless candidate like John Boyd Thacher had been nominated, the Democrats represented by ex-Secretary Fairchild and Edward M. Shepard, F. R. Coudert, etc., would have been thrown into doubt. It would not have been possible for them all to go one way, because there would have been honest differences of opinion among them. There can hardly be such differences now. In a word, the nomination of Hill makes a sharp and clean division between the vicious and reckless element which supported Maynard last year, and the decent people who buried him under a hundred thousand majority.

It is well known that Maynard was a tool in the hands of Hill; that Hill devised the job of stealing the State Senate by a criminal suppression of the returns of the election in Dutchess County, and that after the crime had been committed and the proceeds pocketed, he caused poor Mr. Flower to appoint Maynard a judge of the Court of Appeals, and that he also caused the poor Democratic party to nominate him for the same office and get itself "snowed under" by the votes of an indignant people. Thus the impudence and fatuity of the Democratic party in nominating this man for Governor of the State surpass belief. Such an act can be explained only on the hypothesis that the party organization in New York is thoroughly depraved; that it is a menace to society, and that no truce or peace with it or its leader is possible.

A glance at Mr. Hill's course since he became Senator is important as showing what sort of claims he has on Democrats on mere party grounds. The only issue of any importance in the last session of Congress was the tariff bill. This bill was a fulfilment, as nearly as circumstances permitted, of the pledge made at Chicago when Mr. Cleveland was nominated. There was, in fact, no other issue in the Presidential campaign that people cared anything about. The fate of the party depended on the passing of some bill looking to tariff reform. What did Mr. Hill do to promote those paramount party interests? He was against the whole bill from first to last, and was so pronounced in his opposition to it that his party associates finally dropped him, and left his name off the list when they called the last caucus on that bill. The belief was freely expressed, moreover, that it was not opposition to the income tax which led to this singular procedure, but the interests of the Sugar Trust, whose purposes would have been best served, not by passing the Gorman-Brice tariff, but by killing the whole bill and leaving the McKinley tariff in force. This affords a rational explanation of Hill's tortuous policy. At all events he ran directly counter to the declared Democratic policy, and therefore has no claims upon the support of Democrats on the score of party fealty.

We consider Mr. Hill the most dangerous man in American public life. He is a "dare-devil," and delights to be considered such. He is attractive to Tammany Hall and to all the bosses and bad elements of society generally, because he represents what they all aim at and strive for. Looking back at the line of Democratic leaders in New York, where do we find his likeness? Where is his place in the list with Van Buren, Marcy, Wright, Seymour, Tilden, Cleveland? The mark of all these men is found in benefits to the State. They all had ambitions. They had their battles, their friends and their enemies; yet the candid judgment of to-day acknowledges that each and all of them had just claims to statesmanship. What has David B. Hill done or aimed to do that entitles him to a place in their company? The people of New York owe it to themselves to put an end to his unprincipled career and bad example. That they will do so in the coming election we have not the least doubt. The majority against him ought to be larger than that against Maynard, because he was the principal where Maynard was only the puppet and the tool. The salvation of this State lies in that large floating vote which generally on election day saves both parties from the discredit which so-called leaders are constantly trying to bring upon them. The great cause of truth and honesty seldom appeals to them in vain, and it will not do so in November. Hill will get his quietus almost as impressively as if he got it in the Oyer and Terminer.

### OBJECT-LESSONS IN MACHINE POLITICS.

WITH the easing of the tariff question there is a chance for civil-service reform to get a hearing again. As long as the war and its sequelæ were upon us, we could not leave off saving the country long enough to prevent the spoilsmen from making it corrupt; and the great gains that were made before the tariff issue reached its partisan intensity and culmination have been held only with difficulty, and scarcely improved upon at all, while the public attention has been absorbed by other questions. Professional politicians, whether in protectionist or low-tariff livery, have not been so wrapped up in argument these seven years past as to forget the good things going in the way of offices. Pickpocket-fashion, they have fixed the people's gaze upon the tariff dispute, upon which they would have us suppose that their own souls were concentrated entire, and have improved the occasion to relieve us deftly of our valuables. It must be admitted that political machines of unparalleled insolence and offensiveness have been built up while the public has been thinking only of voting the tariff down or up. With political rogues ceasing to fall out so violently over the tariff, however, as it now seems certain that they will, honest men may look about them again, and some astonishing object-lessons in machine politics will they see if they do.

This State and its present political campaign furnish two of the most astonishing of them. In one party we behold the spectacle of a machine running away with its party, and in the other a machine running away with its own creator and boss. The mass of New York Republicans were unmistakably and honestly desirous of escaping from Boss Platt this year. The symptoms of revolt against his humiliating and disastrous rule were too numerous and genuine to leave any doubt on that score. But the terrible handicap of a party fighting its own machine again did the business, and Platt had his way as before, not even trying to fool the party, this time, into thinking it was self-governing. He made a respectable nomination for Governor, it is true, far more respectable, there is no manner of doubt, than he would have made had he seen what a walkover his adversaries would prepare for him. But he just as truly flouted and thwarted his party as if he had nominated Belden.

Boss Hill, on the other hand, set out, or professed to set out, to make his machine do two things. One was to discard some of its cogs and wheels, and take in others that did not properly belong to it. The other was to affect an enthusiasm for some candidate not of the machine type. But neither thing would it do. It would run no risk of infecting itself by taking in respectable men. It would feign no admiration for a leader of higher grade than its own. That would be to worship false gods. So it broke over

all bounds and insisted upon nominating the great boss himself. If he could have prevented this, at least he appeared not to be able to prevent it, and that is the same thing as far as an exhibition of the machine doing its perfect work is concerned.

Another full flower of the spoils system was seen blooming in the Seventh Congressional District of Massachusetts last week. The Democrats of that district had elected a reformer in 1892. They had taken him because he was a reformer, and because he was in sharp contrast with the spoilsman whom the Republicans had nominated. They took William Everett at his word, but what was their horror to find, after the election, that he was taking them at their word! They had declared in favor of civil-service reform, and he had the audacity to practise it. He refused to sink the Congressman in the office-broker. He referred office-beggars, with the other kind, to the Organized Charities. But this thing of meaning what a candidate said, and supposing that electors meant what they said, was a little too much of an innovation for the Seventh Massachusetts District, and the machine nominated a man last week whom it thought it could depend upon to swear to his own hurt and change like a gentleman.

Now, the common teaching of these different object-lessons is the fatal degeneracy which the spoils system carries with it into politics. The character of its masters and of its servants becomes necessarily more and more degraded as its power grows greater. The machine must be all of a piece; so men of standing like Mr. Peckham and Mr. Coudert could not be given seats in the convention. To be acceptable to it a candidate must be like unto it; so men like Everett and Choate and Gaynor cannot receive nominations—or if the mistake is once made of nominating them, precious good care is taken not to make that blunder twice. A public officer who serves the machine becomes subdued to the element he works in. If he will not serve it, he is cast out and a man found who will. Thus, both in nomination to office and in continuance in office, the machine is necessarily a deadly instrument of political degeneration.

There is nothing to surprise anybody in this. No phenomenon is better identified than the fatal levelling down of character in public men when the spoils system goes hand-in-hand with representative government. Franklin studied the natural working of the thing in England more than a hundred years ago, and wrote down the results with scientific accuracy. He had been dismayed at the brute way the House of Lords had voted down Chatham's conciliatory motion, and was tempted to rail at a house of "hereditary legislators." But he caught himself with the reflection that "the *elected* House of Commons is no better, nor ever will be while the electors receive money for their votes, and pay money wherewith ministers may bribe their representatives when chosen." The money, of course, came from the "two millions a year in places and pensions" which the Crown had at its disposal. The result was that Franklin could truthfully say of a general election in England: "This whole venal nation is now at market, will be sold for two millions, and might be bought out of the hands of the present bidders (if he would offer half a million more) by the very Devil himself."

We know how England was driven to find a cure. Stringent corrupt-practices acts and an irremovable civil service have worked a revolution in English public life since Franklin's day. We shall have to set our hands to a like task. With the war issues settled, and the tariff question in a fair way to be settled, the next work of Americans must be the reform of their civil service, which is now a national peril at home and a national disgrace abroad.

## "THE MINIMUM WAGE."

BISHOP POTTER, in his recent address to the Episcopal Convention, touched very neatly and forcibly on one of the points in the socialist creed which makes it seem to so many people the product of a wave of insanity passing over the human race. Calling the attention of some of the more hot-headed of the clergy to the sharp distinction between "moral and mechanical laws," he said:

> "A visionary economical project will not become practicable because it is labelled Christian. No amount of morality can confer value upon goods for which there is no market. Wages, it has been said, ought to determine prices, and not prices wages. It seems to have been forgotten that prices are but the convenient registers of the ever-varying desires of men, and that the claim to fix wages by an ethical standard, independently of the market, really involves the assertion that human desires can be and *ought to be* unalterable in direction and constant in extent!"

Now, this connection between wages and prices is almost wholly overlooked, not only by socialists proper, but by a great many people who seek simply to improve the condition of the laborer under the existing régime of competition. Nearly all those who say the workingman *ought* to have such and such comforts, *ought* to live in such and such a way, *ought* to have what, in the jargon of the labor agitator, is called "a minimum wage," seem to forget wholly that the employer has to find the means of paying any wage at all, in the market. In fact, finding a market for the product of the laborer is the chief point of the employer's business. It is success in finding a market which in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred constitutes business success. It is the difficulty of finding and keeping a market which explains the failure of most coöperative attempts at production, as well as the success of so much of the coöperation for consumption. There are ten men who can produce goods well, for one who can get people to buy them. The seller is in every factory the most important man. The great "Captains of Industry" are the men who capture the buyers all over the world.

In most socialist lucubrations these facts are wholly overlooked. In nine-tenths of the socialist speeches and pamphlets, and in nearly all the talk about "the minimum wage," the employer figures as a man who, having through the labor of his employees made a large quantity of goods, or mined a good deal of coal or iron, keeps nearly all the product for himself, and doles out only an infinitesimally small portion to his workers. The fact is, however, that he has to sell the whole product to somebody before he gets anything either for himself or them. One would suppose from much of the labor talk, that, in order to sell it, he could collar people on the highway and make them come in and give their orders. Far from this, there is nobody so independent, so shy, so skittish, so capricious or fastidious as the buyer. He is constantly looking round for a bargain. Show him some place where he can get his goods a cent a pound lower than your offer of your most excellent wares, and off he goes. Tell him that if he does not buy from you at such and such a rate, you will not be able to give your workmen their minimum wage, and he laughs at you. He has himself a family to support, and must make ends meet, and pay his debts, and he treats your talk as so much twaddle.

What is most curious about all this practice of ignoring the relation between prices and wages is, that every man who has anything to sell, even he who has nothing but his own labor to dispose of, knows the difficulty of finding a market, and is well aware that his very existence depends on his success. He knows that if he enters a store, or dwelling-house, or farm to ask for work, and says he must have a minimum wage, inasmuch as justice entitles him to such and such comforts, he will be ejected with ridicule. All people who do business on a small scale, the retail storekeeper and the milkman, the farmer and the baker, the butcher and the book-seller know well what a shy bird the buyer is—how he has to be cajoled and petted and humbugged even, to induce him to make the smallest purchase. The weekly newspaper and its chromo or fraudulent cyclopædia, proclaims, trumpet-tongued, to all the world the wild and irreclaimable character of the subscriber. But when men are employed in large numbers in a facto-

ry or a mine, all this seems to be forgotten. The employer is supposed to have a secret store of good things on which he can draw at pleasure, and to be able to fix the wages he will pay without the smallest reference to the public demand for his goods. In all socialistic Utopias, too, this need of a market is wholly ignored. We are all of us to be set to work producing vigorously, but no mention is ever made of purchasers. We presume, however, these will be provided by law, and will be brought in chains to the market and made to buy enough to keep laborers comfortable.

A large proportion of these delusions is due to a failure to go into these questions in detail. Few socialists ever give themselves the trouble to put themselves in the employer's place, and follow him through the processes by which alone he can get rid of his goods. When they reach the completion of the product in the laborer's hands, they take the stump and begin to descant on social justice and injustice. In like manner, half the balderdash which one hears about international trade is due to the supposition that nations trade with each other as nations. If we considered for a moment that international trade is carried on by individuals, who keep books and expect profit in their transactions, we should never hear a word of that dreadful stuff about our losses when "the balance of trade" is against us, to which Republican orators are so prone. We may always feel sure that the trade of the country is safe in the hands of the men who are conducting it, and whose fortunes depend on their skill. The notion that Congressmen can profitably take it out of their hands is really a bit of the socialist delusion.

## THE CHÂTEAU DE VAUX.

PARIS, September 2, 1894.

THOUGH it is very accessible from Paris, the château of Vaux is not often visited; its reputation is founded more on historical remembrances than on its own artistic merits. It is the place which was visited by Louis XIV. when the Superintendent Fouquet had made it what it is, and its splendor was one of the causes of the disgrace and imprisonment of that unfortunate man. A half-hour's drive took me, some time ago, from Melun to Vaux (you can get to Melun from Paris by the Lyons railway in forty minutes) through the fertile but unpicturesque plain of Brie. The château of Vaux, now called Vaux-le-Vicomte, is in an undulation of this plain, and you first see among the trees the summit of the round dome which is in the centre of the château. Leaving the high-road almost at a right angle, you have a view of the château with the immense court before it, forming a quadrangle, two sides of which consist of what we call the *communs* (stables, orangeries, houses for dependents and servants), and the third of a long iron grille divided by a series of gigantic columns (or rather *gaînes*, the word used in France for pillars surmounted by statues without legs, which emerge, so to speak, from the stone). In the middle is a large gate, and all along the grille runs a ditch. The château, as seen from the entrance, is very striking from the beauty of its proportions, the variety of its planes, and its lightness as it rises over a high flight of steps.

The style is what may be called pure seventeenth century. It was built at the time when French architects had abandoned the forms of the Renaissance, and looked chiefly for a beautiful *ordonnance*. The châteaux of the Renaissance had been almost all built on the sites of old feudal castles, and had preserved their complexity of towers, of inner and outer courts, of staircases; the architects of the sixteenth century cared little for symmetry and *ordonnance;* the architects of the *grand siècle* had a new ideal—they felt unconsciously the necessity of putting their works in harmony with the ideas of a new era. Their works had all something royal; Versailles was the highest expression of this new ideal. Regularity, symmetry, a return to the classical forms of antiquity, large proportions, great richness of ornamentation without too much minuteness, a certain sense of ease and of majesty—such are the general traits of the Louis Quatorze style. When Fouquet bought the estate of Vaux, he was very fortunate in his choice of an architect. Levau was the son of a "Conseiller du Roy, grand voyer et inspecteur-général des bâtiments de sa Majesté á Fontainebleau," and had succeeded to his father. He had been a pupil of Lemercier and Lemuet, architects of the Palais Cardinal and of the Luxembourg. M. Sommier, the present proprietor of Vaux, showed me a very curious plan of the château, with the signatures of Fouquet under the word "approuvé," of the architect Levau, and of the contractor of the building.

Fouquet chose Vaux as a residence probably on account of its proximity to Fontainebleau, where the court often resided. It was, he said afterwards, in his Defence, "an estate which I considered my principal establishment before I acquired Belle-Isle, and where I wished to leave some mark of the state in which I was." The plans were made in 1640, and the great works begun only towards 1656, when the civil wars had quite come to an end and the construction of the Louvre had been resumed. Fouquet had the good fortune to employ not only Levau, but also the great gardener Le Nôtre and the great painter Lebrun. I have seen many of the gardens planted and arranged by Le Nôtre, and have always admired their beautiful lines, their *miroirs* (the classical name for the *pièces d'eau*), their *parterres*, their *charmilles*, their harmony on one side with the work of the architect and on the other with the work of nature. But I have admired Le Nôtre nowhere more than at Vaux; he has almost surpassed himself, and it is impossible to imagine a finer sight than the immense parterres spreading from the side of the château opposite the courtyard away to the valley of a small rivulet, behind which the ground rises as far as the horizon. Imagine all over the parterres beautiful rows of flowers, marking the geometric lines of the design, marble vases, statues of all sorts, cascades, fountains, basins; on the two sides long lines of trees; in the distance a gigantic statue of Hercules glittering against the sky.

When M. Sommier bought the estate, about twenty years ago, the beautiful gardens were in a sad state of decay; fortunately his large fortune allowed him to repair everything, and he has succeeded in ornamenting the place with the most consummate taste. He has quite devoted himself to this great work. When I visited the grounds in his company, all the waters were playing; he told me that they required 750 cubic metres of water every hour—no small amount to find in Brie—and which could be collected only at a very great expense. There is not a vase, not a statue placed in this fine parterre which is not a real work of art, of a good style. M. Sommier has been fortunate enough to find a Huntress Diana in bronze, cast by the Keller Brothers, so celebrated for the quality of their bronzes. (They made all the bronzes at Versailles.) I cite this detail to show how careful he is to choose what is best in ornamentation. In the château he has been equally respectful of the style. The middle part is occupied by a hall, which leads to a magnificent dome eighteen metres in height. This dome is now the great drawing-room. The circular walls, divided by great pilasters, show the plain color of the stone; they had been painted over in various colors, but M. Sommier wisely had the painting washed away. He found at the sale of the Pompeian house, which Prince Napoleon had built for himself in the Avenue Montaigne under the Second Empire, twenty-four antique Roman busts of great size. They have been placed on pedestals round the hall, and add much to its majesty. The doors and windows on one side open on the magnificent parterres. The dome proper was to have been painted by Lebrun. Our great French painter adorned all the drawing-rooms at Vaux with beautiful ceilings and caissons, in the style of those which are so much admired at Versailles. They are admirably preserved and show the development of the talent of Lebrun, who, on his return from Italy, remained seven years in the neighborhood of Vaux, at Maincy, which had then a manufactory, where were executed those marvellous tapestries which now adorn our royal palaces. The pictures for the dome were never executed; Audran engraved them from the cartoons of Lebrun. It may be, however, that Lebrun had begun his work, for Lafontaine, in the "Songe de Vaux," speaks of the decoration of the salon, "laquelle on ne pouvait assez estimer."

Fouquet was a very generous patron of art. Lafontaine remained faithful to him, as did Corneille, who made a dedication to him. Mlle. de Scudéry gives, in her 'Clélie,' a description of Vaux which is very exact and worth reading.

"This place," she says, "has such a surprising beauty that it cannot be imagined if you have not seen it, nor even well represented after you have admired it. It was undertaken and finished by a man who does nothing that is not great, and whose mind, with its vast comprehension, cannot conceive any small designs. . . . You must not imagine that Vaux is one of those places which nature has sufficiently embellished. On the contrary, it can be said without any exaggeration that Cléonime [Fouquet] has completely changed it and that there is not a place where he has not added a new grace. He has divided a river into a thousand fountains, he has united a thousand fountains into torrents. . . ."

Mlle. de Scudéry describes very accurately the great court, "which is, so to speak, on a mountain of architecture, for the staircase which occupies all the breadth of the court has four divisions and more than twenty steps, which lends great majesty to the building"; the great vestibule, which leads "to the most superb salon that ever was." She then describes the pictures of Méléandre (Lebrun). The cupola of the dome was dedicated to the sun. The god "was on a throne, with a few steps, on which the Hours, daughters of the

Sun, go up and down. He is covered with a golden mantle and crowned with the immortal laurel. He has one hand on his lyre and makes a sign with the other to Aurora, as if giving her an order." Then follows a description of a new constellation placed in the sky in the form of a squirrel (*fouquet* is the popular name for the squirrel in Brittany, and the Superintendent had a squirrel in his coat of arms), and three other stars, together with Saturn, Jupiter, and Mars. All these pictures had an allegorical meaning: the sun was to represent Fouquet, who shone everywhere and worked for the conservation and embellishment of the universe.

The description in 'Clélie' and the engravings of Audran are all that are left to us of these decorative pictures of the dome: at the present moment the cupola is painted all over with clouds, and there is merely a huge eagle in its centre. It has often been said that Fouquet adopted the ambitious device of "Quo non ascendam?" M. Sommier, who has collected carefully all the objects he could find that belonged to Fouquet, told me that the real device was "Quo non ascendet?" which merely applies to the squirrel. All over the beautiful salons, decorated by Lebrun, is to be found a double F, in small cartouches. These salons cannot be well described; they all have magnificent gilded and painted ceilings, and their walls are wooden panels divided into compartments, all of which are painted over somewhat in the style of Raphael's *loggie* at the Vatican.

It was not easy to furnish these splendid salons. In order to do so, M. Sommier collected the finest furniture—clocks, lustres, chairs, etc.—that he could find, all in the Louis Quatorze style. Fouquet, if he could return to Vaux, would find nothing out of harmony with the time in which he lived.

It is commonly said and believed that the splendor of Vaux was the chief cause of the arrest and imprisonment of the Superintendent. After D'Artagnan arrested Fouquet, by order of the King, he was put in prison and tried. The proceedings were kept secret, but it is well proved now that Fouquet's ambition was the cause of the King's anger; the Superintendent really thought of making himself the master of the kingdom, and using the King as a mere instrument. Louis XIV. was not like Louis XIII.: he would not have a prime minister like Richelieu or Mazarin. It is quite true that it was after a visit to Vaux that he decided upon the arrest of Fouquet, against whom, however, he was already much incensed. Fouquet had had the imprudence to try to become the King's rival with Mlle. de la Vallière, and to offer a large sum of money to the young *dame d'honneur* of Madame, who was in love with the King, and who was to become his favorite for a time.

After Fouquet, the most notorious owner of Vaux was Marshal Villars, who kept it for a very long time. Villars's arms (a lion and three stars) are to be found in many places in the château, sometimes painted over the squirrel or the double F of Fouquet. The marshal had his principal battles painted by one of those artists who followed the style of Van der Meulen and Martin des Batailles. M. de Vogüé, who has written a valuable work on Villars, says that there were ten such battles painted under the immediate supervision of the marshal. Six only are now left at Vaux, in the dining-room. M. de Vogüé owns, I believe, one; the others have been lost.

After Marshal Villars, the château came into the possession of the Choiseul-Praslin family. The Duc de Praslin inhabited it for a long time; it was sold by his heirs to M. Sommier, who employs perhaps the largest part of his large revenue in the continual and most intelligent embellishment of the place. M. Sommier married a granddaughter of M. de Barante, whose Memoirs are now in course of publication and have already several times come under our notice.

# Correspondence.

## A COPYRIGHT SUGGESTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The United States, with a people speaking a language common to nearly all, and with an area almost equal to the whole of Europe, with its dozen or more different languages, has only one depository for the books that are copyrighted. A national library is subject to all the ordinary risks of loss, with an additional risk of loss by an act of war. Everything should not depend upon one place. Safety and the rights of future generations of students demand that there should be more than one. Nor is this demand unreasonable. The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland has five. At one time it had eleven. The British law requires that a copy of every edition of a book must be delivered to the British Museum, "bound, stitched, or sewed together, and upon the best paper on which the book is printed." Furthermore, "copies of every edition of every book published must, if demanded, be delivered to an officer of the Stationers' Company for each of the following libraries: the Bodleian Library, the Cambridge University Library, the Advocates' Library at Edinburgh, and the Library of Trinity College, Dublin." The Bodleian Library, Oxford, received from this source during 1893, as stated in the annual report, 39,619 volumes.

Every book that is copyrighted in the United States should be placed in the National Library at Washington, as at present (two copies), and at least one additional copy elsewhere. This new depository should be in the State in which the owner of the copyright resides. The Legislature of each State should name the State depository, which would probably be the State Library in most cases, or else the Library of the State Historical Society, or that of the State University. As a rule, books of a purely local interest seldom get into the regular channels of the trade, and often they cannot be found by those to whom they would be of most service. Under the present copyright law no State can have a library with anything like a complete collection of the publications relating to the State. Several thousand books were published in Maryland before the civil war, and it is quite certain that there is not a library in the State that contains one-third of them. The student of the future should be assured that there will be at least one library in the State with practically everything relating to it. He should not be compelled, as at present, to travel thousands of miles to Washington.

Of the advantages of this plan to the people of the different States there can be no doubt; and the advantages would increase every year. In some instances it would be a burden to the publisher, as is the present law; in many, it would be an advantage; and in the vast majority of cases, a matter of no consequence. The practical details necessary for its operation are not at all difficult; and they will suggest themselves at once to those who would have its execution in charge. Samuel H. Ranck.

Enoch Pratt Free Library,
Baltimore, September 26, 1894.

## THE TRUMBULL SKETCHES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Referring to an article on the collection of Trumbull sketches, which appeared in your columns, allow me to say that the price first asked, $15,000, was decided upon because it represented the average estimated valuation made by three gentlemen—two dealers, the other a private collector. Tempting offers for single pieces were made by collectors during the sale, but no adequate ones for the entire collection. I alone am responsible for the reduction to $8,000—not because my estimate of the quality or real value of the collection has decreased; quite the contrary is the case. The notes on the back of most of the framed pictures, to which you refer, are not in pencil, but in ordinary writing ink. Those bearing the signature J. T. are unquestionably in Trumbull's own hand, the others are presumably written by him.

I fear that my position as respects this collection has been misapprehended. My object in publishing the catalogue so severely criticised was not to enter into an historical description, but simply to furnish a correct list of the subjects with a better arrangement than was presented in the first edition, also compiled by me. In offering the collection entire or in part the fact cannot be too strongly emphasized that I am prepared to give the buyer absolute written guarantee of authenticity. It may be regrettable that not more has been published about the history of the collection from the time it left Trumbull's hands until now; but the former owners have regarded and still regard this as a matter of private concern, which it is not yet in my power to elucidate.—Very respectfully,

Ed. Frossard.

New York, September 27, 1894.

## WOMEN AT LEIPZIG.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I read with great interest your article about "Women Students and Women Teachers in Germany." Allow me to make some remarks about the few lines devoted to Leipzig University—as they seem to be based merely upon the official note of the secretary. Having been a student there from 1889 till the fall of 1893, I can give more particulars. As the article says, women may, by personal application to the different professors, obtain admission to the lectures of the philosophical faculty without being regarded as regular students. But the situation is no more "the same as it has been for years," inasmuch as, by offering certain testimonials as to former education, character, and plans, women may also become regular members (*ordentliches Mitglied*) of the different university seminaries. I was for five semesters a member of the geographical seminary and for almost the same time also of the seminary for history of art ("Kunstgeschichtlicher Apparat"), and took part in the discussions, preparing for them with as much assistance from the leading professors and librarians as any man would have—perhaps even with more. Miss Kate Winscheid, whom your article mentions, has likewise been a member of several philological seminaries; Miss Ellen Semple, from Louisville, Ky., was another student at the geographical seminary,

enjoying also the same regular membership in the seminary of political economy. Let me also mention that any professor who admits ladies to his lectures will, upon request, certify to her attendance either on a general list or by a special testimonial.

Any woman may similarly obtain the same privileges, though she will probably, outside of the philosophical faculty, now and then strike upon a man with less broad views than, for instance, those of Dr. Ratzel. He, at the conclusion of my studies, offered me a final examination (*Staatsprüfung*) and gave me a certificate to that effect, thus bestowing on a woman the same rights as men obtain by a regular course of university studies. My sole object in writing this letter is to controvert the idea that a woman's attempt to study at Leipzig University, and to get a testimonial as to her studies there, would be fruitless. I can with good conscience encourage any woman who may be contemplating application to Leipzig. Every female student working together and in competition with men, helps to destroy old prejudices. I am willing to give any further information, as I came in contact with most of the leading professors and know their points of view concerning women students.

Very respectfully, ADELE LUXENBERG.

15 EAST ELEVENTH ST., NEW YORK,
September 28, 1894.

# Notes.

THE autumn announcements of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. add to the new Life of Whittier the following New England biographies: 'Lucy Larcom: Life, Letters, and Diary,' by the Rev. Daniel D. Addison, and 'George William Curtis,' by Edward Cary, with these kindred works: 'Danvis Folks,' by Rowland E. Robinson; 'Side Glimpses from the Colonial Meeting-House,' by William Root Bliss; 'From Blomidon to Smoky, and Other Papers,' by the late Frank Bolles; and 'Narragansett Ballads, with Songs and Lyrics,' by Caroline Hazard. Add 'Riverby,' by John Burroughs; 'A Florida Sketch-book,' by Bradford Torrey; 'Glimpses of Unfamiliar Japan,' by Lafcadio Hearn; 'In the Dozy Hours, and Other Papers,' essays, by Agnes Repplier; 'Talk at a Country House,' by Sir Edward Strachey; 'Childhood in Literature and Art,' by Horace E. Scudder; 'The Life of the Spirit in the Modern English Poets,' by Prof. Vida D. Scudder; 'A Victorian Anthology,' by E. C. Stedman; 'Unguarded Gates, and Other Poems,' by T. B. Aldrich; 'In Sunshine Land,' poems for young folks, by Edith M. Thomas; 'Studies in Folk-song and Popular Poetry,' by Alfred M. Williams; 'Latin Poetry,' lectures delivered at Baltimore by Prof. R. Y. Tyrrell of Dublin University; 'The Letters of Samuel Taylor Coleridge,' edited by Ernest Hartley Coleridge; the ninth volume (last but one) of Prof. Child's 'English and Scottish Popular Ballads'; 'Religious Progress,' by Prof. Alexander V. G. Allen; 'Following the Greek Cross: Memories of the Sixth Army Corps,' by Gen. Thomas W. Hyde; 'Little Mr. Thimblefinger and his Queer Country,' by Joel Chandler Harris; and 'Three Boys on an Electrical Boat,' by Prof. John Trowbridge.

In addition to books of T. Y. Crowell & Co. already announced by us, we note in their fall list a new edition of Boswell's Johnson, edited in two volumes by Mowbray Morris; the Complete Poetical Works of Milton and of Scott, each in two volumes; a reissue of Faber's 'Hymns,' with fifty illustrations by L. J. Bridgman; the perennial 'Monte Cristo' and 'The Three Musketeers,' in two volumes each, and a popular edition of Carlyle's 'French Revolution,' in one; editions of Irving's 'Alhambra' and 'Sketch-Book'; 'American Charities,' by Prof. Amos G. Warner; and 'Twenty-five Years of Scientific Progress,' by Prof. W. N. Rice of Wesleyan.

F. H. Revell Co. will publish 'Among the Thibetans,' by Mrs. Isabella Bird Bishop; 'Pictures from Bohemia,' by James Baker; 'The Meeting-Place of Geology and History,' by Sir J. William Dawson; and two new volumes of missionary biography, 'Reginald Heber,' by A. Montefiore, and 'Among the Maoris.'

A. C. Armstrong & Son announce a new edition of Poe's works in six volumes, with a Memoir and Introduction by R. H. Stoddard; 'The Historical Geography of the Holy Land,' by Prof. G. A. Smith; the eighteenth volume in the Book-lovers' Library, being 'Walton, and Some Earlier Writers on Fish and Fishing,' by R. B. Marston; and also a new (7th) volume of 'The Book Worm.'

Messrs. Roberts Bros., Boston, will publish on October 6 Miss Wormeley's translation of Balzac's 'Catherine de' Medici'; the 'Voyage of the Liberdade,' by Capt. Joshua Slocum; collected stories by Susan Coolidge and A. G. Plympton; and Leigh Webster's 'Another Girl's Experience.'

Dodd, Mead & Co.'s latest announcements include a second series of Mr. H. W. Mabie's essays, 'My Study Fire'; a second series also of Austin Dobson's 'Vignettes'; 'The Highway of Sorrow,' by Miss Hesba Stratton; 'Beside the Bonnie Briar Bush,' by Ian MacLaren; 'Kitty Alone,' by S. Baring Gould; 'Corrected Impressions,' a collection of essays by George Saintsbury; a new edition of Dickens's 'Tale of Two Cities,' with many illustrations by Edmund H. Garrett; a volume on China by Chester Holcombe; and the 'Memoirs of the Duchesse de Gontaut.'

S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, are to be the publishers of 'Which Wins?' by Mary H. Ford.

A. C. McClurg & Co. of the same city announce 'Reminiscences of a Portrait Painter,' by the late G. P. A. Healy; 'Tales from the Ægean,' translated from the Greek of Demetrios Bikelas; and 'Jewish Tales,' from the French of Sacher-Masoch.

Ginn & Co., Boston, have in press 'Outlines of the Syntax of Mood and Tense in the Latin Finite Verb,' by Prof. W. G. Hale.

F. Tennyson Neely, Chicago, will include in his new "International Library" an authorized translation of Zola's 'Lourdes'; Grant Allen's 'At Market Value'; 'Rachel Dene,' by Robert Buchanan; and 'The One Too Many,' by E. Lynn Linton.

W. R. Jenkins, in addition to his lengthening list of school text-books in French, Spanish, German, and Italian, will shortly publish Jean Peiffer's 'French Pronunciation,' together with two drill books by the same author, and 'Cartes de Lecture Française pour les Enfants Américains," by the Misses Gay and Garber.

To supply the defect of a good American edition of Henry Kingsley's novels, Charles Scribner's Sons have begun a well-considered uniform reprint with 'Ravenshoe,' in two very taking 16mo volumes, bound in wine-colored cloth. The page has an agreeable proportion, the type is clear if small. 'Austin Elliott' and 'The Recollections of Geoffry Hamlyn' will follow shortly. The same firm are the American publishers of Lady Dufferin's 'Songs, Poems, and Verses,' lately noticed in our columns.

The 'Encyclopædic Dictionary' published by the Syndicate Publishing Company of Philadelphia (vol. i., A–Cre) is obviously a reprint from the plates of the work bearing the same title published by Cassell in 1888 in fourteen volumes. It would be, therefore, useless to search (at least at this stage) for evidences of Prof. Charles Morris's "adapting the work to the American public," or of the supplementing of his labors "by numerous specialists" unnamed. The purchaser is admonished that the work has been "brought up to date," but is not informed what interval of time has thus been covered. Perhaps all will come to light in the end.

The "Temple Shakspere" of J. M. Dent & Co. (New York: Macmillan) continues its dainty course with "A Midsummer Night's Dream" and "The Merchant of Venice," and continues to satisfy the many needs of taste, understanding, economy of space and expenditure.

As if to leave no room for competition, Mr. Wallace Bruce, whose panorama of the Hudson we lately noticed, has just issued a companion guide-book, 'The Hudson' (New York: Bryant Union), which maps the river throughout its course, the metropolis and the capital city, and furnishes a great store of historical and local information for the tourist. Pen-and-ink drawings and some photographic cuts complete the apparatus.

The Abstract of the Proceedings of the Linnæan Society of New York for the year ending March 27, 1894, is notable for a paper by J. A. Allen on recent progress in the study of North American mammals, and for a descriptive list of ornithological publications for the years 1876–1883, by L. S. Foster, with citations of critiques thereon. Prof. Allen gives some startling figures respecting the recent extension of our knowledge of the mammals of this continent, north of Mexico, especially in comparison with the exhibit in Baird's great work of 1857. The increase in the case of rodents has been nearly 200 per cent., of bats 60, of insectivores 65, and of carnivores 42.

The great Atlas of the War which has been so long in course of publication by the War Department, appears to be drawing to an end. The 28th and 29th parts begin a general topographical map of the theatre of war which will be of much service to the student, in connection with general histories as well as with the battle-maps of preceding numbers of the Atlas itself. High-roads and the railroads of the period, and places in sufficient number, mountain and plain, are delineated; but there is no attempt by color or the symbol of crossed swords to mark the scenes of engagements. Sheets 1 to 10 exhibit most of the South east of the Mississippi.

The *Geographical Journal* for September is of exceptional interest. It opens with an account of some independent tribes inhabiting the mountain district, called Kafiristan, on the eastern border of Afghanistan. The author, Mr. G. S. Robertson, was the first European to succeed in penetrating to their almost inaccessible valleys, although several have made the attempt. They are a remnant, possibly, of the aboriginal inhabitants of India, and speak "three entirely distinct languages, besides many dialects." "The usual type of feature is distinctly good—purely Aryan." As their name, Kafir, given them by their Mohammedan neighbors, signifies, they are idolaters, though their images appear to be wooden family effigies or monoliths. Their religious

rites consist simply of dances, songs, and sacrifices. Some of their traditions are curious, as that, for instance, of the confusion of tongues. Their dead are neither buried nor burned, but are placed in large boxes on the hillsides, orations being pronounced over the bodies of warriors. Their most striking mental characteristics are cupidity, jealousy, and intertribal hatred. The second article is an account of a journey made four years ago by Mrs. Henry Louis on the river Telubin, which drains a country divided into semi-independent Malayan states tributary to the King of Siam. The tribute is paid triennially, and consists in part of a gold, sometimes also a silver, tree. "These trees are of various sizes, between one and three feet in height, very neatly made; the stem and branches consist of stout gold wire, to which the leaves, made of thin plates of gold, are fastened." Though strict Mohammedans, the rajahs are obliged to come or send a representative every half-year to a Buddhist shrine to drink the waters of allegiance.

The principal articles in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for August are a short description of the Rio Napo, a continuation of Dr. K. Dove's contributions to the geography of southwest Africa, in which he discusses its prevalent diseases, and a purely technical account of the vegetation of the central Carpathians. Of more general interest at the present time is a short account, derived from Russian sources, of the progress of the railway from Tientsin to Kirin, the principal city of eastern Mantchuria, and not far from the Corean frontier. At the close of 1892 the road was in operation for a distance of eighty-seven miles from Tientsin, and in the next year another section was opened for travel, though the road was not entirely completed. From the last accounts, a temporary pile bridge over the river Lwan was nearly finished, and the road-bed as far as Shan-hai-kwan, where the Great Wall comes down to the Gulf of Pe-chi-li, was ready for the rails. The final surveys have been made to Moukden, the capital of Mantchuria. The strategic value of this road in time of war is greatly lessened by the fact that for some two hundred miles it runs close to the shores of the Gulf.

M. Gaidoz celebrates gayly the five-hundredth anniversary not of his folk-lore journal, *Mélusine*, but of the completion (August 7, 1394) of the romance of Jean d'Arras in which his patroness saw the light. He discusses the etymology of the fairy's name—if it have any, outside of the author's fancy—and copies in facsimile the pictorial title-page of the Paris edition of 1517 of the 'Histoire de Mélusine.' The rest of the July-August number is mainly given up to an interesting study of the blacksmith Saint Éloi, for whom a sorceress detached the half-leg of the horse he was shoeing. Here, too, we have some curious prints by way of illustration.

The first volume of Dr. Luigi Piccioni's 'Giornalismo Letterario in Italia,' which begins with Nazzari's *Giornale dei Letterati* published at Rome in 1668, embraces the learned-academic variety of journals, down to Verri's *Caffè*, Gozzi's *Osservatore*, and Barette's *Frusta Letteraria*. The work is very readable, full of anecdote and reminiscence, and is well furnished with scholarly indexes and a bibliography. For political journalism in the peninsula one must go to Bonghi, says the *Bollettino* of the Florence Central National Library, from which we derive our information.

—The *Century* for October contains three or four articles of a biographical tincture—a welcome change from the prevailing tendency to run to travel and fiction. It opens with selections from a forthcoming volume of the letters of Edwin Booth, edited by his daughter. The letters here printed display Booth in some sides of his character but little known to the general public. Their interest would have been much enhanced by illustrative notes, and by supplying the missing dates. For instance, when Booth mentions the tercentenary Shakspere benefit, it would have been well to explain, for younger readers, that he refers to a representation of "Julius Cæsar," in which he and his brothers, John Wilkes and Junius Brutus, took part. A similar remark might be made concerning the third instalment of Poe's letters. A strong literary and biographical interest attaches also to the second chapter of the Recollections of Aubrey de Vere, written in a charming style and furnishing a number of touching details concerning the romantic career of Gerald Griffin. Gen. J. B. Fry attempts to show, from McClellan's letters and other writings, that he considered himself charged with a mission from God to save the country, and that his vagaries arose from that delusion.

—The most noteworthy article in the *Atlantic* is ex-Senator Dawes's "Recollections of Stanton under Johnson," in which some of the exciting incidents connected with the Tenure of Office Act and the impeachment of Johnson are vividly related. Mr. Dawes tells us, among other things, that President Johnson, during the short-lived zeal against the rebels which animated him at his accession to the government, was preparing to institute proceedings against General Lee, but was deterred from that design by the determined opposition of General Grant, who declared that the pledge he had given to Lee at Appomattox "should be maintained at all hazards." Secretary Stanton sustained Grant in this position, and thus was brought on the conflict between him and Johnson which culminated in the impeachment trial. "Retrospect of an Octogenarian," by George E. Ellis, a Harvard graduate of 1833, is such a genial, gossipping paper as one expects from an old gentleman, and has three or four amusing anecdotes. In 1838 Mr. Ellis met in Rome Dr. Charles Lowell and read to him, out of letters from home, some extracts from the Harvard class poem written by Dr. Lowell's son; upon which the doctor said, with a nervous earnestness, "I do not like that. James promised me, before I left home, that he would give up his poetry and keep to his books." "A Playwright's Novitiate," by Miriam Coles Harris, is an entertaining enumeration of the difficulties that beset the career of the aspiring dramatist, with minute directions for overcoming them; which, however, remind one of Talleyrand's instructions to those who desire to establish a new religion.

—*Scribner's* opens with an article on "Railroad Travel in England and America," by Col. H. G. Prout, in which interesting comparisons are made between the systems of the two countries, with results that do not, in all respects, tally with the ordinary popular assumptions. When Col. Prout says, "In safety, then, the English railroads are far beyond those of the United States," he confirms the general impression; but many of his readers will be surprised to learn that, for the mass of the travelling public—90 per cent. he puts it at—the English fares are lower than ours, and that only the small minority who want special comforts pay higher rates than the same class among us. The article contains much other instructive matter. Carl Lumholtz has a third paper on the Tarahumari Indians. Dr. J. W. Roosevelt contributes a readable account of the routine work in public hospitals, and incidentally defends the young doctors in charge from the harsh criticisms that are occasionally seen in the daily press. Mr. George A. Hibbard's description of Lenox may worthily rank with the articles on American summer resorts which have been a feature of all the magazines the past four months. There is also a fine engraving of a painting by A. H. Tanoux, a French painter, now in his thirtieth year.

—In *Harper's*, Mr. Richard Harding Davis has an article on "The Streets of Paris," which is a fine piece of literary art. Mr. Julian Ralph strikes a new vein of New York city life, of which he gives a life-like description, photographic in its fidelity, but nevertheless full of humor. Charles Dudley Warner's story, "The Golden House," takes on a tragic tinge as it approaches its end, and thereby gains in force. Mr. Thomas Nelson Page's story of "The Old Gentleman of the Black Stock" is just a romantic love-story, with only a homœopathic dose of the indispensable negro dialect thrown in.

—The latest number of the *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique* offers a rich contribution to the history of Greek art and archæology derived from the excavations of the French School at Delphi. All reasonable expectations from this undertaking seem to be more than fulfilled. We have already referred to the almost complete recovery of the "Treasury of the Athenians," a building dedicated out of the spoil of Marathon, and affording in its frieze exquisite specimens of Attic sculpture of a period hitherto not exemplified. Another lacuna in the history of art is filled by the discovery of the marble frieze of the "Treasury of the Siphnians." The workmanship is Attic, and finds its parallel in Attic vases of 500 A. C. The subjects seem to be a group of seated divinities, a gigantomachy, and a Homeric battle. The coloring is brilliantly though partially preserved. The design in parts has affinities with that of the Parthenon; the gigantomachy in boldness and vigor anticipates the art of Pergamum, while the carved decorative details in clearness and delicacy can be matched only by those of the Erechtheum. In a recent report M. Homolle was disposed to attribute this frieze to the temple of Apollo; he has since seen reason to change his opinion. In fact, there remains hardly a relic of the sculpture of the great temple; the disappearance is so complete that M. Homolle infers that the statuary was removed deliberately by order of some one of the Roman Emperors, subsequent to the visit of Pausanias. Next below on the Sacred Way stands the "Treasury of the Sicyonians," of poros stone, presenting some novel features of technique in the figures of the pediment. Lower still a semicircular exedra has been brought to light, which, by the inscriptions, is ascertained to have been erected by the Argives. As this structure is mentioned by Pausanias, it constitutes a fixed point for the identification of other edifices in the neighborhood.

—The yield of inscriptions is, perhaps, unparalleled in the experience of previous explorations; as many as forty have been found in a single day. The collection edited in the present number by M. Louis Couve consists most-

ly of dedications and decrees in honor of victors in athletic and musical contests at the Pythian festivals. One of them discloses the author of the musical fragments, now so famous; his name was Cleochares, son of Bion, an Athenian (the date can be placed approximately between 279 and 198 A. C.). Another inscription records the thanks of the Delphic community to an historian—possibly Zenodotus of Troezene—"who on several successive days had read extracts from his works, and had thus been a benefactor of the people and of the deity"; another pays similar compliments to two brothers, professional musicians, who had visited the city and who had given concerts at which extracts from the ancient poets were performed to accompaniments composed by them; another musician still is thanked for his performance on the flute, in which he had no rival or competitor, and for producing a chorus from the "Bacchantes," accompanied by the cithara. This last is one more illustration of the popular passion for Euripides which persisted in the later Greek and the Roman period.

—Apropos of Dr. Dörpfeld's view that the Greek actors stood on the level with the orchestra, the *Bulletin* reports some interesting news from Delos. The theatre there was excavated last summer by M. Chamonard. The general plan is that of the fourth century A. C., though the building was not completed till 246 A. C. The proportions agree precisely with the rules given by Vitruvius; the height of the proscenium is also between ten and twelve feet. Moreover—and this is the interesting point—in certain inscriptions preserved which relate to the progress of work in construction, the name *logeion* is used interchangeably with *proscenium*. Vitruvius was therefore not ignorant of the form of the Greek theatre; did he misunderstand the uses of the several parts? Dr. Dörpfeld asserts that he did misunderstand—that he drew his knowledge from plans and descriptions only, and that the *logeion* (speaking-place) is not, as Vitruvius thought, the place for actors in general, but only for those who represent deities, and who therefore spoke from that elevated perch later designated more precisely as *theologeion*. This is certainly a novel interpretation of the word *logeion*. Dr. Gardner considers it forced, particularly since at Tralles and Magnesia staircases are found connecting the orchestra with the proscenium. Lastly, we would call attention to the important article by M. Svoronos on the symbolism of coins, in which he develops with many curious and convincing illustrations the theory that this symbolism is largely based on astronomy and astronomical myths. This is a key which will unlock many puzzles in numismatics.

—Prof. Paulsen, in the *Deutsche Rundschau* for September, has an article on "The German University as an Educational Institution and as a Scientific Workshop," which is instructive reading to those interested in the question how far the German university system might with safety be engrafted upon the American college. Neither to those who realize to what an extent the present leading position of German science is due to the singular blending in the German professor of the function of the investigator with that of the teacher, nor to those who know how temperate and fair Prof. Paulsen's attitude is towards all historic phenomena, can it be surprising that on the whole his estimate of the workings of the German system should be most favorable and optimistic. All the more weight, however, should be attached to his warnings against the spirit of narrow specialization which is more and more seriously threatening to deprive modern scientific research of its liberalizing and humanizing effects. It is indeed a powerful argument against those who look with mingled pity and scorn upon the large amount of time given by the American college professor to elementary teaching, that so great a man as Kant not infrequently offered more than twenty hours a week of instruction, dealing, apart from his own specialty, with such subjects as mathematics and physics, anthropology and physical geography. And those who in this country are endeavoring to preserve for the general culture studies their central position in the college curriculum, may derive some comfort in a seemingly hopeless struggle from the words with which Prof. Paulsen closes: "It would be a shame if the institutions which in the eighteenth century did so much to elevate the intellectual condition of the whole people, which have harbored men like Kant, Wolff, Melanchthon, the teachers of the German nation, should end by becoming dwarfed into mere opportunities for special research."

—Another interesting point brought out in this article is the plebeian origin of most of the men upon whom Germany, during the last two hundred years, has looked as her intellectual leaders, and the modesty of their financial resources. A contemporary of Kant and Fichte, the Göttingen professor Meiners, writing in 1802, declared that the majority of university professors of his time consisted of men "whom it would be difficult to introduce into society outside of their own circle, without their becoming objects of ridicule"; and he explained this by referring to their usually humble family connections. Nor can it be said that this condition of things was materially changed until our own day. Nearly all the great men of the older generation which is now beginning to be decimated—Waitz, Brunn, Mommsen, Virchow, Zarncke, and so many others—were sons of small tradesmen, subaltern officials, clergymen. There can be no question that the habitual sturdiness and fearlessness of mind which distinguishes so many German scholars is in some measure due to the struggle with adverse circumstances which most of them have had to undergo. Only very recently, chiefly as a consequence of the remarkable growth of industrialism brought about by the establishment of German unity, has there begun an influx of rich men into the professional ranks. Whether this will prove to be a beneficial change appears extremely doubtful. Prof. Paulsen, who is himself a splendid type of the unworldly, simple-minded scholar, sees a positive danger in it.

"A professor," he says, "who lives in a large style, who is ambitious to play a part in society, is thereby estranged from his students externally and internally. His house and his person are, as it were, removed from them. Let one only imagine how at the present time most professors would feel if it were suggested to them to take students as boarders—a thing which in the eighteenth century was a most common occurrence. But even the teaching capacity seems endangered by a very large income. Goethe somewhere says of himself, he could not work in a luxuriously furnished room, the productive mood being crowded out of his mind. Something of that sort, I should think, would easily happen to a rich professor. The teaching mood is crowded out by the splendor of his household. The great man appears to himself too fine for the humble task of instructing students in the elements of a science. Teaching is not an art for a man of the world."

## CURZON'S FAR EAST.

*Problems of the Far East:* Japan, Corea, China. By the Hon. George N. Curzon, M. P. Longmans, Green & Co.

Most British books on Asiatic countries have a strong family likeness. The ideas exploited are: (1) that the British Empire is, under Providence, the greatest instrument for good that the world has seen; (2) that its work in the Far East is not yet accomplished, and that British interests must be first maintained and then enlarged; (3) that work similar to that of the British conquests, when done by the French, is an "indefensible outrage"; (4) that the influence of Americans, if not to be ignored, is hardly to be noticed with approval; (5) that Russia is the "common enemy," and that the Asian nations will find their most certain safety in cultivating friendship with Great Britain.

Very far above the average of books on Japan, Corea, or China is this work of the member of Parliament from Southport. Every page of it bespeaks the philosophical scholar, thoughtful traveller, sympathetic man of the world, and broad-minded but thoroughly patriotic Englishman. It is the third of five stout volumes planned by the author as the fruit of ten years of study and travel, and as his contribution to the superb political literature of his language and country. He has written not a book of travels, but a volume to be mentioned with the writings of De Tocqueville or Bryce, Temple or Guicciardini.

To the author, there is a Near East—Russia and Persia; a Central East—India and the adjoining lands; and the regions beyond India, or the Far East. "The secret of the mastery of the world, if only they knew it, is [not with the English-speaking, but] in the possession of the British people"; and the true fulcrum of Asiatic dominion is the empire of Hindustan. Mr. Curzon's plan and method delight at once the critic and the book-lover. With a style clear as crystal, with mastery of the best modern English, with not a line of padding or rubbish, with a beauty and order of arrangement that are as windows through which we admire a mind of singular penetration, the book stands monumental among works on the Far East. Print, paper, maps, notes, index, and for the most part the engravings (admirably selected but unsatisfactorily reproduced) accord well with the satisfying text. The introductory pages given to each country are rich in terse generalizations and brilliantly epigrammatic descriptions that tempt to quotation. Writing on the enchantment of Asia, emphasis is laid on the facts that the two best books on the subject are the Old Testament and the 'Arabian Nights,' and that India is the pivot of the future history of the oldest continent. To Japan, which Mr. Curzon visited in 1887 and 1892, two rich analytical and politically descriptive chapters are devoted. Nowhere in so short a compass will one find so clear a view of contemporary Japan and her problems. It is, however, devoid of any reference to the causes of Japan's renascence, and lacks perspective. He criticises the Emperor's direct intervention between his ministers and the Diet as a step sure to cause trouble in time. He also shows that the Constitution-makers, despite all their vast reservation of imperial prerogative, did not calculate on the tremendously rapid growth of democracy in the land created by the Mikado's heaven-born ancestors.

The only chapter in the book devoted to travel is that which has grown out of personal

experiences in Corea. Though this journey was over a beaten track, Mr. Curzon spied out the poverty of the land. Then follow descriptions of the capital and court, a keen diagnosis of the political and commercial symptoms in the Land of Morning Radiance, and a forecast of the little kingdom's political future. It is doubtful whether in any European language so clear a picture of peninsular and Liliputian politics exists, though it lacks a certain depth and tone which the student of Corea's language and history would crave. We quote, for its pith and point, and as a specimen of the author's style, this characterization:

"Yet in the Corean polity, viewed as a form of government, [are] features inseparably associated with the Asiatic system and recognizable in every unreformed Oriental State from Teheran to Seoul. A royal figurehead, enveloped in the mystery of the palace and the harem, surrounded by concentric rings of eunuchs, Ministers of State, officials, and retainers, and rendered almost intangible by the predominant atmosphere of intrigue; a hierarchy of office-holders and office-seekers, who are leeches in the thinnest disguise: a feeble and insignificant army, an impecunious exchequer, a debased currency, and an impoverished people—these are the invariable symptoms of the fast vanishing régime of the older and unredeemed Oriental type. Add to these the first swarming of the flock of foreign practitioners, who scent the enfeebled constitution from afar, and from the four winds of heaven come pressing their pharmacopœia of loans, concessions, banks, mints, factories, and all the recognized machinery for filling Western purses at the expense of Eastern pockets, and you have a fair picture of Corea, as she stands after ten years of emergence from her long seclusion and enjoyment of the intercourse of the nations. She is going to purchase her own experience, and to learn that, while civilization is a mistress of rare and irresistible attractions, she requires to be paid for in coin of no small denomination."

As a (British) matter of course, Mr. Curzon, who sees "another market for Manchester," utters his convictions in no uncertain tones as to the necessity of Corea's shaking herself free of Japan, and saving herself from Russia by remaining a Chinese vassal, and thereby assisting the scheme of British trade. In fact, it is this undisguised passion for pounds, shillings, and pence that must vitiate in non-British eyes so many of the author's judgments. His reasons given on page 232 for peninsular policy seem to be founded less on fact and history than on insular sentiment. When, as on page 209, he adduces a "common language" between China and Corea as an argument for Chinese ascendency, it is evident that he is less a student of Dallet, Aston, Underwood, and the vernacular of Ta Chō-sen, than of superficialities discovered in a short journey and residence in this "Naboth's Vineyard of the Far East."

China naturally occupies the largest share of the author's attention, and in the four chapters devoted to the country "governed by professors," where the standard military works are 3,000 years old, he contrives to make even Chinese subjects interesting. He doubts the so-called awakening of the sleeping giant, believing that the yellow race will always exist, but feeling less sure that the integrity of the Chinese Empire is a certainty. He would have Japan and China keep a good understanding, in order to resist Russia, their common enemy. The painted picture from "the Chinese standpoint" is that of progress; the reality is that of standstill. Very salutary and very impartial is the author's discussion of the missionary problem. Surely, it is worth the while of Christians to inquire why the bearers of the Gospel are so unpopular with their own fellow-countrymen resident abroad, while considered intolerable nuisances by the natives.

Two chapters of fascinating interest conclude this suggestive book, which bristles with topics that tempt the reviewer to discussion, as they will the thoughtful reader to reflection. In forecasting the destinies of the Far East, Mr. Curzon combats at length the views of the late Mr. Pearson, who foretold a Mongolian deluge. The Japanese victories in Corea do but add commentary to Mr. Curzon's sober estimate of the "monstrous but mighty anachronism." Concerning the Japanese and their danger from conceit, he conceives that "no worse service could have been rendered to Japan than the publication of the last work in English, which has been dedicated to her charms by a well-known English writer and poet." He closes with a delightful and in the main truthful picture of those who from the land of homes maintain character, vigor, and health in climates wherein "the German grows fat and the Frenchman withers." English "is destined with absolute certainty to be the language of the Far East." "Moral failure alone can shatter the prospect that awaits" Great Britain in her impending task of regenerating Asia.

## FOUR HISTORIES OF PHILOSOPHY.—II.

*A History of Philosophy.* With especial reference to the Formation and Development of its Problems and Conceptions. By Dr. W. Windelband. Authorized translation by James H. Tufts, Assistant Professor in Chicago University. Macmillan & Co.

*History of Modern Philosophy.* By Richard Falkenberg. Translated with the author's sanction by A. C. Armstrong, jr., Professor in Wesleyan University. Henry Holt & Co.

*An Historical Interpretation of Philosophy.* By John Bascom. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

*A History of Modern Philosophy.* By B. C. Burt. 2 vols. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

In order that the reader may be able to compare the style of the four books, we will quote a part of what each says about Berkeley, selecting this subject as familiar and as capable of brief treatment. Of course, there is not room for two opinions regarding Berkeley's place in history. What Windelband says is distributed in five different places, although Berkeley's system is as clearly "all of a piece" as can be. In one of these places we find this characteristic specimen of English:

"As the ambiguous, indeterminate nature of Locke's psychology unfolded itself in the antithesis in the following developments, so, too, this epistemological metaphysics offered points of departure for the most varied transformations. The very first of these shows an audacious energy of one-sidedness in contrast with the indecisiveness of Locke. Berkeley brought the ascendency of inner experience to complete dominance [why not say he brought the dominance of inner experience to complete ascendency? One phrase seems to mean as much as the other] by putting an end to the wavering position which Locke had taken [not that he influenced Locke, who was dead and gone; but he put an end to the position which had wavered while Locke was in it] upon the question as to the knowledge of bodies. This he did with the aid of his extreme Nominalism and with a return to the doctrines of Hobbes. He demolished the conception of corporeal substance. According to the distinction of primary and secondary qualities, it was held that a part of that complex of ideas which perception presents us as a body should be separated out [he means eliminated] and another part retained as alone real; but this distinction, as Hobbes had already taught, is in the nature of the case erroneous. The 'mathematical' qualities of bodies are as truly ideas within us as the sense qualities, and Berkeley had demonstrated exactly this point with analogous arguments in his 'Theory of Vision.' He attacks the warrant of the distinction of Descartes (and of Democritus). [This reference to Descartes and Democritus has nothing to do with Berkeley.] But while, according to this view, all qualities of bodies without exception are ideas in us, Locke has retained as their real supporter a superfluous unknowable 'substance'; in a similar way others speak of matter as the substrate of sensible qualities" (p. 469).

Now let us see how Falkenberg expresses precisely the same ideas:

"Berkeley is related to Locke as Spinoza to Descartes. He notices blemishes and contradictions allowed by his predecessor to remain, and, recognizing that the difficulty is not to be remedied by minor corrections, goes back to fundamental principles, takes these more earnestly than their author, and, by carrying them out more strictly, arrives at [attains] a new view of the world. The points in Locke's doctrines which invited further advance were the following: Locke proclaims that our knowledge extends no further than our ideas, and that truth consists in the agreement of ideas among themselves, not in the agreement of ideas with things. But this principle had scarcely been announced before it was violated. In spite of his limitation of knowledge to ideas, Locke maintains that we know (if not the inner constitution, yet) the qualities and powers of things without us, and have a sensitive certainty of their existence. Against this, it is to be said that there are no primary qualities, that is, qualities which exist without as well as within us. Extension, motion, solidity, which are cited as such, are just as purely subjective states in us as color, heat, and sweetness. Impenetrability is nothing more than the feeling of resistance—an idea, therefore, which self-evidently can be nowhere else than in the mind experiencing it. Extension, size, distance, and motion are not even sensations, but relations which we in thinking add to the sense-qualities (secondary qualities), and which we are not able to represent apart from them; their relativity alone would forbid us to consider them objective. And material substances, the 'support' of qualities invented by the philosophers, are not only unknown but entirely non-existent. Abstract matter [this is not very good English. "Material substance" is Berkeley's expression] is a phrase without meaning, and individual things are collections of ideas in us, nothing more. If we take away all sense qualities from a thing, absolutely nothing remains. Our ideas are not merely the only objects of knowledge, but also the only existing things—nothing exists except minds and their ideas. Spirits alone are active beings, they only are indivisible substances and have real existence, while the being of bodies (as dependent, inert, variable beings, which are in a constant process of becoming ["forever changing," "in a perpetual flux," are Berkeley's expressions. 'Siris,' §§ 344 *et seqq.*]) consists alone in their appearance to spirits and their being perceived by them. Incogitative, hence passive, beings are neither substances nor capable of producing ideas in us. Those ideas which we do not ourselves produce are the effects of a spirit that is mightier than we.

"With this a second inconsistency was removed which had been overlooked by Locke, who had ascribed active power to spirits alone and denied it to matter, but at the same time had made the former affected by the latter. If external sense is to mean the capacity for having ideas occasioned by the action of external material things, then there is no external sense.

"A third point wherein Locke had not gone far enough for his successor concerned the favorite English doctrine of nominalism. Locke, with his predecessors, had maintained that all reality is individual, and that universals exist only in the abstracting understanding. From this point Berkeley advances a step further—the last, indeed, which was possible in this direction—by bringing into question the possibility even of abstract ideas. As all beings are particular things, so all ideas are particular ideas."

The above two presentations of Berkeley are as alike as two peas or as two synoptical gos-

pels, and illustrate what advantages and disadvantages the Germans derive from thinking gregariously.

The following is about one-fifth of what Bascom has to say about Berkeley, and we select the passage in which he has the most to say about methods of reasoning:

"Bishop Berkeley stands quite by himself. Idealism has played a very secondary part in English philosophy. The idealism of Berkeley did not arise from magnifying mental processes, and displacing with them the physical phenomena disclosed in the senses, but sprang from the dualism of Descartes and from the weakness involved in empiricism itself. Empiricism becomes uncertain in its affirmation of any exterior reference of sensations. The mind is so robbed of its native powers as to be able to make no primitive assertion with certainty. Sensations, as simple phenomena, overmaster the mind and hold it in subjection to themselves. Mill gave this tendency full expression in regarding matter as only the possibility of sensations. The correct and firm reference of our ideas became impossible. Berkeley, much impressed by the empiricism of Locke, and escaping the fracture in the universe involved in the system of Descartes, affirmed the true origin of sensations is the divine mind."

The following is about a third of Mr. Burt's account:

"To the query 'whether a man born blind and then made to see would at first give the name distance to any idea (object of consciousness) intromitted by sight,' Berkeley's answer is that he would 'take distance that he had perceived by touch to be something existing without his mind, but would certainly think nothing seen was without his mind.' He would come to perceive distance by sight, only as he learned to interpret visual impressions by impressions of touch and bodily movement. By experience he would become able to 'perceive' distance at once by sight; every visual impression would instantaneously receive an interpretation in the language of touch and movement. But, this being the case, all vision would, in a very important sense, be prevision; visual perceptions are, unconsciously to ourselves, created for us beforehand by experience; and every idea or object of (visual) consciousness would presuppose a subject of consciousness or mind. What is true of vision is true of all forms of sensible experience. Why the sensations of one sense thus receive interpretation in the language of another, and why certain impressions of different senses are uniformly conjoined to constitute the idea of a fixed object, we do not know, any more than we know why words in English, Greek, or any other language have the significations they have for us. Certain it is that we find in experience ideas or objects existing in regular coexistence and succession, or in an order—which order we know, from the manner in which we get these ideas, and from the fact that they form an order, to be inseparable from mind. Such being the case, the traditional notions of matter, substance, and the like which suppose a real existence apart from mind, are 'empty metaphysical abstractions,' a 'dust raised by metaphysicians that prevents their seeing clearly.' The notion of matter is self-contradictory; 'matter is something that is not, and yet at the same time *is* for consciousness,' since we cannot attach any meaning to the term 'matter' without giving matter an existence for the mind, or 'bringing it within the mind.' The very being of all objects for us consists in the 'being perceived and known.' What does not exist in *my* mind or that of some other mind or spirit, finite or infinite, cannot have existence. The self-contradiction inherent in the notion of matter [misprinted, water] does not appertain to that of spiritual substance. The words *I* and *you* have certain intelligible meanings which warrant our speaking of spiritual beings, though they be not exactly phenomenal."

This is perhaps not quite so forcible a presentation of Berkeley as the Germans give; but it is thought out by the author for himself, and presents the subject in the fresh light of a new morning.

## WALKER'S CONGREGATIONALISM IN AMERICA.

*A History of the Congregational Churches in the United States.* By Williston Walker, Professor in Hartford Theological Seminary. [The American Church History Series.] New York: The Christian Literature Co. 1894.

Prof. Walker has done his work in a manner that deserves the warmest praise. With a large subject and a small canvas, he has managed his composition and distributed his light and shade in a way that shows something artistic in his quality. The result is a most happy one, whether attained by lively intuition, or, as is more likely, by the carefullest deliberation. He has best economized his space by abstaining from all personal controversy. Here and there we are sure that he has in mind Mr. Douglas Campbell or some other author with whom he cannot quite agree, but he calls no names and very seldom falls into the controversial tone. Even where he is dealing with others' controversies—and from the nature of the case he is doing this for the best part of the way—he holds the balances so evenly that we are not always able to make out to which side his own sympathies incline. He seems to write of "the New England theology" of Jonathan Edwards and the later Edwardsians with admiration and approval, but he notes the various stages of its decline without painful emotion, and its decease without any beating of the breast. In such later controversies as those of the Andover heresy and the missionary theology of the Board of Foreign Missions, the treatment is extremely brief—a mere outline of the facts. But the inference is unmistakable that Prof. Walker's sympathies are with the party of progress. If they are not, he is a man of singular self-restraint. Of course a method so impartial has its peculiar disadvantages. It does not convey the spirit of this, that, and the other stage of the long history, at which amenities were interchanged by the contending parties as hot as bullets from the rifle's bore. One going to these pages for a just impression of the "Taylor and Tyler Controversy," for example, would get little notion from their colorless phrases of "the deep damnation" that was dealt out on either side.

Prof. Walker introduces the American part of his history with two valuable chapters, "The Beginnings of Congregationalism" and "Early English Congregationalism." In the former there is much emphasis, as there should be, on the Swiss and German Anabaptists. The bad name which they have had in Protestant histories, and especially in apologies for Luther's treatment of "the fanatics of Münster," does not prevent the critical historian from seeing how many seeds of social and religious good which have since come to light were buried in their chaff. The connection between English Congregationalism and the Continental Anabaptists cannot clearly be made out. They had much in common and much in difference, but that which was most central to either was the idea that a Christian church was made up exclusively of persons who had "experienced religion." That the magistrate has no right to interfere with the church (Roger Williams's doctrine of "soul liberty"), was an Anabaptist doctrine long before his time—a fact to which Mr. Oscar Straus's anxiety for Williams's originality has made him strangely indifferent. Not less so were the English Congregationalists of the Barrowe sort, but the Brownist separatists held distinctly to the Anabaptist opinion. Hence, in part, the better treatment which Williams received at Plymouth, though Prof. Walker contends that Robinson and his Pilgrim band were less rigidly separatist than the Brownists, and made concessions to the civil power which *they* would not. The English Congregationalists also rejected the doctrine of adult baptism which gave a name to the Anabaptists, and their forswearing of oaths, civil office, and the use of arms. Prof. Walker finds it easier than Tolstoi and many sounder scholars to set aside the Anabaptist Scripturalism here as "uncritical literalism." If with so much difference there was a genetic relation between the Continental Anabaptists and the English Congregationalists, how did it come about? Evidently through the Dutch that swarmed into the eastern ports of England and the adjacent towns.

As between the English Congregationalists Browne and Barrowe, Prof. Walker's sympathy evidently inclines to the former, though not because of a career which ended in the Established Church, while Barrowe's ended at the stake. Prof. Walker is happy to distinguish the free association of American Congregationalist churches from English independency, and he finds in Browne the germ of the American system. He also finds in him the prophecy of that democratic church government to which American Congregationalism finally attained, after wandering through all its early history in the semi-Presbyterian ways of Barrowe, who made church government wholly a matter of church officers.

The history of the Pilgrims is written, perhaps, more expansively than our needs required, but it can never fail to interest the common heart. Much is made of the influence of the Plymouth Colony on the settlements at Salem and Boston in shaping their church polity. It was evidently very great. History has few transformation scenes more sudden than that which converted thousands of Church of England Puritans into New England Congregationalists, as if their affection for the "dear Church of England" had been washed overboard on their way across the sea. Prof. Walker may not overrate the Plymouth influence, but, as Becky Sharp "must be her own mamma," so was it with the young colonies. They had to shift for themselves. They had to fashion a polity suitable to their novel circumstances in a new world. From these sober pages one learns how much rhetoric there has been in the talk and writing about the New England theocracy. The relation of Church and State was simply a survival of the English system, to which the Presbyterians of the Long Parliament held in as good faith as Laud and his bishops. The identification of Church and State in New England was, however, never so complete as has been commonly supposed. State and Church had their separate organizations, and there were bounds which the State might not pass. That the early State was officered and manned entirely by church-members made the approximation to a practical identity much nearer than it would otherwise have been.

Prof. Walker's fifth chapter, "The Development of Fellowship," handles the affairs of Roger Williams and Anne Hutchinson, and characterizes "The First Synod" and the "Cambridge Platform" which followed in the wake of the religious troubles brought upon the community by Williams and Mrs. Hutchinson. The handling is apologetic, but without violence to the offenders. Williams's proportions are far less heroic than in Mr. Straus's memoir, and the illiberality of his excommu-

nication of all but extreme separatists from the Christian church has certainly no beauty that we should desire it. Though Mrs. Hutchinson's doctrines threatened the social safety far more than Williams's, Prof. Walker treats her much the more tenderly, either because she was a woman or because of her unhappy fate. The early synods were inspired by the necessity of coöperation for the general safety of the State and Church. We are clearly shown that the New England Congregationalists broke with the Anglicans and Presbyterians only on grounds of polity and worship. With their doctrine they had no quarrel. The Cambridge Synod adopted the Westminster Confession in its entirety, and the controversies of the seventeenth century, almost without exception, were concerned with questions of church polity rather than with doctrinal points. The most important of these controversies was that relating to the celebrated Half-Way Covenant. Here was a clear departure from the Anabaptist-Congregationalist ideal of the church as a body of experienced Christians. Prof. Walker is firm in his opinion that the political inspiration and importance of the Covenant have been much overrated. It is interesting that its most eager advocate in its most aggravated form was the Rev. Solomon Stoddard of Northampton, the maternal grandfather of Jonathan Edwards, and that Edwards (his successor in the Northampton pulpit) was its most inflexible opponent, and for his opposition was broken by his people as on a wheel, and packed off into the Berkshire wilderness to convert the Indians and define the freedom of the will. Nevertheless, the stone which the Northampton parish rejected became the head of the corner in due time; the church became again a body of experienced Christians pledged to the exclusion of all others. Prof. Walker signifies his approval, but it would be interesting to know to what extent the rule is an ecclesiastical fiction of the modern churches.

The general reader will find Prof. Walker's seventh chapter far more interesting than any other in his book. So will every reader not already well informed concerning the details which it presents of "Early Theories and Usages." The variation of the usages from the theories as time went on is instructive. In seventeen chapters the Cambridge Platform set forth the scheme of a true polity, giving New Testament chapter and verse for every particular. The scheme included pastors and teachers, elders and deacons and "widows" as officers of the church. But here again necessity ruled, and the teachers, elders, and "widows" fell into disuse. The "teachers" used to read the Scriptures and expound them verse by verse. Other reading was called "dumb reading," and was long discountenanced as smacking of ritualism, so that a Scripture reading formed no part of the Sunday services. The official absence of the minister from weddings and funerals is a very interesting trait. The first marriage by a Massachusetts clergyman was in 1686; the first prayer at a funeral in 1685. The reason for these things will readily occur: clerical marriage suggested the Roman sacrament of marriage, and prayers at a funeral the Roman prayers for the dead. The relations of Church and State furnish some of the most readable passages. The position of the Congregationalists as the established church often worked to their disadvantage. It was easier for any other body of sectaries to form a new church than for a body of Congregationalists dissatisfied with the parent organization.

If the seventeenth-century controversies were those of ecclesiastical polity, those of the eighteenth were preëminently those of theological difference. Prof. Walker's personal interest in them is very great, and yet no part of his book is likely to be read with so little attention. The Great Awakening is treated as a reaction from the spiritual deadness of the first decade of the eighteenth century, but it was followed by a no less moribund condition. From 1744 to 1748 Jonathan Edwards did not add a member to his church. His reaction from the violences of Whitefield gets but a scanty phrase of recognition. It is a question with Prof. Walker whether Whitefield did not mar more than he mended. The Arminian development was distinctly a reaction from his Calvinism. It was an Arminianism strangely in contrast with the Arminianism of the Wesleyan Methodists, as little emotional as that was extravagantly so. The Unitarian separation is treated with the utmost geniality, as a reaction from an evangelical revival early in the present century—an inversion of the common understanding. Probably there was a double operation. The views of Edwards and his successors are set forth with as much fulness as the author's space allows. Prof. Walker finds the strength of Edwards in his insistence on responsibility; but as Edwards taught that man could not be willing, however able, to do right without special divine interference, it is hard to see where the responsibility came in. The remarkable thing in our own time about all the hair-splitting of the Edwardsians is, not that this or that opinion is discarded, but that only the historical student has any thought at all

> "about the war,
> And what they killed each other for."

The tenth and eleventh chapters are very rich in the details of a great denominational expansion, the methods of missionary enterprise, and a more perfect fusion of the different parts of the denomination into a compact and energetic unity, eager, earnest, and aggressive. Somewhat too trippingly for perfect candor, we are hurried over the heretical developments and tendencies of recent years. We are nowhere invited to imagine what a general holocaust there would be if heresy were still measured by the Cambridge Platform and the old punishments were still meted out. But the most serious omission is that of any mention, except the barest and most casual, of that scientific understanding of the Bible which is now the common property of all good scholars, without distinction of sect, and which, if it does not more seriously affect the traditional doctrines of the Congregational body, relieves them entirely of their dogmatic character, and makes them merely matters of opinion, as they were in their original estate.

## JUNIUS AGAIN.

*Junius Revealed.* By his surviving grandson, H. R. Francis. Longmans, Green & Co. 1894. Pp. vii, 82.

THE title of this work can hardly be otherwise than disappointing. It leads one to expect some distinct avowal of the authorship of Junius by Francis, preserved through all these years by his family, and now brought to light by his grandson. "Revelation" means nothing short of this. The book contains no such avowal. A large part of it is taken up with an emphatic and detailed statement of opinion by Mr. Francis—now, of course, a man advanced in years—that his grandfather was really the author of Junius; and this is illustrated by recounting various idiosyncrasies and anecdotes retained by family tradition. Much of this matter may be found in almost the same language in Parkes and Merivale's Life of Sir Philip Francis, to which work, indeed, the present purports to be only a supplement. Of course, the value of all such opinions is merely corroborative: it might be nullified at any moment by an authentic disclosure of the real identity of Junius. But that real disclosure never comes; and, after all the attacks on the citadel and all the repulses, it seems as if it was still impenetrable, and as if Junius's famous motto, "Stat nominis umbra," told the story. But though, strictly speaking, Mr. Francis does not give the revelation which his title indicates, he does offer us a chain composed of very remarkable though slender links, from which it is hard to avoid the conclusion that Francis and Junius are inseparably one. To exhibit this chain concisely is the design of this review, though for its thorough examination the book itself must be consulted.

In the year 1771, Philip Francis and his kinsman, Richard Tilghman, being at Bath, a certain Miss Giles received anonymously a copy of verses, enclosed in an envelope on which was a complimentary dedication that gave every indication of a feigned hand, and at first sight a different one from the contents. The publication of Taylor's 'Junius Identified' having lent a good deal of interest to the handwriting of Philip Francis and of the "private notes" of Junius, Miss Giles, who, as Mrs. King, had preserved verses and envelope, conceived the idea that the latter was in the "Junius" hand, and had some facsimiles taken of it. One of these, coming to the hands of Mr. Francis, was shown by him without remark to Mr. Woodfall, the son of Junius's publisher, who instantly recognized it, with an oath, as in the handwriting of Junius. It was then supposed, by the granddaughter of Mrs. King, who had preserved the verses, that they were in the ordinary handwriting of Francis, which they much resembled.

When Mr. Edward Twistleton submitted the various "Junius" MSS. to two experts in penmanship, whose labors ultimately appeared in a magnificent volume, showing how marvellously the feigned hand of Junius grew out of the ordinary hand of Francis, there was submitted with them the two Bath documents, verses and envelope, and they unhesitatingly pronounced the former to be in the handwriting of Junius; but the latter not in that of Francis, but of his intimate friend and kinsman Tilghman, who had contrived to give his writing somewhat the air of Sir Philip's. This identification brought Junius, the verses, and Sir Philip so near to each other as to add very strongly to the force of Mr. Twistleton's case, that the identity of the two was demonstrable on chirographic grounds.

But all this time Mr. Francis or his sister had had in their possession another MS. which he regards as the missing link. In 1852, some time after the recognition by Woodfall, Mr. Francis, being on a visit to Lady Francis, the widow of his distinguished grandfather, received from her some pieces of verse which Sir Philip, during their courtship, had given her as his own compositions. One of them, written at full length in Sir Philip's own undoubted hand, to which Tilghman's copy of the Bath verses bore some likeness, was only another copy of those very Bath verses, sent years before, under Junius's feigned envelope, to Miss Giles. It seems hard, if one wished, to get away from the connection of these facts. The

same copy of verses is sent, at dates more than thirty years apart, to two ladies. In the first case, it is in a writing strongly resembling Francis's own, and recognized by experts as that of Francis's most intimate friend. It is enclosed in an envelope, recognized not only by experts, but by the son of Junius's chief correspondent, to be in the handwriting of Junius. In the second case, the verses are given by Sir Philip Francis in his own hand, and as his own composition, to his second wife.

The documents were placed by Mr. Francis in the hands of Mr. Parkes for his Life of Francis, but, as is well known, that work was never finished by him; in particular, he never wrote the chapter on the identity with Junius, and Mr. Merivale, who finished it, did not go into the depths of the question. Still, Mr. Francis was naturally surprised to find no use made of the papers, which were returned to the family. Mr. Twistleton's great work has rendered them almost abortive, yet it is well that they are now published in facsimile, as a most significant contribution to a subject which, obsolescent as it seems, is hardly obsolete.

It has been said that the matter added by Mr. Francis to his documentary evidence is but little of it new, and not too well arranged. There is one singular mistake where he speaks of Junius as obviously learned in the law. Lord Campbell had already pointed out that this was not the case; Junius makes more than one serious slip in his attempts at legal argument. But Mr. Francis points out one interesting fact, namely, that Edmund Burke was in the habit of receiving frequent and rather imperious suggestions from Francis as to his English style; and that possibly resemblances which have been detected in Junius to Burke really tell the other way—that Burke had contracted some of Francis's mannerisms.

It seems difficult to understand now the estimate placed by Junius's contemporaries on his writings. That they were for his day exceedingly bold, and must have convulsed England by their audacity at the time when Wilkes was literally hunted to death—it was not his persecutor's fault that he survived—for what seems to us the very harmless "Number 45," may well be believed. But that their literary and political force should be considered equal to their asperity, so that men seriously canvassed the possible authorship of Edmund Burke, is incredible to a modern reader. Each writer poured out his most vitriolic wrath on the Duke of Bedford. The assault of Burke on the grandson is not one of his most attractive compositions, either in temper or in style, and shows that personal sorrow and political anxiety had had a sad effect on the aged philosopher. But in comparison with Junius's attack on the grandfather it is dignified and noble. The letter of Junius is malignity, pure and simple—just the thing, when exhibited in India, to have made an average Hindu erect a temple to the author, as a fiend to be propitiated. It may be that English prose has on the whole degenerated; but the present generation can perfectly well dispense with the pen of Junius, particularly if inspired by the temper of Philip Francis.

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*Western Origin of the Early Chinese Civilization.* By Terrien de Lacouperie. London: Asher & Co. 1894.

Dr. Terrien de Lacouperie, to whose Oriental studies and researches we have before called attention, now gives the results of these in accessible form. Roughly grouping the scholars who have made Chinese learning their specialty, we may say that there are three schools. Dr. James Legge, Max Müller, Herbert Giles, etc., believe that Chinese culture, literature, and script are wholly indigenous, and they accept, in the main, the Chinese traditions. At the other extreme is a group of destructive critics who ridicule the pretensions of China to extreme antiquity. The late W. F. Mayers, in his peerless 'Chinese Reader's Manual,' begins the historical period 781–719 B. C.; others going so far as to declare Confucius a mythical personage. Between these two sets of extremists stands Dr. Terrien de Lacouperie, who in 1880, after twelve years of labor, propounded in a lecture and pamphlet the wholly new theory of the derivation of Chinese script and rudiments of civilization from Western or Mesopotamian sources forty centuries ago. A synopsis of this theory was given in the *Nation* soon after the publication of that pamphlet. Since that time, in eight or nine separate works and more than one hundred and twenty papers in learned periodicals, linguistic, numismatic, and archæological, this scholar has steadily reinforced his thesis. Studying on an independent basis, other scholars, Edkins, Ball, Douglas, and less-known workers in the same field, have accepted substantially the same views.

Briefly stated, the theory is this: Four distinct civilizations appear in ancient history—Egyptian, Chaldæan, Hittite, and Chinese. The last appears in a curious state of relative completeness among Mongoloid races renowned for their ultra-conservative and non-progressive character. Sifting all fabulous accounts, we find as a residue a few indisputable evidences showing a small number of families arriving in the northwestern part of the present China. The fact that these immigrants were in possession of a comparatively advanced civilization explains the enthusiasm of after ages for these men, and the deep impression left to the present day in the mental habits of the whole people. In the *early* souvenirs of the Chinese, traces or traditions of savage beginnings, of slow developments of civilization, of pictorial rudiments of writing, of successive progresses of knowledge by self-growth, do not exist, though these are sufficiently plentiful in the writings of late fabulists and embroiderers of the early legends. The most ancient documents of China imply a "curious state of relative completeness." Everything in Chinese antiquity and traditions pointing to a Western origin accounts fully for the feelings and beliefs about those early introducers of the civilization of China, who came to the aborigines with their faces set to the rising sun.

By assembling all clues, arguments, and illustrations found by himself or gathered from the writings of a host of scholars, native and foreign, Terrien de Lacouperie marshals a formidable body of proof which can no longer be answered by mere elevation of the nose, or by summoning the opposing authority of names. His portly book is made up largely of pages, in their original typographical form, from the *Babylonian and Oriental Record;* but the text is clear and the notes are abundant, while fresh chapters and new matter make a total and a unity for which the scholar and interested reader will be grateful. "The conclusion of the present work is that some 370 items of civilization have been introduced in China from Anterior Asia and also Western India during the twenty-five centuries covered by the investigations it contains or summarizes." In a paragraph on page 396, the author attempts to credit to each immigration, country, or civilization the number of elements introduced from without for the benefit of the Chinese. "All these elements of Western culture, with a limited contribution of the pre-Chinese form, with the[ir] own adaptation, progress, and evolution of China, the real bases of Chinese civilization."

The book has a full index and a table of errata. We are glad to see announced by the author a 'History of the Civilization of the Chinese.'

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*Health at School.* By Clement Dukes, M.D., etc., Physician to Rugby School. Third ed. Illustrated. London: Rivington, Percival & Co.

The interior economy of the microcosms known as the great public schools of England is incidentally exposed very clearly in this volume. Book learning, as we all know very well, should be secondary to education at any school. The laws of attention, the "stretching toward" this and that, that mark a school and that draw the pupils this way or that way towards certain standards, are seen in the finished work. Dr. Dukes's exposition of the principles that underlie the various forms of health necessarily shows what is and what is not done in those great establishments the conditions of whose daily life it uses as illustrations. To the average American, many of those conditions are novel, and we may hope some of them will always remain foreign. It is inconceivable, with our standards, that thirsty boys at school should have unrestricted access to a barrel of beer kept for that purpose (even though this may be an exception, not the rule), whatever form of alcoholic drink "beer" may mean (p. 145); that an evening meal with beer should be in vogue at some of the highest-class public schools (p. 165); or that a school official should have occasion to say, "Beer I believe to be unnecessary for boys," although "beer is usually provided for boys at school" (p. 178). So with the system of prepostors, and that of fagging, which, as now existing, the author looks upon as wholesome; but he admits that when the fag is employed at meal-times, as in toasting at breakfast, and thus is prevented from obtaining his own breakfast or is obliged to bolt it for want of time, it is simply intolerable. That is a reasonable opinion. May one not suspect that the British worship of strength, as not only the emblem but the motive of authority, has one of its bases in the bullying which, Dr. Dukes says, "of all kinds, is unhappily still exceedingly rife in all schools"?

These blemishes do not really concern us. The book is filled with wise information on every conceivable feature of school life, and through it all runs a constant plea for the preservation of the moral purity that is so apt to suffer in the congregation of youth of either sex. Physical conditions have a great deal to do with moral health. The essential differences between the schools of the two countries are great, but human necessities are the same, and the arguments for suitable clothing, for air-space, for sufficient sleep, for quietude of body and mind before retiring, for proper food and enough of it, for ventilation, for a reasonable temperature, for systematic physical training of some sort whether by games or in drill, appeal to all sensible parents and instructors. In asking for these Dr. Dukes does not ask for abstractions; he clearly points out what is required and how it is to be had. One very wise remark is: "No growing boy should be stinted in sugar" (p. 170). Another that appears rea-

sonable is not so sound: "Warm woollen socks —never cotton—and dry boots are requisite for the preservation of health; for they keep the feet both warm and dry." Not always; for there are feet and feet. The boy or man who perspires freely will presently soak his stockings with perspiration, and then will be going about with wet feet, not particularly hurtful while in motion, but very unpleasant, to say the least; and as soon as he is at rest he has cold feet under the very worst condition. Small children must be carefully watched; big boys should use some judgment after instruction. The English standard for the temperature of the class-room, not below 50° nor above 60° F., would not be comfortable nor healthful in America, although it is a working rule there, and we know wherein the proof of the pudding lies.

The suggestions for the physical care of the boys are numerous and judicious, and may be studied with advantage even by those who have large practical acquaintance with the subject. While it is not set forth as such, this is a valuable contribution to pedagogy, and well sustains its dedication, "To the memory of Thomas Arnold of Rugby, the benefactor of schools and scholars."

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*Durch Massailand zur Nilquelle:* Reisen und Forschungen der Massai-Expedition des deutschen Antisklaverei-Komite in den Jahren 1891-'93. Von Dr. Oscar Baumann. Mit Illustrationen und einer Originalkarte. Berlin: D. Reimer. 1894. Pp. xiv, 386. L. 8vo.

THE object of the expedition of which this sumptuous volume is the record was to explore the northern part of German East Africa. Its leader, and narrator as well, Dr. Oscar Baumann, an African traveller of considerable experience, claims to have succeeded to the satisfaction of his employers, the Anti-Slavery Society, though it is difficult to see how he has furthered the work of that organization. He gives, indeed, the impression of endeavoring to make the most of an expedition apparently very barren of important results. On the title-page he describes it as covering parts of three years. In fact, it started from the coast on January 15, 1892, and returned on February 21, 1893. During these thirteen months he travelled twenty-four hundred miles, a far too rapid pace for thorough exploration; and though two-thirds of the country traversed was unknown territory, yet a large part of it proved to be an uninhabited waste. In the summary, printed in large type, of what the expedition accomplished, he calls attention to the discovery of "two large lakes." These were simply collections of salt water in the desert, the one, according to the map, not quite forty miles long by five broad in the widest part, the other a little over twenty miles long, and both so shallow that it is not certain that they do not wholly disappear in dry seasons. The source of the Nile for whose discovery the author takes much credit to himself, was a little brook which he judged to be the head waters of the Kagera or Alexandra Nile, though the actual head of the Nile system, which he did not see, was at least sixty miles farther south.

This is of little moment, however, in comparison with his treatment of hostile demonstrations by the natives. Under these circumstances he was accustomed not to parley, but to fire immediately—a system invariably successful in putting an end to hostilities for the time. This was done, not merely to secure the passage of his expedition, but, in one instance at least, merely to satisfy his curiosity. Attempting to land on a small island in Lake Victoria, on which pygmies were said to live, the natives warned him off. Ordering his men to fire, "some warriors fell, others were wounded, and the remainder fled hastily away." For an hour or two he wandered around the island, repelling two more attacks with "a murderous fire"; and then, apparently in utter indifference to the destruction he had wrought among his innocent fellow-beings, he returned to his camp musing on the beauty of a moonlight sail on the Nyanza! So far from deprecating the necessity of taking human life, Dr. Baumann seems almost to boast of it. In the closing sentence of the summary already referred to he says: "Numerous conflicts we have had to sustain; nevertheless with pride we can maintain that through our expedition German prestige [*Ansehen*] in Africa suffered no harm."*

With this our fault-finding is at an end, and we hasten to say that Dr. Baumann proved himself to be an admirable leader, took excellent care of his men, who became much attached to him, and often showed great kindness to natives in distress. His account of his travels is as interesting as the monotonous character of much of the country through which he passed would permit. His route lay from Tanga, a coast town, not far from the British boundary, through the southern part of Masailand to the Victoria. He boasts, characteristically, of the rapidity and security of his march through this warlike people's country, as compared with the progress of previous travellers—a difference amply explained by the starving condition of the Masai, whose herds had been destroyed by cattle-disease. They were willing to sell their children, and in some instances themselves, for food. After some explorations on the south-eastern shore of the lake, he crossed to Tanganyika, passing through Urundi, a district never before visited by a white man. Here he was greeted by the natives, who came out to meet him in great numbers, singing, dancing, and waving branches of trees, like a host of bacchantes. Above the tumult sounded cries of "Mwesi," "Ruler of Urundi," "Great King," "We are slaves"—so his guide interpreted the various cries. Men fought with each other to get near him as he passed, and "literally threw themselves under the feet of the donkey" which he rode. Herds of cattle and huge quantities of food and beer were brought to the camp, and even the huts were at times stripped of their contents for gifts to him. After several days of this excitement, which unfortunately, and to Dr. Baumann's unfeigned regret, did not pass without bloodshed, he learned its cause.

"The Warundi were formerly ruled by a royal race which derived its origin from the moon (*mwesi*) and whose dynastic title was 'Mwesi.' The last Mwesi, Makisavo (the pale face) by name, had long since died, but according to tradition still lived in the moon and was expected from the north. When now suddenly a white man from the north came into the land, they saw in him their eagerly desired ruler, the Mwesi Makisavo."

It was in the country of this people that his Nile source was situated, at a height of about six thousand feet above the sea on the north-eastern slope of the range which forms the eastern shore of Tanganyika. The lake itself, which belongs to the Congo system, is about thirty five miles distant. The range at this point, which seems to consist of grassy hills rather than of mountains, is called by the natives Missosiya Mwesi, "which, literally translated, means Moon Mountain." Here their kings were buried and their spirits still wander. It should be said in regard to the statements in this extraordinary story, which we suspect is somewhat overdrawn, that the author was entirely dependent upon an interpreter of whose trustworthiness he probably had no means of judging. After this episode no specially noteworthy incident took place, as the return journey to the coast was mostly over familiar caravan routes.

The second part of the volume contains a description of the physical geography of the newly explored regions and an account of the different tribes encountered, their habits, modes of life, dwellings, weapons, and household utensils. In the closing chapter Dr. Baumann discusses the industrial value of the country. The outlook is certainly not very promising. The only article of commerce at present is ivory, which is rapidly diminishing and will soon cease to be transported through the German possessions, the source of supply being exhausted. Our author recommends as one means of preventing the extermination of the elephant the prohibition of killing the young, and the confiscation of all small tusks brought to the coast. As there have been no discoveries as yet of mineral ores, except iron, and there are comparatively few valuable trees, there remains nothing but agriculture. But of arable land there is "no surplus," the fertile regions rising like islands here and there out of the vast and almost worthless plains. The highlands, however, contain much good land which could support a population a thousandfold greater than now inhabits it. There can be no expectation of European colonization, though white men might live in some of the higher regions. Dr. Baumann advocates building a railway from Tanga to Speke Gulf on Lake Victoria, a distance of 500 miles. As the road projected by the English will be at least 650 miles long and through a much more difficult country, he suggests that the two enterprises should be joined and one road only be built. An appendix contains a series of papers by different writers descriptive, among other things, of the specicimens of the geology, the flora, mollusks, and insects collected. Dr. Baumann himself gives a few examples of tales in various languages, and a curious list of the members of the expedition, their wages, and their fate. The whole cost was 80,000 marks. The illustrations are with few exceptions admirable and well chosen, especially the reproductions of the photographs of the natives. There is a map, with two insets, the one ethnographical, the other geological, which is worthy of the highest praise.

*As his opponents in these fights were without exception armed only with spears and bows and arrows, it is hard to see any occasion for pride in his success.

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*The Boundaries of Music and Poetry.* By W. A. Ambros. Englished by J. H. Cornell. New York: G. Schirmer.

IT has been maintained that composing a musical score is the most complicated and difficult of all kinds of mental creativeness. If we are to judge by the results so far attained, one might suppose also that musical æsthetics is the most difficult branch of philosophy. Some of the most prominent metaphysicians, including Hegel, Schopenhauer, and Hartmann, wrestled with the subject without conquering it. Critics and teachers like Engel and Ehrlich have written treatises on musical æsthetics

or histories of it, containing many instructive and entertaining details; Wagner and Schumann have thrown a bright light on certain problems; but a systematic, readable, and trustworthy treatise on musical æsthetics remains to be written. The only treatise that has attracted general attention is Hanslick's 'On the Beautiful in Music,' the very title of which shows what a shallow view the author takes of his subject; for we seek in music not only "the beautiful," but the dramatic expression of emotions which are often opposed to beauty. Yet this book, almost every conclusion in which is erroneous, has reached its eighth German edition and has been translated into several other languages. Why? Simply because it is written in an entertaining, lucid style, the writer having evidently made up his mind as to what he was going to say before he took up his pen.

The same cannot be said of 'The Boundaries of Music and Poetry,' by Ambros, of which Mr. Cornell has made a tolerably clear and readable translation. Were it not that the name of Ambros is well known in the province of musical history and literature, it would have been hardly worth while to translate this little treatise; for a more rambling, illogical, undigested, bewildering book has rarely been written, even by a German with symptoms of metaphysical mania. In the 187 pages of text there are no chapter headings, or apparent logical divisions, but the writer goes on and on in a chaotically rambling way which actually leads him in one place to perpetrate eleven full pages without a paragraph! It is extremely difficult to find out what he is driving at; in other words, the book gives the impression of being the work of a man who had some interesting things, more or less related, to say, who put them down at random, trusting to luck as to sequence, and who felt too lazy afterwards to rewrite the whole thing and give it a literary shape. Altogether too many books are manufactured in this way, especially in Germany—books which make the reader do the work the author ought to have done, and which, instead of being works of literature, are mere literary quarries.

Were the substance of Ambros's book half as bad as its form, it would not have deserved a notice of more than six lines; but it contains some really admirable pages and suggestive details which make it a pity that the original publisher did not compel Ambros to rewrite his book before he put it into type. Had the author devoted another year to his task, had he taken Lessing as a model, he might have produced a book on the boundaries of music and poetry as suggestive as 'Laocoön' is in regard to the boundaries and limitations of poetry and plastic art.

Ambros's theory is that there is no sharp and definite line of demarcation between poetry and music, but that there is a border-land of considerable extent in which objects are veiled in a mysterious twilight. This he tells us on the last page, which would have been quite in place in a Japanese or Hebrew book. Had he been a logical writer, he would have placed it first, and then have proceeded to explain that the border-land between these two arts naturally falls into several sections, namely, opera and lyric song (where music and poetry go hand in hand), and programme music, which consists of three kinds: one represented by Schumann's piano pieces, with poetic superscriptions added *after* the piece was written, and often an afterthought; another by Liszt's symphonic poems, in which a poetic subject (such as the "Ride of Mazeppa") is deliberately chosen, and the music written to illustrate it in a general way; the third, by Berlioz's dramatic symphonies (*e. g.*, "Romeo and Juliet"), in which a full programme is supplied, and the hearer is expected to dovetail the music into the programme. After making such a division and clearly announcing it in chapter headings, Ambros might have gone forward in a lucid literary way, instead of jumbling all his remarks together at random.

The author is a warm admirer of Wagner, and his book contains some eloquent tributes to the poetic beauties of his operas, especially of "Tannhäuser." That Liszt's symphonic poems are overlooked, is probably due to the fact that when this book was written those compositions were not yet familiar in German concert halls (Germany being far behind America in this respect). The omission is the more to be deplored because Liszt represents the phase of programme music which Ambros, like Wagner, approves, whereas both condemn the Berlioz variety as an aberration. While Wagner's pages on this topic are much more incisive than those of Ambros, the latter, too, has some excellent remarks on that "strange medley of symphony, oratorio, and opera," as he calls Berlioz's "Romeo and Juliet," and pronounces it also "an entirely natural consequence of the mistake contained in the principle of wishing to translate into music a poetic work with all its details." Such music, he adds, a few pages later, by taking on a programme, acknowledges its insufficiency, exhibits a certificate of poverty, thereby confessing of its own accord "that it has passed beyond its natural boundaries."

Ambros, who takes an emotional interest in his art, has, of course, no sympathy with Hanslick's absurd contention that music has a greater nervous and moral effect on savages than on cultivated persons. He sneers at this without refuting it, as he should have done by showing how music has affected many men of genius. His views in regard to the vexed question as to whether music can express or arouse definite feelings are contained in the following lines: "The point of contact common to poetry and music lies in the excitement of moods." Music "wakens moods in the hearer, and, indeed, moods of very determinate coloring." A funeral march at a wedding would excite laughter, a frivolous galop at a funeral would be a scandal. "Now, the state of mind which the hearer receives from music he transfers back to it; he says, 'It expresses this or that mood.'" To complete the argument, Ambros agrees with Marx that in course of time music has become more and more *definite* in emotional expression.

Perhaps the most striking pages in this book are those (83–85) in which Ambros shows how Wagner's idea of a joint art-work of the future was anticipated by the Catholic Church, in whose cathedrals, adorned by plastic and pictorial arts, the poetic service, united with music and processions, has formed a combination of the arts which Wagner simply transferred to the stage. He might have added, that in "Parsifal" at Bayreuth these extremes meet, and church and theatre become one in a temple of art.

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*Eight Hours for Work.* By John Rae. Macmillan & Co. 1894.

We lay this book down with a feeling of disappointment. The author's previous work, 'Contemporary Socialism,' was of a very meritorious character, and we supposed that the qualities he there displayed—accuracy in observation and impartiality in criticism—would make his treatment of the burning question of the length of the labor-day scientifically valuable. We may add that a hasty glance through these pages aroused very agreeable feelings concerning the possibility of a general shortening of the hours of labor. There appeared to be, at first sight, an array of facts and figures sufficient to convince the most sceptical; and although somewhat surprised at the existence of such conclusive evidence, we were very glad to accept it.

But upon a careful examination of the case for an eight-hours day, as here presented, we find that it breaks down completely; which, it may be observed, does not show that a case might not be made out if the evidence were properly brought forward. Instead of an impartial critic, Mr. Rae is here an earnest advocate and even a prejudiced partisan. He magnifies the instances where the eight-hours system has been introduced successfully, and minimizes those where it has failed. He quotes appreciatively the words of employers who favor the eight-hours day, and sneers at the opinions of those who oppose it. He ignores the effect of the trade unions' policy of excluding workmen not of their number from opportunity to work at their trades, and seems to suppose that if the unions limit their working day to eight hours, this will tend to limit the hours of work for outside laborers, instead of tending in the opposite direction; and, what is most vexatious, he does not discriminate between direct evidence and "hearsay." He has undoubtedly collected a great deal of interesting matter, and has brought forward a number of instances, some of them very striking, where employers have found that a reduction of the working day to eight hours has been followed by an actual increase in production. But these facts are comparatively few in number, and for most of his proof Mr. Rae falls back upon opinion.

As it is of great importance that the public should not be deceived concerning what is possible in the direction of shortening the hours of labor, it may be worth while to point out specifically some of Mr. Rae's errors. He endeavors to show that the reduction of the working day in the textile industries to ten hours in 1847 caused an increased production, and he cites as proof the increase in the number of mills between 1850 and 1855. We have no doubt that as much was produced in the shorter hours as had been previously, but it is obviously fallacious to ignore the effect of free trade upon the cotton and woollen industries. This cause is enough of itself to explain the increased production. Mr. Rae states that many manufacturers are satisfied that they would produce more with an eight-hours day than with a longer one, but choose not to change because other employers are of a different opinion. This is not a sufficient reason for foregoing profit. After referring to cases where shorter hours were followed by increased product, Mr. Rae maintains that in the cases where shorter hours have been followed by decreased product there must be "something in the management of those mills which has prevented that natural effect from taking place." This is merely begging the question, and there are many instances of it. Mr. Rae forgets that if he explains away all the cases where the eight-hours experiment has failed, and accepts without investigation those where it is alleged to have succeeded, other writers may reverse the process. It is not properly argument to say that if the London gas-stokers had not been disturbed in their minds by the

dock strike, and had done their best, they would have produced as much in eight hours as in twelve. This case shows, by the way, what practical difficulties lie in the way of enforcing the eight-hours day by legislation. It is the custom for these stokers to work an hour and rest an hour, so that an eight-hours day for them would mean only four hours' labor, and they are opposed to any such limitation of their employment.

It is evident that we cannot infer from the mere fact that as much is now produced with ten hours' labor as was formerly produced with twelve, that as much would be produced in eight hours as in ten. Such a mode of reasoning would quickly lead to a *reductio ad absurdum;* but Mr. Rae does not hesitate to reason in this way. He is so sure that he is right that no facts daunt him. He asserts that the working people of the continental countries are inferior to the English because the English have a shorter working-day; and when he is confronted with this country, where the hours are longer than in England, he unhesitatingly asserts that American workmen cannot be equal to those of England. In this connection he cites—Heaven save the mark!—the reports of the New York Labor Commissioner. He contends that as much would be produced with a universal eight-hours day as under the present system, but deplores the fact that the trade-unionists favor the shorter day because they think that less would be produced and more workmen therefore be needed. If the trade-unionists should act upon this belief, Mr. Rae admits that it would ruin the English manufacturers, and he candidly refers to testimony given before the recent Labor Commission, showing that the belief is acted upon. He is also much perplexed by the coexistence in Victoria of an eight-hours day and a multitude of unemployed laborers, ignoring the monopoly of employment which these unions have been able to secure.

Altogether, Mr. Rae appears to us to have displayed a rather remarkable degree of incompetence for such a labor as he has undertaken. His book will certainly convert no one who now believes the eight-hours day to be outside the field of legislation; and those who are undecided in their opinions will find little here to assist them in reaching a conclusion.

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*A History of the Papacy During the Period of the Reformation.* Vol. V. The German Revolt. 1517–1527. By M. Creighton, D.D., Lord Bishop of Peterborough. Longmans, Green & Co. 1894.

When, about three years ago, Dr. Mandell Creighton, then professor of Ecclesiastical History at Cambridge, was made Bishop of Peterborough, it was natural that he should have been given up as lost to the cause of historical learning. At that time his great work had reached its fourth volume, but had not yet touched the period usually brought to our minds by the word Reformation. The four volumes might well have stood as they were as a valuable introduction to any study of the Lutheran period. Dr. Creighton has, however, happily disappointed expectation by going straight on with his plan. There is an interval of seven years between the publication of this volume and of the preceding one, but there is no break whatever in the continuity of the narrative.

The continuation of so considerable an undertaking in the midst of the novel duties of the administration of a great bishopric could be possible only to a man of great diligence and of the most systematic methods of work. The combination of scholarly and administrative functions has never been wholly to the advantage of the former. It must of necessity relegate scholarly work to fixed periods of short duration, and deprive it of that invaluable quality which comes from long and uninterrupted absorption. If historical writing were wholly the collection and arrangement of material, the disadvantages of this method would not be so great. One can do a vast amount of needful compilation in the intervals of executive work; but when it comes to presentation, then the qualities of comprehensiveness, of penetration with the subject, of proportion, and of comparison which make an historical work really great, have their turn.

It has seemed to us from the first, and this impression is strengthened by the present volume, that herein lay the principal lack in Dr. Creighton's work. There is abundant evidence of wide acquaintance with the original material and of diligent reading in modern authors. No one would be likely seriously to question the author's soundness, in the main, as to the general views of the papal policy. Yet, after reading, one has the feeling that it does not satisfy. There is a dryness in the presentation which suggests pigeon-holes. One can sometimes mark how whole chapters have been blocked out beforehand by headings and then filled in, as it were by the day. At such points one cannot avoid the feeling of overfulness which comes from reading an encyclopædia.

It is perhaps a necessary feature of this kind of composition that so much prominence should be given to individual names. It seems almost impossible for the author to pass over even a tolerably obscure person without giving a little biography of him—a habit which adds to the scrappy effect of the whole. On the other hand, we must approve from every point of view the practice of introducing extended discussions of leading documents, such as Luther's Theses, his great early pamphlets, the papal bulls, and the replies of German assemblies.

It is hard to compare any one with Ranke, and yet such comparison is challenged by every one who writes upon the history of the Reformation. Ranke's marvellous gift was to embody the results of vast research into a narrative which reads like one swiftly written essay, but leaves no manner of doubt as to its foundations. In spite of a skilful use of connecting phrases at the beginning of his paragraphs, Creighton's narrative seldom gives one this effect of completeness. His generalizations seem often commonplace and not well-founded. For example, it comes very easy to say, in comparing the candidature of Francis I. with that of Charles V., "Charles came of a German stock and knew German ways." If German stock was what the electors wished, there were plenty of princes better qualified than Charles; and it is clear that Charles's almost total ignorance of "German ways" was one of the chief obstacles to his success in dealing with the Protestant movement from first to last.

However much we may regret that the author has not chosen to devote himself to letters, and has thus put the highest excellence beyond his reach, still we must confess that he has given us a book which every student of the period must use. He has succeeded beyond most writers in keeping one side of the immensely complicated public life of the time—the papal—always in the foreground. The temptation to wander was perhaps greater in the present volume than in any previous one, but it has been well resisted. The result will be that this book must always remain a very useful supplement to all those other histories of the Reformation in which the papacy appears only as a side-issue.

An appendix of seventy closely printed pages gives very interesting selections from original documents, in illustration of many points discussed in the text.

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*Literary Associations of the English Lakes.* By the Rev. H. D. Rawnsley, Honorary Canon of Carlyle. 2 vols. I. Cumberland, Keswick, and Southey's Country. II. Westmorland, Windermere, and the Haunts of Wordsworth. Macmillan & Co. 1894.

Canon Rawnsley has lived for fifteen years in the Lake District, and has kept his eyes open; he has revised Jenkinson's 'Guide to the English Lakes'; he is at home in the lives and works of the Lake poets; he has no system of criticism to set up and no new gospel to preach; he feels a healthy interest in his kind, particularly in such of them as have done credit to his part of the country; he is good-tempered and not exactingly brilliant. With these qualifications, which everybody will admit are considerable, Canon Rawnsley has prepared his 'Literary Associations of the English Lakes.'

The author's plan is to conduct his reader from one part of the Lake Region to another, illustrating every point of interest with an abundance of biography, reminiscence, apt quotation—what not. This plan is entirely methodical, though in continuous reading it becomes confusing at times. The same paths are not traversed oftener than is necessary, but the same persons appear again and again. Thoroughly familiar with the ground, Canon Rawnsley occasionally assumes the same familiarity on the part of his readers; but with the aid of the map he is always intelligible. His pace is uneven, of course. Sometimes he dismisses us with a rapid biographical summary; again he holds us to a long paragraph on a trifle. This is inseparable from his plan, but interferes with literary proportion. Yet the author has had literary effect in mind. He often pauses to ponder or to be eloquent; he is continually attempting to give the essayist's turn to his paragraphs; he has an eye to his transitions and his introductions. This rhetoric is occasionally tiresome. It may even worry the irascible into an impatient question whether they have here a guide or a lecturer before a parish literary club. But no self-considerate traveller quarrels with a little prosiness in his good-natured and well-informed friend from the vicinage. The defects to which we have just adverted are made worse by the canon's style. We shall not characterize this beyond suggesting that its traits come out with much distinctness whenever he happens to quote anything from Gray's 'Journal in the Lakes,' even if the quotation is only one line long.

In a word, Canon Rawnsley is struggling manfully with an insuperable difficulty. He wished to produce a new literary form—a compromise between the guide-book and the essay. Artistic success in such an attempt was impossible; but the canon has achieved another kind of success. His book is enough like a volume of essays to be read continuously with interest, whether one has ever visited the lakes or not. And, on the other hand, as a companion on a tour it will certainly prove so attractive and solidly useful as to remu-

nerate the author in the gratitude of the intelligent traveller, and probably in harder coin as well. To facilitate use as a tourist's companion, the two volumes are separately indexed and sold separately, and the map (which is excellent) may be had with either.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Evelyn. Cicero. [Heroes of the Nations.] Putnams. $1.50.
A Catalogue of Books, Manuscripts, etc. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Adams, W. H. D. Child-life and Girlhood of Remarkable Women. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.
American Slaves. Chicago: American Engraving Co.
Amicis, Edmondo de. Fortezza: Un Gran Giorno. W. R. Jenkins. 35 cents.
Ballou, M. M. The Pearl of India. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Barber, Henry. British Family Names: Their Origin and Meaning. London: Elliot Stock.
Barrett, J. P. Electricity at the Columbian Exposition. Chicago: R. R. Donnelley & Sons.
Bass, Florence. Nature Stories for Young Readers. Animal Life. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 35 cents.
Beale, Prof. J. H., Jr. A Selection of Cases and Other Authorities upon Criminal Law. Cambridge: Harvard *Law Review* Publishing Association.
Bercy, Paul. Lectures Faciles pour L'Etude Français. W. R. Jenkins.
Bolton, Mrs. Sarah K. Famous Leaders among Men. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Bread from Stones: A New and Rational System of Land Fertilization. Philadelphia: A. J. Tafel. 25 cents.
Bridges, Robert. Nero. Part 2. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan.
Bruce, Wallace. The Hudson. Edinburgh: Blackwood & Sons; New York: Bryant Union.
Bulfinch, Thomas. The Age of Fable. New ed. Boston: Lee & Shepard $2.50.
Burnham, Clara L. Sweet Clover: A Romance of the White City. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Catherwood, Mary H. The Chase of Saint-Castin, and Other Stories of the French in the New World. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Clark, T. M. Architect, Owner and Builder before the Law. Macmillan. $3.
Conway, M. D. The Writings of Thomas Paine. Vol. II., 1779—1792. Putnams. $2.50.
Croquet, C. P. du. Le Français par la Conversation. W. R. Jenkins.
Cuyler, Rev. T. L. Christianity in the Home. Baker & Taylor Co.
Daudet, Alphonse. Le Petit Chose. W. R. Jenkins. 60 cents.
Delitzsch, Prof. Friedrich. Assyrisches Handwörterbuch. Erster Teil. Leipzig: J. C. Heinrichs.
Dubois, Félix. The Anarchist Peril. London: Unwin; New York: Scribners. $2.
Dufferin, Helen, Lady. Songs, Poems and Verses. 2d ed. London: Murray; New York: Scribners. $4.50.
Dunning, Charlotte. Upon a Cast. Harpers. 50 cents.
Earle, Mrs. Alice M. Costume of Colonial Times. Scribners. $1.25.
Earle, Mrs. Alice Morse. Diary of Anna Green Winslow, a Boston School Girl of 1771. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Fontaine, C. Les Historiens Français du XIXe Siècle. W. R. Jenkins.
Foote, Mrs. Mary H. Cœur D'Alene. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Forbes Archibald. Czar and Sultan: The Adventures of a British Lad in the Russo-Turkish War of 1877–'78. Scribners. $2.
Froude, J. A. Life and Letters of Erasmus. Scribners. $2.50.
Gildersleeve, Prof. B. L., and Lodge, Prof. G. Gildersleeve's Latin Grammar. 3d ed. University Publishing Co.
Gorton, Dr. D. A. Neurasthenia; or, Nervous Exhaustion. Putnams. 50 cents.
Greely, Gen. A. W. Three Years of Arctic Service. New ed. Scribners. $5.
Green, Anna K. Miss Hurd: An Enigma. Putnams. 50 cents.
Grube's Bilder aus der Türkei. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 25 cents.
Hall, J. R. C. A Concise Anglo-Saxon Dictionary. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $4.50.
Hand-Book to the Canada Tariff (Revised). Toronto: C. W. Irwin.
Harris, Thomas. Three Periods of English Architecture. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Scribners. $3.
Hazard, Caroline. Narragansett Ballads, with Songs and Lyrics. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Hearn, Lafcadio. Glimpses of Unfamiliar Japan. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
Jones, Charlotte R. The Hypnotic Experiment of Dr. Reeves, and Other Stories. London: Bliss, Sands & Foster; New York: Brentanos. $1.
Life of Frances Power Cobbe. By Herself. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
Logie, Prof. Thomas. Halévy's L'Abbé Constantin. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
McCurdy, Prof. J. F. History, Prophecy and the Monuments. Vol. I. To the Downfall of Samaria. Macmillan. $3.
Medley, D. J. A Student's Manual of English Constitutional History. Oxford, Eng.: B. H. Blackwell.
Miller, Rev. J. R. The Building of Character. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Optic, Oliver. Brother against Brother. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Parker, Gilbert. The Trail of the Sword. Appletons. 50 cents.
Pemberton, Max. The Sea Wolves. Harpers. 50 cents.
Podmore, Frank. Apparitions and Thought-Transference. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Rolfe, J. C. The Lives of Cornelius Nepos. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
Rollins, G. W. Preparatory French Reader. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
Sanborn, F. B. Familiar Letters of Henry David Thoreau. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Sanborn, Kate. Abandoning an Adopted Farm. Appletons.
Sayce, Prof. A. H. A Primer of Assyriology. F. H. Revell Co. 40 cents
Skeat, Prof. W. W. Complete Works of Geoffrey Chaucer. Vol. 4. Oxford: Clarendon Press: New York: Macmillan. $4.
Small, E. W. The Earth: An Introduction to the Study of Inorganic Nature. [University Extension Series.] London: Methuen & Co.
Smith, Prof. G. A. The Historical Geography of the Holy Land. Armstrong. $6.
The Artificial Mother: A Marital Fantasy. Putnams. 75 cents.
The Dominion of Canada, with Newfoundland and an Excursion to Alaska. Leipzig: Karl Baedeker; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
The Encyclopædic Dictionary. Vol. I. A—Cre. Philadelphia: Syndicate Publishing Co.
Webb, H. L. The Telephone Hand-Book. Chicago: Electrician Publishing Co. $1.
Wiel, Althea. Venice. [Story of the Nations.] Putnams. $1.50.
Willey, Arthur. Amphioxus and the Ancestry of the Vertebrates. Macmillan. $2.50.
Williams, A. M. Studies in Folk Song and Popular Poetry. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Wolseley, le Maréchal Vicomte. Le Decin et la Chute de Napoléon. 3d ed. Paris: Paul Ollendorff.


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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 11, 1894.*

## The Week.

THE Democratic canvass has at last been formally opened by Senator Hill's acceptance of the nomination for Governor, and the finding, after long search and many declinations, of a man who is willing to become the candidate for judge of the Court of Appeals, because, being now on the Supreme bench and not required to resign, he has nothing to lose. Never has a campaign started more gloomily. Hill confessed that he had been trying hard to escape from the candidacy, and admitted that he was leading a forlorn hope. The candidate for Lieutenant-Governor cannot give him any help, for Mr. Lockwood presided over the convention which nominated Maynard last year, and is thus involved with Hill in that crime. Judge Gaynor's declination led to the offer of the nomination for judge to more than one lawyer of prominence, whose refusal to accept was based upon the fact that the candidate for Governor is the man who carried through the Maynard business. Hinckley, the chairman of the State committee which is to conduct the canvass, did some of the dirty work in the stealing of the senatorship from the Hudson River district. In addition he is a bungler, as it has been shown that he concealed and lied about Judge Gaynor's declination for days and thus muddled the situation badly. Altogether the outlook is most depressing for the whole gang, and most encouraging for those who hope to see Hill at last laid out.

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We should be among the last to attempt to excuse party fanaticism on either side, yet we must remind decent Democrats, at the risk of seeming to excuse the Republicans, that the existing rottenness in State and city politics against which we are now rising, is largely Democratic work, and that the prime mover in it, the instigator of some of it, the apologist of more, and the intimate associate and companion of the foul wretches who fill the city government, is the Democratic candidate for the governorship. What is worse is that, during the week, several Democrats of prominence and position who profess to be enlisted in the cause of reform, have announced their intention of voting for this man—some because he is a leader, and others because he is "able," and others because he is upright. The condition of the moral sense which prompts such utterances is naturally alarming for those who believe that every man expresses in his choice of public officers his own notions of right and wrong, and that the disavowal of conscience in the management of public affairs has, in all ages of the world, been the precursor of great changes.

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Seldom has a man destroyed his own reputation so swiftly and completely as Judge Gaynor has done within the past fortnight. He had made a fight against the public thieves in Brooklyn and the polluters of the ballot in Gravesend which challenged admiration for its courage, vigor, and persistence; and he had been elected judge of the Supreme Court by his neighbors and friends over the regular Democratic candidate in a Democratic district, by a majority so large as to indicate a widespread faith in the man among those who knew him best. The good-natured public, always ready to give a quick welcome to a new man who has shown any capacity for public service, was prepared two weeks ago to accept Gaynor as a reform candidate for Governor, who would represent the same sort of opposition to Hillism in the State as he had shown to McLaughlinism in Brooklyn and McKaneism in Gravesend. But it was an ideal Gaynor whom the people had in mind. The real man has now been exposed by himself. Since he was put on the ticket with Hill as judge of the Court of Appeals he has toyed with this nomination in a way which showed that he was anxious to accept. He has finally declined it with very bad grace, and in a letter so full of "gush" that it is humiliating to think a judge of the Supreme Court could have written it.

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We have no heart to dwell upon the manifold weaknesses of this communication, but we must call attention to the passage in which Judge Gaynor "gives himself away" as a reformer, and indeed as a man who possesses any insight into character. It is where he says:

> "If I thought that the withdrawal of my name would injure Senator Hill's canvass, I would try to see some way to allow it to remain, for his recent development in the national Senate places him with the foremost public men of his day. Between him and his opponent he should, and I trust will, prevail."

If there is one man in American politics whose character and influence are perfectly well known, it is Senator Hill. He represents on a wider field precisely the same methods as McKane in Gravesend and McLaughlin in Brooklyn, and he ought to be fought with the more vigor as his sphere of influence is the greater. To oust McLaughlin from power and to send McKane to Sing Sing for their crimes, and then to join forces with the man who was for years hand in glove with those criminals, is to throw away one's reputation for sincerity or ability to distinguish right from wrong. As for Gaynor's reference to Hill's "recent development in the national Senate," the man who could be deluded by the transparent insincerity and intrigue which have characterized his course there, shows himself far too credulous to be trusted. Hill has been the most baleful force in our politics for the last ten years, and it is a melancholy spectacle to find a judge who was given his place on the bench for his fight against Hill's "pals," hailing the leader of the gang as one of "the foremost public men of his day." The Gaynor incident lends point to our comments in another column on the absurdity of our tendency to seize hold of anybody who has caught a thief and offer him the highest honors within our gift.

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The Massachusetts Democrats hail the new tariff as "the beginning of the end of an unconstitutional system of duties for protection only"; express regret that the original Wilson bill was defeated; "hold those Democratic Senators who, by their inaction or resistance, prevented its passage, to be traitors to their party, and demand their retirement from party leadership"; and declare it the immediate duty of the party to place upon the free list all raw materials, to abolish all duties which tend to create or maintain monopolies and Trusts, and to reduce all prohibitory duties. This is as positive and definite a policy as could be asked for, and the declaration must command respect for its sincerity where its principles are not accepted. The financial plank is equally intelligible, and for the most part equally sound, although the demand for the unrestricted repeal of the tax on State banks cannot be endorsed. So, too, about the income tax the Massachusetts Democrats are not afraid to express their minds, as the Republicans were. They "approve the principle of the income tax as a return to correct theories of taxation." As regards the civil service, they do not content themselves with calling for "clean politics" and "pure administration," but demand that the scope of the reform already begun "be extended as fast as the Civil-Service Commission deems practicable, to the end that all federal positions to which the merit system of appointment is applicable may be placed by law upon a strictly non-political basis," and call upon the present administration to formulate and recommend some plan by which the post-offices may be brought within the merit system, and the continued tenure of faithful officials be secured. These are by no means all the salient points of a platform which is admirable as an example of how a statement of party principles ought to be made.

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The first reports from Georgia prove to have been too favorable to the Democrats, and it is now evident that the Populist candidate for Governor came within a few thousand votes of election on Wednesday week. Worse still for the Democrats, there are several congressional districts

which will be carried by the Populists in November if the voters stand the same way then as now. The Populists are helped by the fact that the Republicans are more ready to support them this year than they were in 1892, while there is far more discontent among the Democrats with the ruling element in their party now than two years ago. It is as a club with which to hit what they consider ring rule that many Democrats vote the Populist ticket in Georgia, just as in Maine, fifteen years ago, so many former Republicans supported greenbackism in order to rebuke the Blaine machine. Fortunately for the credit and the financial prospects of the State, the reaction against the dominant elements in the Democratic party did not go so far as to let in a Populist Governor. The outside public would not have analyzed closely the causes which entered into the result, and the spectacle of a Populist executive would of itself have frightened away capital and settlers.

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One thing which makes it easier now than ever before to organize an effective opposition to the Democracy in a Southern State is the repeal of the federal election laws. So long as those laws remained on the statute-book, it was always possible for the Democrats to raise the race issue. Now that the Southern people are secure from interference with their elections by federal authorities, this issue is utterly gone, and the whites begin to divide in politics the same way as in other parts of the country. The split over the sugar question in Louisiana illustrates the same tendency that is seen in Georgia, and it is certain to manifest itself everywhere in the South, sooner or later. At the same time that they divide among themselves, both factions of the whites begin to insist upon honest elections and to declare that the cheating which has been practised in the past must stop. Some Republican editors at the North are coming to perceive the significance of these facts, and even so partisan an organ as the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette* has reached the point where it is "not certain that the repeal of the federal election law was without all reason," inasmuch as now "we may be sure that the cause of a free ballot and an honest count will grow in the South as citizenship, irrespective of race and nationality, has grown in the North."

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There was a decrease of seven millions in the Treasury cash in the month of September. This, the *Financial Chronicle* points out, is due on the one hand to unusually large payments, and on the other to a decrease of receipts from the tax on distilled spirits—the large withdrawals from bond in anticipation of the new tax having been made in July and August. If we take for comparison the cash holdings of August 1 instead of September 1, we find a gain of nearly $1,000,000 in the general cash and a gain of $4,000,000 in gold. The cash balance is now $120,000,000 and the net gold nearly $59,000,000. With the large September payments cleared off, the situation is now entirely satisfactory. There is a temporary check to the revenue due to the new tariff bill. The articles on the free list cause a loss of revenue as they were intended to do, and this effect takes place at once, while articles on which new duties have been placed, like sugar, were imported ahead of time for purposes of speculation. But these stocks will soon be worked off and then the revenue will pour in. The same is true of the internal revenue from whiskey. The elasticity of the revenue due to reviving trade and increasing population may be expected at least to counterbalance the loss from tariff reductions, leaving the sugar receipts as clear gain. The income tax will not yield anything till next June.

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From this it is a safe inference that the country has nothing to fear from an unfavorable Treasury balance. It is a safe prediction that the reduction of the national debt will be resumed within twelve months. The gold balance will increase as well as the general cash, and that will suffice to maintain the standard of value, upon which all credit depends. There is no cloud on the financial horizon now except the Populist movement and Populist-Democratic alliances in some parts of the country. This does undoubtedly cause a feeling of uneasiness in all the circles of finance. It cripples enterprise, prevents the introduction of foreign capital, and makes borrowing more difficult than it would otherwise be. The troubles which now exist are political and not financial. We think that undue importance is attached to this disturbance. We think that the Populists will be unhorsed in the coming elections in some of their most important strongholds, and that the Democrats will get a severe lesson in certain quarters where they have adopted the Populist platform. What is still more important is the gradual crystallization of the elements favorable to sound money as well as of their opponents. Whenever these two elements shall be brought face to face in opposite camps, we shall have not the smallest fear of the result. The issue will then be the single gold standard against the single silver standard. All pretence of bimetallism will have vanished because the silverites are now demanding free coinage by this country alone. In such a contest the people will decide for the gold standard as surely as they decided for the repeal of the Sherman act last summer.

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Although the population of Vermont has remained stationary for the past ten years, there has been an extraordinary increase of crime during that period. In the two years ending with the summer of 1884 the commitments to the house of correction numbered only 328, while in the two years ending last summer there were 808—almost two and a half times as many. The retiring Governor of the State was so much struck by these facts that he instituted an investigation during the last weeks of his term, the results of which he communicated to the Legislature in his valedictory message last week. It was found that two counties of the State furnish 50 per cent. of the prisoners, and four of the other twelve 37 of the remaining 50 per cent.—these being the counties which contain the larger places. The chief increase in commitments has been for offences under the prohibitory law—from 162 to 513—which has apparently been enforced with more rigor of late than formerly. But the severity has been directed almost exclusively against those who became intoxicated, while the men who made them so, in defiance of the law prohibiting the sale of liquor, generally escape punishment. The difficulty is the old one, which has been encountered in Maine and other States with a prohibitory law, of securing a public sentiment in the larger places which will require the punishment of such offenders. Gov. Fuller sent a circular letter of inquiry to prominent residents of every town, and the 800 replies convince him that no liquor is illegally sold in half of the towns, and very little in 32 per cent. of the other half. But in the remaining 18 per cent. the law is violated, often openly, and drunkenness is on the increase. A local-option and high-license system for the larger places receives some support from them, but the prohibition sentiment is so strong in a majority of the towns that the Legislature will not allow it.

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It is our painful duty to mention that the Police Commission last week, by a unanimous vote, took away the police advertising from the *Tribune* and gave it to the *Press*, as "the leading Republican paper of the city." This advertisement, which is said to be worth $20,000, was long held by the New York *Tribune*, by a tenure which we, in common with most of the public, considered absolutely secure. It was not remotely connected, as we understand, with a basket of champagne which Commissioner McClave admitted that he received from the *Tribune* every Christmas. It was surmised, but not proved, that a similar basket from the same quarter was received at the same festal season by each of the other commissioners. This monopoly by the *Tribune*, it is right to say, was not witnessed with entire content by other religious papers. To desire such an advertisement is not discreditable to any publisher of any denomination, however reprehensible it may be to seek it by appeals to the carnal nature of the commissioners. Anyhow, the *Tribune* has now lost it, as some say, owing to its support of Milholland, who is now trying, against overwhelming odds, to reform the

Republican party—but possibly owing to the supply by the *Press* of one of the newer brands of wine. We, however, prefer to believe that the *Tribune* has suffered in the cause of reform; that it now knows what a thorny path the path of reform is, and that the ridicule which it has so often heaped on those who were trying to make the world better, was ill-judged and unjust. For ourselves we would rather be right with Milholland than wrong with the Union League Club and the Committee of Thirty. A pot of beer with a just man is worth a dozen of champagne with the ungodly.

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Prof. Swing's death serves to mark the real growth of religious toleration in this country. He dies with the respect and honor of many who, if his demise had occurred twenty years ago, would have looked upon it as a divine judgment. He had so far outlived the fame of his own heresy that it can be recalled by most people only with an effort. For a long time past, in fact, his original heresy has been indistinguishable from current orthodoxy. This is not saying, however, that his subsequent positions would not still be anathema. But even so the personal animosity and bitterness which his name aroused in the religious world at the time of his trial and afterwards, have long since become a thing of the past. This was partly due to his bearing, which was that of a quiet and scholarly gentleman, with little or nothing of the noisy agitator about it. But it is more a result of a general and sweeping change in the public mind, even in orthodox circles, respecting theological doctrine and shades of opinion about it. A good index of this change may be had by contrasting the present feeling about Prof. Swing with the feeling about Theodore Parker forty years ago. Parker, of course, was a man of much greater force and aggressiveness than Swing, and naturally stirred up heartier antagonisms; but his heresy was the shocking thing, which, as his biographer informs us, made orthodox people ready to pray, decorously, of course, and in a veiled way, for his "removal," and which made some of them see an answer to their prayers in his premature death. Such a thing would no longer be possible. The Parker heresy and the Swing heresy are rapidly taking their place in the long list of forgotten controversies with which only ecclesiastical antiquarians concern themselves.

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The opinion of a competent and impartial observer who contemplates from the outside our present change of fiscal policy, with its resultant industrial transitions, is in many respects more valuable than that of one on the spot and in the turmoil. Such a man is M. Leroy-Beaulieu, and in the *Débats* of September 21 he has a striking article on "The Agricultural and Commercial Situation of the United States." To his mind there is little doubt that this country is on the eve of a great industrial expansion. Given the lengthened list of free raw materials, the "extraordinary energy and exhaustless ingenuity" of Americans, with the immense capital at command, both at home and in Europe, the chances are greatly in favor of the industrial predominance of the United States. M. Leroy-Beaulieu does not expect to see sweeping changes take place in a day, but looks for them ultimately as the sure result of our lowered tariff. He regards it as a peculiarly fortunate thing for us that our fiscal reform came at the moment of extreme agricultural depression. The industrial and commercial activity which he counts upon will make it easier, he thinks, for our farmers to stop raising cereals so exclusively and give more thought to diversifying their agriculture. All told, he considers the transition through which we are now passing as "one of the most important, from the standpoint of international economic relations, which our century has witnessed."

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Professor Gustav Cohn contributes an article to the *Economic Journal* of London on the subject of the Railways and Waterways of Germany, showing the remarkable fact that nearly the entire net profit from the operation of the Prussian State railways during the decade 1882-1892 (£42,000,000) was expended in maintaining, enlarging, and improving waterways which compete more or less with the railways. This reminds the professor of the story of Cinderella. "The State railways are Cinderella, who must not only keep herself, but also work for other branches of the State administration and get scolded into the bargain if in any year the surplus is not large enough; whereas the waterways are the spoilt daughters, to whom Cinderella's earnings are heedlessly handed over, and who, decked in feathers not their own, make free with money not their own." Why is this? Because the idea holds possession of the public mind in Germany (as well as in this country) that there is something specially meritorious in water transportation, and hence that it is the duty of the State to make it as nearly free of charge as possible, whether the waterways are natural or artificial, or partly natural and partly artificial. The State must keep canals in repair and offer them to the public free of toll. It must also offer its costly towing apparatus in the improved rivers free of charge, and it must furnish terminal facilities also on the same liberal principles. Prof. Cohn asks by what right shippers by water are so favored. "By no better right," he thinks, "nay, by less right, than can be claimed for free railway communication at public cost; for traffic by inland navigation has so developed itself in recent years in Germany as to benefit more especially the larger firms; and that these should obtain gifts at public expense is a most perverted form of communism, since it compels the great mass of taxpayers to make sacrifices in the interest of the wealthy minority."

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The discussion over the House of Lords in England will not down, in spite of the Tory assurance that the Radical attacks on it have failed. There has been another Liberal conference at Leeds, somewhat like that a year or two ago at Newcastle, which has issued another programme calling for the abolition of the Lords, and has set all the orators talking on the Conservative and Unionist side. Mr. Labouchere backs it up in a long letter to the *Times*, and the *Times* has been assailing it through a series of elaborate special articles, showing the failure of single-chamber government during the Commonwealth in the seventeenth century, and trying to dispose of Labouchere by gentle ridicule. The question, however, is not as to the relative merits of bicameral and unicameral Parliaments, but as to the fitness of the House of Lords for doing second-chamber work. The hereditary principle no one now defends. It is universally conceded that that must go; but there is the widest disagreement as to what should take its place. Labouchere is unanswerable when he points out—talking of the House of Lords as a check on hasty legislation—that it is a check only on one party. For instance, it would not pass Mr. Gladstone's extension of the suffrage in 1867, but it did subsequently pass Disraeli's. It would not pass one of Mr. Gladstone's Irish land bills, but passed the same bill when it came up from Mr. Balfour. And then there is the standing complaint that no change of opinion can ever occur in the Lords. There is always a Conservative majority, no matter what the state of parties in the House of Commons or in the country may be. The dread of a single chamber arises mainly out of the fact that England has no written constitution resting on popular vote. The *Spectator* accordingly suggests confining the checking powers of the Lords to the ordering of a referendum on the Commons bills, but it would also give the same power, as in Switzerland, to a fixed number of citizens. Chamberlain still sounds the alarm about home rule. What he is afraid of now is that a majority elected on other issues will pass a home-rule bill again, but there appears to be no way of guarding against this at present except by putting the Tories in power—a simple plan, but one not likely to be adopted by the constituencies. Indeed, how the Conservatives will ever get the home-rule question pure and simple before the country passes comprehension, unless they can get an act passed ordering a referendum. Either a dissolution or an adverse vote in the House would not do it, as it did in the case of the Reform bill, because there are a dozen questions now agitating the popular mind for the one which agitated it then, and no one will vote for a member on any one of them solely.

### "BOSH."

It seems a pity that a man of as much general ability and good sense as Mr. Coudert should be found at this crisis helping to keep the yoke of Tammany fastened on the city of which he is one of the ornaments. He has a graceful tongue and ready wit, but the gods have apparently left him without political judgment. The other day he denounced in unmeasured terms the plan of conducting city offices on a non-partisan basis, and the plan of electing a non-partisan mayor to conduct them. Now what makes this melancholy reading is that it runs counter to the experience of mankind. If all prominent men had made light of experience as Mr. Coudert does, he would himself be in the woods half-naked to-day, trying to light a fire by rubbing two sticks together, instead of shouting "Bosh!" at Tammany meetings. Why, Tammany itself is the product of experience. If the value of organization had not been tried before Tammany, Tammany would never have existed. Nearly all the little "organizations," too, which are now in the field "claiming" votes, and clamoring for offices, and "standing by the party," and "hanging their banners on the outer wall," are imitations of Tammany—attempts to profit by the lesson of its success.

The truth is, that no city has ever been well governed on a partisan basis. Human nature forbids it, because a man who carries partisanship into a business which has no relation to legislation, which is simple administration for the benefit of people who may or may not belong to his party, is sure to mismanage it. We might deduce this *à priori* from principles of human nature, even if the city had never existed. But cities do exist, and we know all about the government of them. All the well-governed cities are governed on a non-partisan basis—London, Paris, Berlin, Vienna, Glasgow, Birmingham, Liverpool, Washington. All the badly governed ones are governed on a partisan basis — New York, Philadelphia, Chicago, Cincinnati, St. Louis, Pekin, Constantinople, Timbuctoo, Khartum, and Gondokoro. Mr. Coudert cannot cite a single example in support of his "bosh."

This leads us to say that we cannot for the life of us understand how a man as civilized as Mr. Coudert can expect to dispose of all this experience and all the arguments based on it by shouting "Bosh!" and making a simple contradiction. That style of outcry of course is effective in Tammany Hall, but he is now talking for a larger and more enlightened audience, to whom he is not a final authority. Much as it admires him, it has not yet got to the point of releasing him from the necessity of proof and illustration. It has not forgotten that when the committee of which Mr. Coudert was a member found Maynard guilty of stealing or suppressing election returns, on irrefragable proof, the answer of David B. Hill to the charge was, "Bosh!" He said it was "all bosh," and that the lawyers (including Mr. Coudert) who made it were "a brainless set of namby-pambys." The public have not accepted this answer as sufficient. They said to Hill it was not enough to say "bosh," that he must either deny or explain; he has done neither. In fact, "bosh" has no recognized place among arguments. It is unknown in treatises on formal logic, and is not in any way a product of the human understanding. It is generally used, in fact, to cover a temporary failure of the reasoning powers, and ranks with "Pshaw!" and "Shut up!" as modes of escape from a dilemma.

One thing more. Mr. Coudert was one of those who found Maynard guilty of theft. It is a matter of notoriety that Hill instigated that theft, that after it was committed he defended it through every form of expression within his reach, and finally that he recommended the appointment of the culprit to a seat on the bench of the Court of Appeals. Mr. Coudert, in giving the *World* an account of what happened in the Democratic convention, in its issue of September 28, avoided saying what he was himself going to do about the nomination. He recorded the difficulty there was in getting Hill to take it, and then went on to declare that Hill "carried great weight with a large mass of our people," that "the anti-machine Democrats would give him all the support they could," that Hill "would make a vigorous fight," and that "he [Mr. Coudert] would not be surprised to see him win." Now it is open to Mr. Coudert or any other gentleman to maintain dead silence during a political canvass, if he be so minded. But if he takes the field at all, either to record, to warn, to comfort, or to command, he is bound to give us his whole mind. We have a right to know what Mr. Coudert is going to do about Hill himself. If he announces his intention to support him, he ought to explain to us on what theory of morals he is going to do it, and more particularly to explain the relation of the Christian man in a modern state to the government of his country, and the exact limits of the province of conscience in politics. He owes this to his church, to his profession, and to his many admirers.

### *WHAT A MAYOR SHOULD BE.*

Almost ever since municipalities were founded, it has been the practice to put at the head of them men who have been conspicuous and successful in them in some honest calling, who are old enough to be known and respected by the bulk of the citizens, and who possess some familiarity with municipal affairs and with the character of the men likely to be called on to fill the minor municipal offices. Human experience in all ages and all countries has justified this practice. It is the business way of filling responsible places. It is the way private concerns fill them. It was our way until the election of Grant in 1888. Before that we always tried for what is called an "eminent citizen"—that is, for a well-known man who was in some way connected with the growth and prosperity of the city by the nature of his vocation and by his manner of pursuing it. We made mistakes, as in the case of Hall and Havemeyer and Edson, but we were on the right track. "The principle was sound though the experiment was a failure."

One would suppose that after the experience we have had with Grant and Gilroy—both dragged out of obscurity, and one of them out of poverty, to administer great affairs—we should have all bowed without hesitation to the earlier and better custom; that is, we should all say our mayor must be a well-known man, a man of mature age, and a successful business man. Mr. Grace's remark that besides being a successful business man he should be familiar with municipal affairs, has a certain truth in it, but not half as much as seems. Municipal affairs are no mystery to any good business man. The mayor's chief duty under our present charter is to see that competent and honest men fill the offices, and to punish negligence and incapacity. What makes them seem mysterious is the dickering and intriguing which goes on in the attempt to satisfy the various "boys" and "bosses," the Jakes, Mikes, and Barneys who get a living out of the city in return for votes. No respectable man ought to or can master this art. It is work for men like Grant, and Gilroy, and Croker, not for men fit to be mayor of this great commercial city.

But, judging from the attempt of the Committee of Seventy to nominate Mr. Goff, the lessons of the past do not seem to have done much good. We perhaps owe an apology to Mr. Goff for using him as an illustration, for no one has a heartier admiration for the work he has done, or more gratitude for the service he has rendered the city, than we have. He will make an admirable criminal judge if he gets the place of recorder. That is in the line of the ability he has shown. But Mr. Carter well said, some months ago, that we cannot govern this city through the grand jury. Nor, we may add, can we govern it through public prosecutors. The duty of a mayor is to appoint and administer, not to ferret out crime. There would, therefore, be something we should call childish, if it were not so Oriental, in the way in which we seize hold of anybody who has caught a thief, like Mr. Gaynor or Mr. Goff, and offer him the highest honors within our gift. It must look to foreigners as if we were really at the end of our tether; as if our supply of fit men for important places was really exhausted. Mr. Goff, we are sure, if he continues his career on the same lines, has high honors in store for him; but he is not yet well enough known or long enough in public affairs for the place for which the Committee of Seventy sought to nominate him. We ought not, perhaps, to treat the late talk of Quigg for the mayoralty seriously,

but it illustrates the same proposition. Quigg is a young newspaper reporter who last year won a seat in Congress with the help of the *Tribune*. Very few people had ever heard of him till then. Very few know anything about him now, yet these few and some others think he would be just the man for mayor. It all reminds one of the way Haroun al-Rashid used to select his grand-viziers.

This turning of the public mind to public prosecutors for high administrative places is, however, a not unnatural result of the condition of our affairs during the last fifteen years. The work of municipal reform during that period has consisted largely, not in improving or beautifying the city, and making life in it more commodious and healthful, but in simply protecting ourselves against thieves, bullies, and blackmailers. Our mayors, even when we have good ones, could do little but hang up notices warning us to look out for pickpockets. Consequently, when a man appears on the scene who has the courage and ability to collar the malefactors and bring them to justice, we almost fall down and worship him, and think no place too great for him. But this state of mind, natural though it be, is humiliating in the extreme. We must remember that we are citizens of no mean city, that we have among us conspicuous men of capacity who have helped to build up its prosperity and add to its fame, who are worthy of honor and confidence, although they have not hunted down our criminals.

In finally nominating William L. Strong for the mayoralty, the Committee of Seventy doubtless did the best thing possible under the circumstances. In the first place, he is a man of high character, is well known, and has succeeded in his own calling—the three primal qualifications for the office. In the next place, he has taken his stand squarely on the platform of the Committee, and has promised to administer the affairs of the city on a non-partisan basis. In the third place—and we commend this point earnestly to the consideration of honest Democrats—he is likely to be trusted by the incoming Governor and Legislature, who will be almost certainly Republican. This is the capital fact of the situation. A Republican Legislature will not give a Democratic mayor the powers necessary to make the smallest impression on city corruption and malfeasance. We are sorry for this, as there are plenty of Democrats abundantly worthy of confidence; but facts are facts, and Republican distrust is a very important fact. A Democratic mayor would probably not be allowed to make a single removal or appointment except such as came to him under the present charter, and we should continue to wallow in our present quagmire until the next Presidential election, and then might well bid farewell to all thought of city reform. A Republican mayor is, on the other hand, very likely to get authority to sweep the present gang out of office, and we may even secure a charter like that of Brooklyn, which will make all city offices conterminous with the mayor's.

In any other business, occupation, or enterprise but that of city government, a man who should avow his disregard of these considerations, and declare that nothing would induce him, no matter what the consequence to himself or his family, to vote for a Democrat or a Republican, or to put a Democrat or a Republican in a place for which he was eminently fit, would be treated as a lunatic and confined in an insane retreat by sorrowing friends. But somehow, in city affairs, it is considered by many something shrewd and able, and by others something fine and noble and true. We do not seek to explain it as a psychological phenomenon. We simply call attention to it as an ample and adequate explanation of the condition of New York to-day. No one who is puzzled by the continued rule of Tammany need go one step further for an explanation than a Democratic or Republican convention, and listen to the solemn avowals of inability to accept a Democrat or a Republican, no matter what his character, for a municipal office. Here is the root of all the trouble, the *causa causans* of Croker, and Gilroy, and Divver, and Martin, and the whole crew. We were in hopes that the experience of the last few years would do something to abate this party mania among the more intelligent classes, and it has done a good deal, as we think the election will show. The mania we believe to be now largely confined to the "organizations" and the "leaders" and workers. They are manœuvring "for position," and "keeping the party together," and upholding "standard-bearers," and playing all sorts of fantastic tricks, while the city is perishing of knavery, and fraud, and filth, and crime. The great body of the voters, however, are beyond their reach, and they have it in their power at the coming election, if not to give the city a non-partisan régime, at least to prepare the way for it.

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### *THE APPORTIONMENT QUESTION.*

One of the most important constitutional questions to be decided by the people next month is the proposed apportionment of the State for members of the Legislature. Fortunately this is one of the proposed changes which will be submitted separately, so that every man can declare his opinion without fear that a vote one way or the other will affect the fate of the main body of the Constitution.

The Senate of this State has since 1821 consisted of 32 members, and the Assembly of 128. It is proposed to increase the number of Senators from 32 to 50, and the number of Assemblymen from 128 to 150. The proportion between the two bodies has been one to four; it is proposed to make it one to three. The chief motive for these changes is a partisan one. The majority of the Constitutional Convention were Republicans, and Republicans believe that they will stand a better chance of carrying each branch of the Legislature with such an increase in the number of their members than they do now. In order to strengthen this chance, the State is divided into Senate and Assembly districts in such a way that Republican votes count for a good deal more than Democratic.

It has become an established principle that each county in the State shall have at least one member of the Assembly—except that Hamilton, which includes much mountainous and uninhabited territory, has its 5,000 scattered residents counted with Fulton County. There are thus fifty-nine Assemblymen to represent counties as political divisions, apart from the question of their size. It is, of course, obvious that the remaining members of the body—sixty-nine as now constituted and ninety-one as proposed—should be apportioned "as nearly as may be according to the number of their inhabitants, excluding aliens"—to quote the old provision on the subject. This principle is violated in the proposed apportionment. Cattaraugus County, always Republican, with a citizen population of 59,700, is given two Assemblymen, and two senatorial districts in Erie County, usually Republican, with a population of 100,000 each, are given three apiece, while the annexed district of the city of New York, with 116,532 citizens, which is likely to be Democratic, is allowed only two members.

Gerrymandering is also practised in regard to the Senate, and the principle that each district shall contain as nearly as may be an equal number of inhabitants is openly disregarded. Gross inequalities are perpetrated in order that Republican counties may enjoy an advantage over Democratic. The ratio is one Senator to every 115,817 of citizen population. Cayuga and Seneca Counties together have only 86,507 citizens, but a reliable Republican majority, and they are granted a Senator, although about 30,000 short of the ratio. This, too, notwithstanding there are contiguous counties any one of which might have been joined to them without exceeding the ratio. Fifteen districts are created which have a population of 459,672 less than fifteen other districts, in such a way as to over-represent Republican districts by 130,348 and leave unrepresented a population in Democratic districts of 131,287.

Nor is this the worst feature of the scheme. The proposed apportionment is to go into effect at once, and hold until after the census of 1905 is taken, and it is further provided for all future time that

> "No county shall have more than one-third of all the Senators; and no two counties or the territory thereof as now organized, which are adjoining counties, or which are separated only by public waters, shall have more than one-half of all the Senators."

This means that New York shall never have more than one-third of the upper branch of the Legislature, and that New York and Brooklyn together shall never have more than one-half,

It will be only a few years before New York city will have one-third of all the people in the State, and New York and Brooklyn together (very likely then one city) half of the population. By the State census of 1892 New York had 1,801,739 of the 6,513,343 souls in the State, or almost 28 per cent.; New York and Brooklyn together, 2,797,015, or almost 43 per cent. Between 1880 and 1892 these two cities had grown at the rate of nearly 55 per cent., while the gain in the remainder of the State had been only a trifle beyond 13 per cent., or only one-quarter as rapid. By 1900 the two cities promise to contain half of the total population, and their preponderance in this respect seems likely to grow.

The proposition that more than half of the people in a State shall never have more than half the members of the State Senate because they live in two adjoining counties is outrageous. We might point out the injustice to New York and Brooklyn of withholding from them their fair share of control in a body which legislates for them. But the injustice is more fundamental even than this. The proposed provision is a denial of the democratic principle of government. It is based upon the theory that the majority shall *not* rule if they live in cities; that a minority ought to control if they live in the country. There is no room for argument over such a proposition. The very statement of the case shows how utterly indefensible the scheme is.

To adopt this amendment would be to incorporate in the fundamental law of the State both an offensive display of partisanship and a discreditable impeachment of the principle of majority rule. Every fair-minded man will vote against it.

## "*THOUGHT ABOUT SOCIOLOGY.*"

A WRITER in the *Annals* of the American Academy has an article of which the purpose is "to set forth the present condition of thought about sociology." He considerately starts off by warning us that "we must not confound sociology with social problems." This is important. Many a man who would shy at the very mention of social problems, from which most of us have suffered unspeakable things, would walk up to an article about sociology with pleased expectancy.

Walking up to this one, he will find, what some supernaturally acute minds had already suspected, that, while "there is at present a great deal of thinking" about sociological science, "there are, even among those who have studied the science most, vague and conflicting notions about its method and what it proposes to do." How vague and conflicting, the writer, Mr. I. W. Howerth, proceeds to show by citing the answers he got to certain questions addressed to "all the teachers of sociology in the United States." They were asked whether they really thought the study was entitled to be called a science, how they placed it, what were its relations to political economy, history, etc., how it should be "divided," and how and where taught.

Some of the answers put it beyond all question that there is a great deal of thinking going on in the sociological field. One professor solemnly informs us that "the relation of sociology to political economy, history, etc., is *close*." Another one does not "feel at all sure" whether sociology is a science or not, but thinks it would be well to call it so "in order to make sure that it received proper attention." One of the older heads, Prof. Bascom, seems to enter into the humor of the situation, and writes: "It will do no harm to call it a science if we do not abate our effort to make it one." Boiling the several opinions down, the compiler of this census of the sociologists arrives at the conclusion that "sociology either is or is rapidly becoming a science." The diverse views on the other points of Mr. Howerth's catechism we have not room to quote, delightful as some of them are. He himself frankly sums up the results of his labors by saying that they have chiefly served "to show the chaotic condition of sociological thought."

There are those who were prepared to believe this without troubling Mr. Howerth to collect his evidence so laboriously. A few samples of chaos are as good as a universe in ruins. Indeed, this writer's way of going to work is illustrative of the curious complacency with which the statistical method is put to futile use in many branches of inquiry nowadays. If you are in doubt, get the opinions of fifty more men who are in doubt, and the result is—certainty! Mr. Howerth gives the impression of a man saying to himself: "Hang it all! I don't know whether sociology is a science or not. Then, how the dickens am I going to differentiate it from political economy and ethics? I wonder if other teachers see grins going round the class-room when they 'divide' sociology into 'descriptive, statical, and dynamic.' I'll write and ask 'em if they are in as much of a muddle as I am." He finds they are, collates their answers as a contribution to "thought about sociology," and sighs contentedly as a man who had got *that* piece of work well off his hands.

But more striking, and more lamentable, is the mental attitude of so many of the professors here quoted—some of them men of reputation. They betray a nervous anxiety lest their work be not thought of as highly as they would like. It may not be a science, but if calling it so will bring them any more pudding and praise, by all means call it so. They must get their "department" on a level with others, either by pulling the others down or hoisting their own on stilts. The great thing is to get their work called scientific, no matter whether it is useful or reasonable. They remind one of a man at dinner, uncertain of his social standing, who is in a great funk lest he be snubbed by the man on his right or laughed at by the lady on his left.

Now, it is safe to say that no great scientific work was ever done by a man who was fretting over the question whether he was a scientist or not. The work is the thing, and not what it is called. On the other hand, no name can dignify a work which in itself is petty or futile. Bishop Potter has reminded us that calling an absurdity "Christian" does not make it any the less absurd; neither will calling it "scientific." Prof. Commons of Indiana University is for exalting sociology over history—which is "sociological evolution"—and ethics—which is "sociology working towards the goal of human betterment." He is the man who wants cities to own street-car lines so that laboring-men out of work can ride up and down for nothing while looking for a job. But does it help that doctrine any to call it scientific, or to say it is working towards the goal of human betterment? Not a whit, and the best thing our sociological friends can do is to get over, as soon as possible, their nervousness about what they may be called and in what department they belong, and bend all their efforts to making their opinions and their teachings clear, verifiable, and in accord with human nature as it is. Let them do this and the world will find the right name for them fast enough. So it will, we may add, if they do *not* do it.

## *OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES.*

THE death of Dr. Holmes has closed many careers in one end. His versatility was such that one hesitates whether to speak first of the man of society, or the literary wit, or the practitioner, or the novelist, or the poet. This diversity sprang rather from the different employments to which he put his mind than from the various richness of natural genius. It was in some degree the product of the influences of the city, which operate upon men of education to bring out their whole capacity. He was from his breeding both academic and urban; and he carried out to the end the early aims and ambitions which thrive in the centres of learning and society. He was one of that rare class of minds to which their environment is not a limitation. He harmonized with the conditions of living into which he was born, with the settled order of old Boston, old Harvard, and the Saturday Club; and as he made the most of them, they made the most of him. The identity between himself, as a literary personality, and Boston was the largest part of his good fortune. He was that best sort of a representative of his city, a growth out of its previous society, traditions, and prejudices. The exclusiveness which made him prefer a man of family was a part of his genius; the same feeling, with a difference, made him prefer his own town to the rest of the universe; and thus it was not by accident, but by right of nature, that he should be the official poet of Harvard, which filled a larger relative place in Boston life than in these days, and the loyal laureate of his city to salute, to toast, and to bid farewell to the guests whom it most honored. It would be unjust, nevertheless, to refer to him now solely or

mainly as a poet. He succeeded quite as well in the use of his other talents, and these helped largely in establishing the reputation of his later days. The scientific element, even in his books, is a constant quantity; it colors his novels and often gives glow to his stanzas, and in his printed conversations over the table it is ever at hand for illustration. His wit, too, and those felicities of which he learned the secret in private talk with his friends, are ingredients never lacking. He must be regarded as poet, professor, and autocrat at once, if one would have a rounded conception of him, and understand what sort of personal power in him it was that extended a local reputation over a continent.

When one reviews his life, perhaps the most obvious trait of it is its apparent lack of change. It is true that his literary career did not really begin until he was well on in middle life; he came forward then with a mature and well-stored mind, and the great impression he made in the early numbers of the *Atlantic* was due to the self-repression which had allowed him to come at last full-handed and with his thoughts and manner unstaled. It would have been remarkable if his literary talent had suffered any serious modification after such a success so late in life. But as a poet he had been precocious, and there are very many of his verses, upon all sorts of occasions and in several styles, which were produced in the earlier years of his manhood; and in these there is the same quality, somewhat less highly developed, perhaps, as in the last lines from his pen. He had never attempted the modern style in poetry; there are no "native wood-notes wild" in his range, nothing in "the pastoral line," nothing of Keats or the later romanticists; he was from the start a poet of society, and he found it convenient and perhaps necessary to continue in the somewhat mechanical measures of the last century, which are best fitted for artificial and occasional verse.

Apart from the fact that Dr. Holmes adopted and retained these simple and prosaic measures, one other circumstance possibly tended to stiffen his early choice and practice into the gyves of habit. Most of his verses were not merely recited, but were written for recitation. The poet kept in mind the appeal to the audience necessary for success, the momentary stroke, the immediate flash of appreciation, the mixture of humor and epigrammatic eloquence, most effective to the ear of an assembly; and to secure these ends the Queen Anne forms of verse are the best adapted. His employment as an occasional poet, no doubt, had its effect in accustoming him to write from an intellectual and social impulse out of which the poetry most in vogue with this century does not spring. There is little to show, however, that he had any lyrical gift of the higher order. His vigorous faculty was the intellect; with it were something of sentiment and much of humor, which, blending with the strong mental element, resulted in poetry in which every line is masculine. The extraordinary success which Dr. Holmes has had in adhering to an antiquated form of verse is due to its admirable fitness to be the vehicle of his mind. He discovered this correspondence between his thought and his measure, his occasion and his instrument, early in his career; and to the end of his days the range of his poetry remained the same. It is not likely that it was limited by the narrow compass of his verse forms; rather, the two coincided.

The conservatism observable in his poetry was characteristic of his entire nature. Even when he was liberal, it was with a Toryish spirit. He felt strongly upon a few points. He was never at a loss for a word in favor of liberal theology, and one of his favorite modes of praise was by means of censure of the old school. He was, during the war, a strong Unionist, and his stanzas of the time are remarkable now for the heat of their rhetoric, aglow with the intense feeling of the hour; but he did not often use his metrical gifts for controversy. On the other hand, his conservatism supplied him with admirable powers of resistance. He was proof against whatever did not fall in with his habits of thought and standards of judgment. In these there was a certain admixture of tradition. Along his own lines, however, he developed with steady gains of power and touch. Some of his later poems rank with the best of an earlier time in literary skill and in their own charm. The 'Autocrat,' which marks the maturity of his faculties, is his richest work in both prose and verse. It exhibits a mind with various powers in admirable composition working harmoniously and easily together. It shows both weakness and strength. One would have inferred, from the handling of the little romance in its pages, that there would be some uncertainty and awkwardness in the author's story-telling when he should come to the making of novels. Its greatest attraction lies in the personality of the talker, who was able under this fiction to give expression to his discursive mind, to use those unexpected but apt comparisons, and to announce those paradoxes, which belong to the fine art of conversation, to expose his hobbies, and to exploit his scientific knowledge—in a word, to surrender his mind into his readers' hands. Dr. Holmes, to every one who read this volume, immediately became like a familar figure on the street; he had found the way to make the acquaintance of men and women whom he did not meet directly, and he did it so successfully that he became at once an old friend; it is as the Autocrat that he is still most often referred to and best known. In the later volumes of the series there was the same sense of immediate communication between author and reader. The popularity of all these monologues among men of affairs was very remarkable. The vitality, acuteness, and originality of statement, the incisive and absolute manner, and the intermittent humor which were the distinguishing marks of the author, were of themselves sufficient to account for this, but something was due to the rarity of the sensation. It is not often that a man of mature years and such admirable social equipment writes a book for the entertainment of his fellows in the same spirit in which he would sit down to talk with his friends, and discusses with them things in general. It requires, moreover, some experience in growing old to appreciate the flavor of the style. One may observe in Dr. Holmes's later prose, as in his poetry, the absence of any change in his quality or form. There is in his very last papers an even more intimate mode of address, and perhaps a mellower temper, natural to old age such as he was fortunate enough to enjoy; but this is only what years will do for a good vintage.

As a man of letters Dr. Holmes has the wide scope upon which we have briefly touched; but it is, perhaps, rather as a man of his time that he will be remembered. Even now a large part of his reputation rests upon other grounds than his books. His personality counts perceptibly in his popularity. He is, too, a part of the past of Boston. Merely to turn over the pages of his poems reminds us with how large a portion of the literary life of the city in this century he has been in contact. He was himself, as Mr. Stedman has remarked, an inheritor of the old Phi Beta Kappa poets as a recitationist, and he is the last of the line. The titles of his biographies recall his close association with Motley and Emerson, and the number of his elegies upon learned or literary friends is very large. There are few prominent Boston names of this century that are not beaded somewhere upon his verse, and his tributes to them have often been noble words. With the great occasions of the city, the days of the entertainment of distinguished guests, he has been as constantly associated. Few foreigners of note have been in Boston without taking his hand. In the social and intellectual life of the city he has held for fifty years a leading place, and has made his memory long in local annals. We said he had extended a local reputation over a continent. But in becoming famous he did not cease to be local. It was as a Bostonian that he was known. His attachment to the city was great enough to keep him there for the half-century between his student days and his old age; and his flattering literary and social reception in England, late in life, did not tempt him to recross the Atlantic in quest of fresh honors. It is not without reason, therefore, that his city has been so faithful to him, and now regrets him. Among the group of literary men with whom he associated there are names destined to a longer brilliancy, and their works have been of larger measure; but among them there is none who in life was the source of more pleasure to the social gatherings of college and city, or used his talents with more faithfulness, making them serviceable within their range. He belongs to old Boston now—an historical period of the city that cannot be recalled without his name.

## FUTILE LEGISLATION FOR IRELAND.

DUBLIN, September 16, 1894.

THE appointment of the select committee of the House of Commons on the working of the Irish land acts, whose report has just appeared, was delayed till late in the session. The terms of reference limited the inquiry to the question of rent-fixing alone, and the witnesses examined were, with the exception of three landlords' representatives, officials engaged in the administration of the law, whose tendency was therefore to take an optimistic view of their work. The committee had before them several leading cases decided by the various courts, which showed the interpretation put by the courts on the fair-rent statutes; and as the effect of these judicial interpretations was well known in Ireland and the cause of just complaints, the examination of decided cases and the explanation of their reasons by the judges merely served to put formally on record before Parliament what was a matter of common knowledge and undeniable in Ireland.

The protracted and costly nature of the proceedings in cases involving infinitesimal quantities of value has been most oppressive to an humble class of suitors, and in many instances amounted to a denial of justice. A fair-rent application is heard in the first instance by a court consisting of two laymen and one lawyer; from their decision an appeal may be taken to the Land Commissioners, three in number, and on points of law and principle appeals may be taken to the High Court, and in some cases to the House of Lords. The lower courts are of course

bound to follow the principles laid down by the superior courts, and by degrees the plain words of the statutes have been inverted and held to mean almost the reverse of what the plain grammatical construction would indicate. The fact of the judges, commissioners, and agricultural assessors being all drawn from a class out of sympathy with and politically opposed to the tenant farmers has no doubt had much to do with what the select committee terms "the microscopic nicety of judicial interpretation." The methods of valuation, the forms of procedure and reports prescribed by the Land Commission have all been arranged to the disadvantage of the poorer suitors; and in such contests all the best professional talent, legal and agricultural, is at the command of the richer side.

Before the Committee, the witnesses representing the courts through which a fair-rent case may successively pass were more or less on their defence, and each court was ready to throw the responsibility of the defeat of Parliament's intentions on the other. The Sub-Commission Courts practically said, We administer injustice, but we are bound to follow the Court of Appeal. The Court of Appeal, on the other hand, disclaimed the conclusions drawn from their judgments, which, as to principle, are always of the vaguest possible character. The Committee's report says:

"Your Committee can come to no other conclusion than that the general practice has been, and is, to deny to the tenant that share in the value of his improvements to which the Court of Appeal declared him to be entitled, and to leave out of account, in fixing the fair rent, that interest of the tenant to which the statute expressly directed the courts to have regard."

This alone is a sweeping condemnation of the law and its administration, and a complete justification of the popular discontent.

The Committee recommends immediate legislation to define and protect the interest of the tenant and to secure coherent administration; that the right of appeal shall be limited to the larger and more important cases, inasmuch as on questions of value and agriculture the appeal is taken from a more to a less competent court; that the improvements and equipments of farms shall be presumed, in the absence of proof to the contrary, to be the tenant's property, and their value secured to him, as "it is abundantly clear that it is the practice in Ireland for the tenant to make the improvements, and therefore the presumption of law should lie accordingly." "It is certain," the report says, "that the tenant alone is willing to make improvements, or will in future make them. The public interest, therefore, demands that he should be encouraged by being secured in the enjoyment of the value resulting from his expenditure and labor."

This report makes the introduction of another Irish Land bill inevitable next session; and an Irish Land bill every line of which will be fought means the exclusion or postponement of much urgent English and Imperial legislation. Even if such a bill became law, there would be no finality in it, for it could only be a patch on the many complex and intricate statutes which already deal with the relations of landlords and tenants in Ireland. The Land Code now consists not only of these statutes, often conflicting as well as complex, but of a mass of undigested legal decisions, the applicability of which under a new law will be most difficult to determine. The committee deals with this matter in winding up its report, but in the present condition of legislative efficiency the recommendation is not likely to be carried out for many a year. It says:

"Your Committee are of opinion that opportunity should be taken as soon as feasible of consolidating the Irish Land Laws in one consistent and intelligible act, which, besides being complete in itself, should, in the words of the late Prof. Richey, 'be drawn up in such language, form, and manner that the landlords and tenants in Ireland (or at least such of them as are reasonably educated) should, like the inhabitants of Continental Europe and America, be able, without professional assistance, to discover their respective rights and duties.'"

Professor Richey has been dead for twenty years; but, both before and after his time, not only eminent individual Irishmen, but committee after committee, made the same recommendation; and yet during the last sixteen years, while over twenty acts of Parliament have been passed dealing with the Irish land system and the relations of landlords and tenants, each has been but a patch on or an amendment of the previous laws. Having regard to the demands on the time of Parliament and the methods of legislation for Ireland, consolidation and codification of the Irish land laws are as far off as ever. Irish land bills are framed not to work, but to pass through Parliament, where five-sixths of the members know little and care less about the details and facts of Irish land tenure. Government bills are knocked together in a hurry when "something must be done," and generally anything but the right thing is done. If a bill is meant to pass, the House of Lords must be considered; if it is brought in to satisfy the demands of the majority of Irish representatives and the wants of their constituents, it is not likely that it will pass.

The recommendations of the Land Committee are excellent as far as they go, and the suggested changes in the law urgently needed to make the present rent law tolerable, but these reforms will not deliver Parliament from the continual recurrence of a difficulty which it is clearly incapable of dealing with. In a country where farming is the main industry, a satisfactory system of land tenure is essential to peace and contentment. The Imperial Parliament has completely failed to settle a question which would long ago have been settled by Irishmen in accordance with public opinion in Ireland.

Successive English governments have carefully excluded from the administration of the land law every individual who was known to hold, or to have expressed, opinions in favor of radical reforms; the result has been that the laws have been administered by incompetent officials, or persons devoid of knowledge of the question and out of sympathy with the people. After fourteen years of such administration it is officially reported that the so-called "fair rents" are unfair and generally excessive. So far as the Government attempts to help landlords to enforce these rents, it is engaged in the impossible task of trying to get a quart out of a pint pot. Judicial rents have not been earned, but yet in numbers of cases they are paid in full from other sources, the chief of which are remittances from friends and relations settled abroad. Estimates have been made from time to time of the amount of these remittances since 1842, when public attention was first called to them. It is probable that not less than £1,000,000 is received every year by persons in humble circumstances in Ireland from friends abroad, and without this help many rents could not be paid. This estimate does not include the earnings of a vast number of small landholders who go to England and Scotland for part of the year to earn rents that cannot be made out of their farms in Ireland. In 1873 Dr. Hancock, who made a special study of the foreign remittances to Ireland, estimated the amounts sent from Great Britain alone by harvest laborers and others at £648,000. On most Irish farms rent in the economic sense is now rarely earned; that is, no surplus profit remains after the cost of cultivation and maintenance is paid, and interest allowed to the farmer on the capital he employs. Rent in such cases is paid from other earnings, or too often the farmer neither gets a "living wage" for his labor nor interest on his farming capital.

The Irish landlord, on the other hand, is in a much more favorable position than the English proprietor, who makes common cause with him. He is not required to make any outlay in improvements or maintenance of farms; he either gets an increased rent on account of the tenant's expenditure, or his rent is secured by the tenant's outlay on permanent improvements. The evidence to the Agricultural Commission sitting in England shows that rents have been reduced there by at least 40 per cent. during the last fifteen years; landlords who have taken farms into their own hands have been working them at a loss, and are often glad to have them kept under cultivation without rent. As an illustration of this depreciation, one owner stated that his rental in 1882 was £6,866, and in 1892 £3,365. While the rental had decreased 51 per cent., the arrears increased 224 per cent. "If we had been extreme," he said, "to mark what is done amiss, or to insist upon payment in full, hardly an old tenant would have been left." Almost nothing is left for the owner when he has made the usual and necessary outlays for maintenance, without which he could not retain his tenants. The reports to this commission say that tenants have lost their farming capital and cannot do justice to the land. One of the commissioners says of Lancashire, where, owing to the many populous towns, farming is carried on under exceptionally favorable circumstances: "Some large farmers, whose evidence is perfectly trustworthy, have told me that, after feeding and clothing themselves and their families, and paying no wages to their sons and daughters, they have made nothing for the last year or two, while several told me they have had to draw upon capital."

The Irish farmer who has to equip, repair, and maintain his farm bears the loss that falls on the owner in England as well as the farmer's loss; yet in Ireland the reduction of rent since 1881 has been only 20 per cent. It is difficult to see what the Irish landlord has to complain of, for £80 will buy more of both the luxuries and necessaries of life in 1892 than £100 would buy in 1881. In England tenants won't stay on their farms unless the landlord maintains them in an efficient state; in Ireland the tenant who has sunk his capital in building, draining, and fencing is unwilling to leave his outlay behind him.

The Agricultural Commission gives examples of the expenditure on many English estates. On Lord Sefton's estate of 18,000 acres during the last twenty-four years £286,000 was spent, and of this a very infinitesimal part carries interest. On one of Lord Derby's estates, comprising 43,000 acres, £199,000 has been spent since 1882 without any charge to the tenants. On Mr. T. Clifton's estate of 16,000 acres during the last fifty-six years £300,000 has been spent without any charge for interest. If the relations of landlords and tenants had been so carried on in Ireland, it is improbable there would have been any Irish

question everlastingly before Parliament; but, as the *Times* newspaper said some forty years ago, the Irish landlords "enforced their rights with hands of iron and disclaimed their duties with fronts of brass."

The difficulty of governing an overrented country where a large majority of the population are yearly rent-payers to a small and obnoxious class is the same as that of governing an over-taxed country. The force that makes for revolt against the Irish land system has no doubt diminished as the population has fallen from 8,000,000 to 4,500,000; but rents have not yet come down to peace level. Every year there is a recurring anxiety about the payment of rent, and of £1,500,000 which the Irish police force costs, not less than £1,000,000 is spent, directly or indirectly, for the recovery of rent. To leave the land laws excluded from the powers conferred on an Irish legislature, as proposed in the Home-Rule bill of 1893, would be to ignore the experience of the last fifty years of British legislation on the subject, and leave the Imperial Parliament still burdened with a question which year after year occupies more of its time than any other. The attempt to force Irish tenure into an English mould, and deal with relations of landlords and tenants as if they were the same as in England, has failed over and over again. A resolution passed yesterday at a public meeting in the County Armagh reads:

"That the system of landlordism, as worked in Ireland, has reduced our population from nine millions to five millions, thereby ruining our towns, villages, and industries, and plundering the farmers' capital invested in the land; and we call on our representatives to urge the present Government to end such a system by a bill just to the tenants and equitable to the landlords."

This expresses the general feeling of the country, where the dwindling population, ruined houses, decaying villages, vast grazing districts alternating with patches of poor land on which the population still remains, can but strike the most casual observer.

The official witnesses to the Land Committee stated that they acted on the principle of assigning to the landlord as a "fair rent" one-third of the gross produce of the land. Whatever the proportion really given to the landlord may be, a large part of the produce is swept away every year by absentee landlords, their mortgagees and annuitants; the rent is neither spent in Ireland nor are any public or social services rendered in return by those who receive it. Castles and mansions are going to decay as well as evicted cabins and farms, for those landlords who are rich enough to live in England do so, and those whose estates are loaded with debt often can neither live in their former residences nor let them. Observation of the decay everywhere prevalent in Ireland is confirmed by official statistics. The following figures, taken from the last number of the Statistical Abstract, give some idea of the comparative condition of the three divisions of the United Kingdom:

| | | England. | Scotland. | Ireland. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Births, | in 1892.... | 1 in 33 | 1 in 32.7 | 1 in 44 |
| Deaths, | | 1 in 53. | 1 in 54. | 1 in 51 |
| Marriages, | | 1 in 130 | 1 in 146 | 1 in 219 |
| Emigrants, | | 1 in 222 | 1 in 161 | 1 in 87 |
| Police, | | 1 to 732 | 1 to 930 | 1 to 340 |
| Variation of population since 1881..... | | +12.9% | +9.4% | −10.4% |

The ordinary Englishman is as ignorant of the economic conditions and circumstances of Ireland as he is of Bulgaria. The proceedings of the Committee on the Irish Land Laws attracted no attention in England; yet, in the absence of any political convulsion, a large part of next session will be occupied in considering another Irish land bill. Every detail of it will be decided by English votes and on a consideration of English interests; the bill will be prepared not by the responsible representatives of the Irish people, but by English draftsmen or by the Irish law officers who belong to a section which has always been hostile to popular reforms. In such circumstances a new law—even if assented to by the Irish members—can be neither final nor satisfactory.

AN IRISHMAN.

## LAKE GARDA AND LAKE ISEO.

CASTIGLIONE DELLE STIVIERE,
September 15, 1894.

THIRTY-FIVE years ago this Castle of the Gonzagas, in whose shadow I write, was held first by the Austrian, then by the French troops on the eventful day of Solferino, whose tower rises in the glowing sunshine far above the pines and cypresses, and is justly called "The Spy of Italy." Near it is the *ossario* where the bones of the French officers and soldiers are arranged artistically without regard to rank, and a giant skeleton of an Austrian horse-guard fraternizes with a French zouave about half his size. Solferino is now a favorite place for picnics, and the merry children who go nutting and blackberrying take small heed of the battles lost and won on the hills and plains they overlook from the heights. From the windows of the house which replaces the ancient Gonzaga castle (now in picturesque ruins) looking northward you see Monte Baldo, snow-topped in midsummer as in midwinter, above Lake Garda, which to cross you must take a carriage from Castiglione to Desenzano, as not even a tramway desecrates the lovely landscape. Starting at five A. M. on Wednesday with a son of Dr. Sacchi, the "fighting doctor," as Garibaldi used to call him, who died all too young in 1890, we took the steamer at half-past six on a quite boisterous lake, the keen wind blowing, the foam dashing on the surf so that the passengers had to land in boats at Sermione, San Felice, and Manerba, famous for its castle built by the Scaligers and for its strong, luscious wines. The islands on Lake Garda are fantastically beautiful, especially Isola di Garda, in which St. Bernardino of Siena spent ten years of penitential life in a grotto, and which now belongs to Duke Ferrari of Genoa, who has embellished the villa with seven hanging gardens.

Wide and safe is the gulf where, as Carducci sings,

"porge dal seno lunato a sinistra
Salò le braccia candide,
lieta come fanciulla che in danza entrando abbandona
le chiome e il velo a l'aure,
e ride e getta fiori con le man piene."

For us Salò stands for the headquarters of Bertani's ambulance in 1866, and we had just time to look up the house where all assembled at dinner on the 3d of July, settling how to celebrate Garibaldi's birthday, when Benedetto Cairoli brought the news that he was wounded, and sent me off to ascertain the exact truth. Fortunately the wound was slight, but it compelled him to finish the campaign in a carriage, whereas, had he been the omnipresent Duce of 1860, we should have been in Trent within the week, and the Italian Tyrol would not still be in alien hands.

From Salò all along the coast the lemon plants hold their own between the tall stone pillars which in winter are roofed and walled with glass. The manufacturers of *acque di tutto cedro* ("pure citron-water") have a thriving trade, and the citron-water, with an infusion of quinine, is a famous remedy for malarial fever. Gardone Riviera is a favorite resort of foreigners, owing to the constancy of its very mild climate. A spacious, elegant, but unpretending mansion on the border of the lake is pointed out as the Villa Zanardelli; and on the pier is the tall, thin, restless figure we know so well. In a moment we are by his side, and in a splendid four-oared boat, the *Val Trompia*, a gift from the electors of the valley where his father was born, we land at the villa where, away from the noise and turmoil of political life, the author of the New Penal Code spends summer and winter, spring and autumn.

In 1848–9 Zanardelli was one of the foremost defenders of his native "Brescia, the lioness of Italy"; in 1859 one of the first governors of the province; minister of public works with Nicotera in the first Liberal Ministry of 1876, again with Cairoli in 1878, and last, not least, with Crispi from 1887 to 1890. Now, utterly disapproving of Crispi's policy, he neither helps nor hinders it, refusing even to be Speaker of the House. There, with his magnificent library and devoted friends who come and go, assuredly for himself he has chosen the better part; but when Italy wearies of martial law, of governors invested with civil and military powers, there will be the cry for Zanardelli, and, as ever to his country's call, the author of the penal code abolishing capital punishment will answer, "Present." In the entrance hall is a splendid trophy, in bas-relief, a tribute from the Italian colony of Buenos Ayres to this "abolitionist." In theory of course he is right, only one could wish that *messieurs les assassins* would become converts.

Among his many guests that day were several of the Mille, and one of *my* wounded in 1866—yesterday prefect of Brescia, to-morrow (to his grief and pain) prefect of Girgenti. This "translation" is doubly hard, as he has to leave behind him a sick wife and two children, and has already "served his time" twice in Sicily; but, with all due sympathy for the ex-Garibaldian, the new destination of this pearl of prefects is a proof that Crispi means to send good men and wise, and no longer treat the island as a penal colony for stupid or delinquent civil servants. Among the many topics discussed was the death of Nicotera, whose loss can hardly yet be estimated in its fullest sense. Crispi's new version of Mazzini's "God and the People," now "God and the King," was freely and fiercely criticised, and in truth it passeth understanding.

I should say that Zanardelli prided himself on offering his guests a dinner of trout from the lake, truffles from the mountains; melons, peaches, grapes from the garden; wine from the hills, and for *liqueur* the pure citron-water of Salò. With the prefect we returned by carriage to Salò, and thence to Brescia, passing through Tre Ponti, where Oreste Bronzetti was mortally wounded in 1859, and Rezzato, where Garibaldi, awaiting the cavalry which was to accompany him to Lonato, received the tidings of Türr's defeat at Lupo. Sending off Menotti for fresh orders from the King, he, with lightning speed, arrived at Lupo, and, without a glance for the convoy of wounded and dying, halting in front of a column evidently in retreat, he shouted: "Keep your heads, by God! Don't dishonor Italy!"; and, despite the cannon on front and flank, they put the Austrians to flight—"honor" and

the battle-line saved. On the morrow Garibaldi crossed the Chiese, and sent to the bottom an Austrian man-of-war anchored in the Gulf of Salò. Recalling those good old days, the three hours' drive passed all too quickly; and alighting at the Albergo d'Italia, where we used to halt with the wounded before taking them to the hospital, it seemed indeed impossible that thirty-five and twenty-four years had come and gone since the last battles to oust the foreigners were fought and won, and that now Italy and Austria are allies, even though the latter still holds the unredeemed Tyrol and Trieste.

Early the next day we took a trap from Brescia to Iseo, "whose little lake," wrote George Sand, "has no grandeur in its aspect, but whose borders are fresh and calm as Virgil's Eclogues." Here the venerable and venerated Gabriele Rosa was on the lookout for us, his slight, bright form scarcely changed during the ten years that have elapsed since we saw him last at Milan. At that date, with Bertani, he commemorated Carlo Cattaneo, whose ashes were then transferred from the Monumental Cemetery to the Famedro, where they repose side by side with those of Manzoni. Rosa was one of the first members of Young Italy. When the Austrian police came to arrest him, he was so dangerously ill that the doctors forbade his removal. All his papers were seized, among them his juvenile poems, on which he had written, "Too full of hopes, of illusions, and of vanity"; a letter blessing his lucky star that for one hair's breadth wanting in his height he had escaped military service; other letters urging his comrades to work and to follow the path of duty and devote themselves to serious study. Hardly convalescent, he was conveyed to prison, where, by maintaining absolute silence, he avoided compromising himself or others. Accused of having enlisted Foresti in the ranks of Young Italy, the sbirro Zajotti affirmed that he was romantic and excitable, the inquisitor Kindinger that he had more talent and character than the other conspirators. So Rosa was condemned to death, and the sentence commuted to imprisonment for life in the Spielberg. Amnestied in 1847, he took an active part in the events of 1848-49, then and there proclaimed his faith in a federal republic, and (*rara avis*) has remained loyal to his faith up to this his eighty-fourth year. As an historical and economical writer he is much esteemed. He has refused to stand for Parliament, "unable to take the oath to monarchy." Simple in all his habits, he rises at six, writes, reads, takes long mountain walks, and is adored in Iseo. The loss of his favorite niece, who, with his daughter and son-in-law, had always lived with him, seriously affected his health last year, but we may hope still to retain him awhile in this sad Italy of to-day, where physical and moral death have changed the very nature of the people.

Rosa is well up in all that concerns the United States politically and economically, and his short, pithy articles in the *Sole* of Milan keep one *au courant*. He was literally shocked at the "God and King" heresy, and lives in the fond hope of seeing Zanardelli prime minister very soon. He could scarcely bring himself to let us depart, but was consoled by the promise that this winter we shall select and publish the third and last volume of Cattaneo's letters and political writings. Leaving Iseo after a visit to the hospital (a really splendid building), and Garibaldi's monument, the first erected in Italy, representing him standing on a high hillock of real earth, as he used to stand looking seaward from Caprera, we returned to Brescia in time to take the last train for Castiglione delle Stiviere, after thirty-six delightful hours the like of which we can scarcely hope to pass again.

J. W. M.

# Correspondence.

## OHIO DEMOCRACY AND ITS FINANCIAL CRAZES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of September 27 you speak of the greenback craze which afflicted the Ohio Democrats in 1875, when the late William Allen was their candidate for Governor. You state that the lesson of the defeat which they then received "served its purpose for sixteen years," when they decided to advocate free silver. In this you are somewhat in error. For several years the "soft-money" faction of the Democratic party in this State to a great extent subsided. But in 1878 the craze again became virulent, not to say contagious. Up to the year last named, Allen G. Thurman had been a consistent and unswerving "hard-money" man, of the school of Benton, and had steadily opposed fiat money and all similar financial vagaries. At this time, however, he yielded to the pressure of the "soft-money" advocates, made his memorable speech at Hamilton, and cast his lot with those whose delusions he had theretofore opposed. This was the mistake of his life, and he never received from his State any more official honors, notwithstanding his great ability and stainless integrity. In 1878 the Democrats were defeated, though they had carried the State the year before by over 20,000 majority.

In the following year, 1879, Gen. Thomas Ewing, now of New York city, was nominated for Governor by the Democrats on a greenback platform. He was opposed by Charles Foster, who was nominated by the Republicans. The platform of the latter party opposed the greenback theories then current, and declared for sound money and a stable currency. Foster made his fight squarely on that issue. Ewing, with great ability, stumped the State for his pet financial notion of more paper money, but was signally defeated. Practically, the "rag baby" was then laid under the sod. But to the wounded feelings of its mourners free silver came like a balm. The Ohio Democrats, to their sorrow, tried that notion in their platform in 1891.

They are trying free silver again this year, as you say. They may in the future have wisdom in things financial, but the outlook is not promising. In evidence of this may be cited the manifesto just issued in favor of free silver by A. W. Thurman, chairman of the Democratic State Executive Committee.—Truly yours,

H. T. Willson.

Akron, O., October 4, 1894.

## HOMES FOR WORKINGMEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A correspondent from Texas, in your issue of August 16, writing of the desire of wage-earners to own their homes, says incidentally that this desire is sufficient answer to the advocates of the single tax. It seems fair to say in reply that, whether or not single-taxers are right in their calculations, it is a fact that the main object of the tax-reform which they advocate is to diminish the number of tenants and to increase the number of landholders. The ideal of the single-taxers, one might perhaps say, is that every wage-earner should be a landlord.

It is true that the theory by which Mr. George arrived at the idea of the single tax does not regard ownership in land as being of the same nature as the ownership of a pocket-knife; but this theory need not disturb landholders any more than, for example, English landlords have been disturbed these hundreds of years by the theory that all the land belongs to the Crown. Single-taxers believe in the private, exclusive holdership of land; and their proposition to raise the public revenue by taxing only land-values does not involve any disturbance of the system of deeds and conveyances.

In the Twelfth Missouri district, where the single-taxers have nominated Mr. N. O. Nelson for Congress on the simple platform of "free trade and the single-tax," one of their campaign documents, as I see by their organ, the St. Louis *Courier*, is to consist of diagrams showing how small a percentage of persons in the district own their own homes. They will thus be going before the people on the very point raised by your correspondent.

Very respectfully, J. H. Dillard.

New Orleans, October 1, 1894.

## WOMEN AT LEIPZIG UNIVERSITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your number for this week, your correspondent, Miss Adele Luxenberg, referring to my article in the *Nation* for September 27, 1894, would correct my statements in regard to women at the University of Leipzig on the ground that "the few lines," etc., "would seem to be based merely upon the official note of the secretary." Now, as it happens, this university was the only one of those cited to whose secretary I did *not* write, for the reason that I had other and better means of getting at the information desired. I was myself a student at Leipzig for four semesters ('89-'91), and consequently am familiar with the conditions obtaining there at that time; and that they have not changed since, except, perhaps, in the attitude of individual professors, your correspondent's letter would be sufficient evidence for me even had I not otherwise informed myself to this effect. Women have no more privileges there now than they had then; they have never had any rights; and they are not now officially recognized as members of the University, however much they may be favored and furthered by individual professors. Their position is an unofficial one, of sufferance only. To be admitted as an *ordentliches Mitglied* to a seminar is indeed a great advantage, but it no more makes a woman a member of the University than does a certificate from a professor make her a Doctor of Philosophy from it. Such a certificate, which is also a private and personal favor from the professor as an individual, has been obtainable and has been obtained under similar conditions for many years. It may represent the equivalent of the *Staats-Prüfung*, but it is not "the same rights as men obtain by a regular course of university studies," since it is not a university degree, for which women may not as yet compete at Leipzig.

J. B. S.

New York, October 5, 1894.

## LIVING GREEK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Reading to-day in the current number of the *Forum* the persuasive plea of M. Genna-

dios for the study of ancient Greek through the modern language, I thought that some notes from the personal experiences of an American student in Greece might be apposite.

After a continued study in college of the written word on conventional lines, it was with some excitement that I arrived in Athens, about to put my acquisitions to a practical test. The experience of the first week was, of course, the usual one, for I found myself totally baffled by the pronunciation, by the strict insistence on accent (to which an Anglo-Saxon tongue, in spite of occasional exercises, written or vocal, applies itself unwillingly), and, as in all the speech of Southern Europe, by the rapid delivery. Nevertheless, encouraged by the testimony of optimistic acquaintances, I set to work, reading aloud each day, in the presence of a good-natured Greek, passages at random from the Athenian press; and it was not long before I dared to handsel the results of these studies in cafés or in the chance encounters of the day. Such is the intellectual curiosity of the race that you may learn in the school of the streets. A bootblack supplies you with an idiom, and the waiter who brings your coffee is only too willing to correct, and that without a smile, the solecisms of the foreigner. Indeed, accent apart, to an Anglo-American of classical training I believe modern Greek to be the easiest of languages. Not only is the prevailing sound of *ee*, the much-maligned *iotacism*, sympathetic to our tongue, but the tone value—that nasal stress and upper inflection—imparts, more especially to an American, a feeling of similarity and confidence. As to the vocabulary, the patois of railways and steamships (which is largely Italian) is easily learned, and, in the society of the educated, a classical word—in default of its modern diminutive—will always be understood. With peasants, even, this will sometimes suffice. At Argos, one day, a little girl drove her sheep near the excavations, and, for curiosity (for shepherdesses are rare in Greece), I asked my quick-witted workmen if she were not called ποιμένισσα. They understood at once, traced its connection with ποιμήν, but objected: "We say βοσκός [a word as old, at least, as the Anthology] and βοσκοπούλα," for ποιμήν and its feminine respectively.

From a two months' stay in Crete, where Greek alone is spoken, I can bear witness to the purity of the dialect. In this island, so much removed by political complications from the outside world, the language is singularly vigorous and unmixed. The few foreign words are Turkish or Italian, and nearly all are the names of things introduced to Crete by those nations. On the other hand, the philologist is pleased to hear on the lips of the peasantry words dating from Homer, and fragments of the Doric dialect now extinct upon the mainland.

After some months of daily practice in speaking and writing modern Greek, I made the experiment of sight-reading in the ancient authors whom I had purposely refrained from reading in that interval. The authors were Xenophon and Aristophanes, and the result was very encouraging. The prose author I was able to read without translating (an accomplishment aimed at, but, I believe, rarely attained, by our present system); and in the comic poet I found many new acquaintances, in fact, a thesaurus of those multitudinous diminutives which go to make up the new Hellenic. To Aristophanes, who represents nearest that unwritten colloquial Greek to which M. Gennadios refers, and to the New Testament, in which so many classical words, in their ecclesiastical sense, are crystallized, the speech of to-day has most similarity. Another argument adduced by the writer in the *Forum* points at a condition which, I believe, will surprise many. At Corfù, happy isle, they say the Levant begins, and from there, too, the empire of the Greek language extends, as of old, to farthest Syria. In all western Turkey it has vogue, its speakers in Egypt are numbered by hundreds of thousands, and in Asia Minor and the islands it remains, as in the Apostles' days, the common dialect.

In America, so far as I know, the study of Greek is nowhere begun, as M. Gennadios suggests, by learning the contemporary language. Aids, in English, are not lacking. Of the literary or urban usage the book of Messrs. Vincent and Dickson is representative, while that of Mrs. Ernest Gardner, wife of the director of the British School at Athens, is most faithful to the speech of the people. In the decadence of Greek studies, so mortifying to their lovers, ought not vivifying methods to be given a trial?

JOHN ALDEN.

ANDOVER HOUSE, BOSTON, MASS., October 8, 1894.

# Notes.

ROBERTS BROS. have in hand Prof. Adolf Harnack's 'History of Dogma'; the third and fourth volumes of Renan's 'History of the People of Israel'; the 'Letters of Emily Dickinson,' 1847 to 1886, edited by Mrs. Mabel Loomis Todd; 'Stars and Telescopes,' by Prof. David P. Todd and William Lynn; 'The Minor Tactics of Chess,' by Franklin K. Young and Edwin C. Howell; and Paul Bourget's 'A Saint,' translated by Miss Wormeley.

Charles Scribner's Sons will issue 'Wild Beasts,' by John Hampden Porter.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, will publish a 'Catechism for Social Observation,' intended for the use of "reporters of social life, novelists, local annalists, travellers, pastors, and all students of social science on its descriptive side," by Dr. Charles R. Henderson of the University of Chicago.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, announce 'A Book of Heavenly Birthdays,' by E. V. B., author of 'Days and Hours in a Garden.'

R. H. Russell & Son, New York, are making a holiday book of some hundred of the best drawings of Mr. Charles Dana Gibson, the well-known cartoonist of *Life*. It is a first collection from the work of this artist, and will make a folio volume 12x18.

Dent & Co. have led off the season of autumn and winter exhibitions in London by an attractive display in the galleries of the Royal Institute of Painters in Water Colors of over four hundred pictures in black and white, drawn as illustrations to books published by them. Walter Crane is well represented by his graceful designs for "The Tempest" and "The Two Gentlemen of Verona." The most conspicuous place in the exhibition must, however, be conceded to Aubrey Beardsley, whose too-mannered and often frivolous work—chapter headings and full-page designs for Malory's 'Morte D'Arthur'—are prominent on every wall. Before the private view was two hours old, the significant round red label on a number of the frames of his pictures had proved that, much decried as they are by conservatives in art, they have a substantial interest for buyers of original drawings. Following close upon his in interest come the drawings of William Hyde, another artist of whom more is likely to be heard in the future. His lovely pictures of English landscape have been done for the edition of 'Il Penseroso' and 'L'Allegro,' which the firm is about to bring out. J. D. Batten's illustrations to 'English, Celtic, and Indian Fairy Tales' are no less accomplished in execution than the black and white of the veteran Walter Crane, and have an advantage in freshness of imagination. A number of cases of artistically bound books, the bindings designed and executed by the workmen of Messrs. Dent, add to the interest of a highly creditable exhibition, and will probably sooner or later find their way across the water, as American buyers are stated to be the ones upon whom the firm depends in disposing of its most luxuriously bound editions.

Two important works of reference have recently been announced in Denmark as being in preparation. The first of these is a Dictionary of Danish Authors, 1854–1890, under the editorship of S. Birket Smith, chief librarian of the University Library in Copenhagen. It will record not only all separate works of the writers treated, but also important articles in magazines and newspapers, as well as the main facts of their lives. Special attention will be paid to pseudonyms. The second undertaking is of even greater practical value, being a new edition of Trap's Statistical and Topographical Account of Denmark, which has for many years been both out of date and out of print. That the new issue will sustain the reputation of this work as the standard description of Denmark is assured by the names of the editors, H. Weitemeyer and Profs. Falbe-Hansen and Westergaard.

Ex-Secretary of the Navy Thompson, in his 'Footprints of the Jesuits' (T. Y. Crowell & Co.), has presented a brief sketch of the origin, career, and principles of the Society of Jesus. It is not based on original research, it presents no very new or striking views, and its effectiveness would have been greater if the author had not allowed his antagonism to the Society to find such unreserved expression. In the later chapters there are copious extracts from recent Catholic writers which fully justify his argument that the existing dominant Ultramontanism of the Church is incompatible with civil and religious freedom, and that under it the citizen's first allegiance is due to the Holy See and not to his country.

Mr. Hardy of Oxford has given us in his 'Christianity and the Roman Government' (Longmans) an interesting sketch of the relations of the State to the Christians during the first two centuries, before the increasing numbers and perfected organization of the new Church had rendered it an *imperium in imperio*, to be reasonably regarded with suspicion as incompatible with the Roman theory of government. Prior to the new relations thus created, the sporadic and local persecutions which occurred (save the first one, instigated by Nero to divert the popular suspicion of his share in the conflagration of Rome) were rather the result of the hostility of the people to the sectaries, whose asceticism and seclusion from the interests of the community led them to be regarded with dislike and to be accused of *odium humani generis*. It is true that they were practically outlaws, that acknowledgment of the very name of Christian was sufficient for condemnation, and that refusal to join in the worship of "Rome and Augustus" was virtually equivalent to *majestas*, but the officials as a rule were averse to enforcing the death-penalty, and not only did not search for delinquents, but rather discouraged informers. All this is set forth with abundant learning by Mr. Hardy, who apparently has

exhausted all the sources of information. These, unfortunately, are scanty and fragmentary, and require for their comprehension and elucidation an accurate knowledge of the Roman organization and methods, for it is from the secular and not from the religious side that the perplexing questions involved have to be examined.

The 'Seven Little Australians' of Ethel S. Turner (Ward, Lock & Bowden) are the children of an English officer who happen to live in Australia, but behave as if they were in a New York tenement. For their undeniable naughtiness, which the author seems to think an interesting trait, their father is clearly to blame, since he treats them as a bushman might his imps, cuffing them about and horsewhipping them when they provoke him accidentally. If such are the fathers, the admitted lack of a model child in Australia is no mystery. A visit to the wild interior country distracts for a time from the squabbles of this unpleasant family, but in general the flavor of the book reminds one of certain wild fruits, rashly tried in childhood, which both taste bad and make you sick.

A genuine service has been rendered by Mr. William Nelson in his republication of the *Plain Dealer*, the first newspaper in New Jersey, of which he has privately printed a limited edition of 100 copies. This first flight of New Jersey journalism reached the dignity of eight issues, but was circulated only in the form of manuscript, the single copy of each issue being posted at the tavern of Matthew Potter at Bridgeton, N. J. The chief authors were Dr. Jonathan Elmer, Joseph Bloomfield, and Richard Howell, all of whom afterwards achieved high distinction in their own State. The essays are chiefly skits on the Revolution, but number four is a most welcome addition to the literature relating to the strange custom called bundling, proving that it was not local to New England, as many writers have claimed, but also proving that the custom was of very limited practice. The archaic colloquialisms and slang deserve the attention of Dr. Murray and his lynx-eyed coworkers.

—It is announced in the *Temps* of September 4 that M. Dragomanoff, the Russian writer who lately published a curious series of political letters of Turgeneff's, is now about to give to the world another series of letters not less interesting. These were written during his exile in Siberia by Bakunin, the coryphæus of anarchism. The odd thing about them is, that they show their writer to have been not only an ardent apostle of the destruction of the whole social order, and a hater of patriotism, but, at the same time, an enthusiastic Panslavist. In 1848 he took part in the Slav congress at Prague, in company with Russian priests and zealous orthodox. In the next year, it was for the part he played in provoking the Slav revolution in Bohemia that the Austrian Government handed him over to Russia; he was sent to Siberia, where he remained till 1861. For some years after his escape he was still hot in the Panslavist propaganda, and it was only late in life that he renounced it to become an anarchist pure and simple. In the letters that M. Dragomanoff will publish, Bakunin shows himself wholly Panslavist and revolutionary. But he is always fierce and destructive, with no thought as to rebuilding. Sometimes it was the destruction of Austria that he dreamed of, sometimes of Russia, sometimes of the whole human race. It was in this last thought that he chiefly dwelt in his later years, and his chosen maxim was, "Ni Dieu ni maître."

"In any case," says M. de Wyzewa, who writes of him in the *Temps*, "he was a singular personage. His best friends admit that they only half knew him. And I fear that his letters from Siberia themselves may hardly enable us to form a precise idea of his true character. Those who have already read them in manuscript draw the most contradictory conclusions from them; some see in them proofs of his sincerity, others of his trickery. Was Bakunin an enlightened apostle, or a secret agent of the Russian police, or, peradventure, both?"

—The thin volume on 'Tennyson and his Pre-Raphaelite Illustrators,' by George Somes Layard (London: Elliot Stock; Boston: Copeland & Day), is a rambling and inconclusive piece of work, containing some information and entertaining anecdote, a good deal of gushing enthusiasm, and a great deal of wild theorizing. The author's interpretation of Rossetti's "St. Cecily" is one of the most astonishing pieces of wilful misreading we have ever seen; and his attempt to maintain, against Mr. Pennell, that the engravings are not "translations" but facsimiles, while admitting Ruskin's statement that the drawings are "terribly spoiled in the cutting" and "the expression of feature *entirely* lost," is curiously captious and nugatory. The illustrations are the best part of the book; and of these that for which we are the most thankful is the reproduction of Holman Hunt's "Lady of Shalott" from a photograph of the original drawing on the block before engraving. This composition is perhaps the most beautiful thing Hunt ever did, the influence of Rossetti showing in a grace of line not habitual with the artist, while the drawing has a constructive firmness of which Rossetti was incapable and which has rarely been equalled by Hunt himself. It was rather well engraved, too, and this reproduction is the more valuable in showing just how great the loss by engraving is even at the best. Why the two plates after Mrs. Rossetti should have been included is difficult to see, unless it is for the purpose of showing how wofully bad Pre-Raphaelite work at its worst could be; but Rossetti's own sketch of "mythic Uther's deeply wounded son" might almost have answered this end.

—'New High German: A Comparative Study' is a most ambitious-looking production in two volumes by William Winston Valentine, late Professor of Modern Languages at the Randolph Macon College, Virginia, edited by A. H. Keane, late Professor of Hindustani, University College, London (Philadelphia: Lippincott). From the editor's preface we learn that, when the manuscript of this posthumous treatise (the author died in 1885) was left in his hands, he feared "that the preparation of the work for the press might involve some hard reading to bring it into harmony with the views of the 'New Grammarians' and other advanced workers in the field of German philology," but that a rapid inspection of its pages soon dispelled these fears. We do not wish to speak slightingly of a work which apparently is the fruit of a life devoted to conscientious study and careful reflection; but we are bound to say that the apprehensions expressed by the editor seem to us only too well justified by the book as it is now before us. No amount of "hard reading" could establish harmony between the attempt to discover the laws of organic linguistic growth and the registration of certain sets of grammatical rules; and no amount of editing could impart unity to a book which on one page gives an (however careful) account of Verner's Law, and on another a list of words "whose spelling might cause a difficulty in the present chaotic state of German orthography." If there is need of another German grammar, by the side of Brandt and Whitney, why does not some one translate Engelien's 'Grammatik der neuhochdeutschen Sprache'—a book admirably suited to introduce the student to the comparative and historical study of modern languages?

—German scholars have repeatedly expressed their surprise and pleasure at the success of their English collaborators in popularizing the results of critical Biblical investigations, and have lamented the fact that they themselves have not been able to do much in that direction. This can no longer be said since the publication of the new translation of the Old Testament, prepared by Kautzsch of Halle, with the assistance of ten other leading representatives of modern scholarship. The work is a massive double volume of nearly 1,250 quarto pages, published by Mohr, at Freiburg i. B. Its authors have aimed at a modern version of the Old Testament after the model of the classical New Testament translation of Weizsäcker—not a literal rendering, but a reproduction of the thoughts of the original in the best of modern German on the basis of the exegetical results of modern research. Their success shows that a really good translation is the best commentary. The Old Testament books here appear as literature, and are treated as a good scholar would handle Homer or Dante or Goethe. But, besides the translation, more than 200 pages are devoted to appendices, in which the results of the literary discussions of the entire Old Testament field are summarized in a manner unequalled anywhere. The literary sources of every book of the Codex are given, their historical order and chronological classification, together with a history of the literature of Israel in connection with the forces controlling the inner development of the people. It is perhaps hardly permissible to speak of so massive a volume as a *multum in parvo*, but such the book really is. A new map of Palestine, the work of Guthe and Fischer, accompanies the translation.

—'The Eastern Shore of the Black Sea and its Industrial Development during the Last Thirty Years,' by Dr. G. Radde, has been published as a supplemental number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen*. It is a description of a journey made in 1893 by the veteran German traveller, who has inhabited the Caucasus since 1863, and is especially interesting from the contrast which it draws. This contrast was most striking at the starting-point, Batum, which at the time of the Russian annexation in 1878 was hardly more than a mere fishing-village with scarcely 1,500 inhabitants and only one European house. It is now a well-built town of some 20,000 inhabitants with boulevards, parks, and schools, a harbor to which a thousand steamers come annually, and a railroad connecting it with the Caspian. From this place Dr. Radde proceeded north to Novorossisk, which, from its railway connection with the recently developed oil fields of Grosnoe, bids fair to rival the southern port in the extent of its petroleum trade. Poti, formerly the chief Russian port on this coast, lost ground on the acquisition of Batum, but is now regaining its former importance. In the year 1892, notwithstanding the cholera and the prohibition of the export of corn, its exports, chiefly manganese and corn, were nearly double those of the previous year, amounting

to about five hundred million pounds. Considerable promise has attended the growing of tea in the southern districts, while the vine-culture on the northeastern coast has an assured success. The best colonists are the Germans and the Armenians, but the progress of the country is seriously checked by the lack of labor, the difficulty of obtaining titles to the land, and the want of good roads from the rough character of much of the country and the frequent mountain-torrents. Dr. Radde gives a very particular account of the botany of the regions which he visited, and also some very interesting facts in regard to the present condition of the aurochs, or European bison. He believes that there are still some fifty or sixty living, but that though they are carefully preserved by the Government, they will be extinct within fifty years. A map of the region which they inhabit designates their feeding-places as well as the direction of their winter wanderings. There is also a map of the whole eastern coast.

—A writer in the Milan *Corriere della Sera*, Guglielmo Ferrero, under the caption "Fathers and Sons," regrets the oblivion into which the last revolutionary period of Italy is falling with the present generation. The legend has ceased to grow around the memory not only of Cavour, who could never be a popular figure, but even of Mazzini, Garibaldi, and Victor Emanuel. Anecdotes, once so plentiful, have ceased to be current concerning the brusque *re galantuomo;* and Garibaldi is becoming enveloped in the mists of the past, rather than shining more brightly through them. Their very statues betray the sculptor's greater interest in the horse than in the man. As for Mazzini, "that unique type of priest, thinker, and soldier, that ascetic compounded of conspirator and adventurer, who believed in God not otherwise than did St. Francis, who wrote like Renan, and prepared insurrections like Babeuf," not a single profound study of him has been attempted, and Carducci's sonnet is the sole literary monument to him who ought to have inspired a grand artistic work in painting, statuary, prose, or poetry. The histories of the time are bare chronological narratives without philosophic breadth or intention, and a gross ignorance prevails even among university men of the sequence of events. The causes of this indifference following upon so heated and stormy a revolution Ferrero finds in the economic crisis into which the kingdom has been plunged, and the consequent sordid struggle for existence; a feeling that the makers of new Italy bungled the job; a revolt at the custom of shielding from just public censure the patriots of the sixties, and even their posterity, who have been guilty of misdoings. Some of these conditions may strike American readers as being paralleled in our own experience since the civil war.

## THE SHERMAN LETTERS.

*The Sherman Letters:* Correspondence between General and Senator Sherman from 1837 to 1891. Edited by Rachel Sherman Thorndike. With portraits. 8vo, pp. viii, 398. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE historical importance of this unique correspondence is unquestionably great. It may be doubted whether there can anywhere else be found a continuous series of letters extending over half a century, between two brothers, each of whom occupied a position of great importance in public affairs in the great crisis of their country's history. The letters between the Duke of Wellington and his brother Lord Wellesley best sustain the comparison, but even they fall short in the length of the period over which they stretch.

The Sherman brothers had strong contrasts in their characteristic traits, which heighten greatly the interest and value of their free interchange of ideas and opinions. Both very able men, their temperaments were almost the antipodes of each other. The Senator is an apparently impassive and remarkably self-controlled man; the General was demonstrative and impetuous. The Senator is a political leader who knows how to withhold opinions which might clash with those of his party; the General was under a dominant impulse to speak out what he felt without reference to policy and hardly to prudence. The one led men by cool study of the influences likely to be potent with them, and knew how to bend to a drift of current opinion in order to preserve his lead; the other controlled men by the sympathies which were aroused by his unrestrained disclosure of his strong personality, and the openness with which he avowed and sought the ends which seemed to him right. The native and acquired powers of each were so great that leadership naturally came to the one in politics and to the other in the army, in the great epoch of the civil war; though the influence of each, no doubt, largely helped the other in different periods of their brilliant careers. The Senator was able to do much to smooth the way for the General in the conflicts and discouragements of 1861–62; but when the General had become a popular hero of the war, he was able fully to repay the brotherly aid which had helped him through his own time of storm and stress.

It is the contrast between the brothers which gives the greatest interest and value to their letters. Had they agreed in opinion and in method, they could have done little more than exchange harmonious congratulations or condolences on the triumphs and the disasters of the national cause. The marked differences of their points of view at the beginning, the diverging tendencies of their thoughts at many times, give rise to real and animated discussion, and create the piquancy and much of the value of the correspondence. It need hardly be said that the letters of the living public man have probably been less fully presented than those of the dead soldier. The Senator's own wish would, of course, be the law with the editor, and it would be entirely natural that he should withhold, for the present, an unreserved publication of all his comments upon men and affairs made in the freedom of intercourse with his brother. No intimation is given of the rule which, in this respect, has governed the publication of the book; but the marks of elision are so frequent, and the context is often so suggestive, that the reader can hardly avoid concluding that some future edition of these letters may contain much interesting matter that is now withheld. For these if for no other reasons, the character and development of Gen. Sherman may fairly be treated as the central interest of the volume, and we may consider it as further material for his complete biography. The memoirs which the General published in his lifetime were unusually frank and free from reticences, and the greater the intimacy with him we gain, the more trustworthy and more instructive do they appear. Yet on many points fuller light is thrown, and we are enabled better to appreciate the man, his character, and his opinions.

When secession began, Gen. Sherman's attitude was very like that of Gen. Lee. Both believed in the national interpretation of the Constitution; both believed that secession was not a reserved right of the States, but a revolution; both blamed the "extremists" for what they regarded as an unnecessary collision; both thought that the system of slavery was not worth to the South the cost of civil war, and both wished that the system might peacefully disappear. Here the divergence began. Sherman, though at the head of the Military School of Louisiana, declared that "on no earthly account" would he "do any act or think any thought hostile to or in defiance of the United States." Lee felt sadly constrained to go with Virginia into a rebellion which he condemned. Sherman threw up his living and came North to begin life anew. Lee resigned from the army and took the command of Virginia troops. No candid person will question the sincerity of either.

Sherman's blunt and sometimes rough words in regard to the "abolitionists" have led to a common error as to his political opinions, which his correspondence with his brother corrects. He did not deny the right of the free North to stop the further extension of slavery. "In all new cases," he said as early as May, 1860, "it is well you should adhere to your conviction to exclude slavery because you prefer free labor. That is your perfect right." He thought it "so certain and inevitable" that political power would pass into the hands of the free States, that he urged a conciliatory course which should not yield the principle. While he himself saw that the Republican party disclaimed the right to abolish slavery in the States, he declared from what he saw around him that "all the reasoning and truth in the world would not convince a Southern man that the Republicans are not abolitionists." To give proof of the moderation that would be accepted, he constantly urged that his brother's party could afford to adopt a policy of inaction and cease the agitation with which the country was then ablaze. The conclusive answer to this was, of course, that such exciting political issues have to be worked out to the end, and that no one had power enough to quell the storm. We are now concerned with the matter, however, only as giving a clearer explanation of the General's personal position, which is thus shown to be one of warm sympathy with the difficulties of the moderate men of the South, combined with a distinct perception that slave labor should and must, sooner or later, give way to freedom.

The very fact that he looked on the problem as one sure to be settled by the natural processes of evolution made him look with peculiar horror on the rush of events towards civil war. Seeing more clearly than most people of his time the vast dimensions the struggle must take on and its terrible consequences, the country seemed to him to have gone mad. An intense depression of spirits was caused by this view of affairs, and he never fully recovered from it till the surrender of Vicksburg proved that the national armies had reached a discipline and a numerical strength which assured a permanent turn of the scale. This personal feeling did not prevent his doing skilfully and courageously every duty assigned him, but it deeply tinged his inner experience for fully two years. Keeping this in mind, we more easily understand his aversion to entering the militia service called out for only three months. He could not believe that any solid results could be reached in that time, and did not know how soon the logic of events would bring about a more permanent organization. His appointment as

colonel of one of the new regiments of the regular army satisfactorily solved this question, though all his war service proved to be in command of volunteers.

The correspondence brings out in a very honorable way his loyal subordination to his superiors. MacDowell, McClellan, Halleck, and Grant are each in turn spoken of in his current letters with a heartiness of respect and fulness of appreciation that are very noticeable. He is the furthest possible removed from carping and faultfinding. He does not envy them or wish for their places. He measures justly and sympathetically the enormous responsibility they bear. The expression of all this in the unrestrained freedom of brotherly intercourse is the absolute proof of its sincerity.

As he saw the growing determination of Union men and the progressive discipline and instruction of the national armies, not only did his faith in a successful end of the war grow into confidence, but his conviction ripened as to the logical results of the war. "If they lose the war," he said at the end of 1863, "they lose slavery. Instead of our being abolitionists, it is thereby proven that they are the abolitionists." A few weeks later he repeated this idea with great vigor: "Last year they could have saved their slaves, but now it is too late—all the powers of earth cannot restore to them their slaves any more than their dead grandfathers." Lincoln's proclamation was here referred to as a measure which fixed the vested right of freedom. The strong and clear way in which the General grasped this principle throws a bright light on the convention he made with Gen. Johnston in 1865. Slavery was so plainly ended by the effect of the proclamation, followed by the success of the national arms, that he treated lightly the need of any formal confession of the fact on the part of Southern leaders. It is a curious fact, which now comes to light in the publication of the Official Records, that, in March, 1865, Judge Campbell, formerly of the United States Supreme Court, rested upon this identical ground in his negotiations with President Lincoln. If the federal courts should hold, as there was no doubt they would, that the proclamation was within the war powers, the freedmen's rights so vested under it that it was needless to worry the Southern people into formal acknowledgments on this point. The surrender of the armies and the return to practical obedience to the Constitution made slavery vanish like the shades of night. Mr. Lincoln accepted this view, and when Sherman met the President at City Point, this was discussed as the fresh and hopeful news, full of which the General went back to his army in North Carolina. He was the more ready to act upon it as he had so clearly enounced the principle himself more than a year before.

The publication of these letters confirms the popular opinion that few men could so afford to open their hearts to the world as Gen. Sherman has done. His eccentricities were on the surface and seen by all. His solid judgment in practical action, his wisdom in forecast, and his caution when great responsibilities were on him, grow upon us as we become more intimate with him. The honesty of his character, the devotion of his patriotism, and his real greatness become plainer to the world as time passes. The chapters which include his relations to President Johnson in 1867-8, and to President Grant from 1869 onward, are those in which much yet remains to be told, and in which we must think that the editorial discretion in retrenching has been most freely used. The letters pertaining to these periods have many most interesting contributions to history; but other documents and other series of letters will come to light from time to time to add to the evidence of his great and wholesome influence upon affairs, and of his disinterested desire to heal all the distractions of his country and loyally to serve the President as commander-in-chief.

Some errors in proof-reading appear, such as a disguised form for the Gadsden purchase (p. 54), and for the names of Generals Lander (p. 66), Shiras (p. 112), Shoepf (p. 136), Hovey (p. 170), Cullum (p. 222). Several of the geographical names also need correction. The most serious error is the insertion, under date of 1865 (p. 255), of a letter of August 29, 1863, which has already appeared in its place (p. 213). As to proper names, the official records of the war are a safe guide in cases of doubt. The portrait of Gen. Sherman in the frontispiece is one which we are glad to see published. It is one taken in his later years, but its character, its intellectuality, and its power make it a typical picture of the "old commander." That of the Senator opposite p. 358 is also a satisfactory one.

## WOLF'S ECUADOR.

*Geografia y Geologia del Ecuador.* Publicada por órden del Supremo Gobierno de la República. Por Teodoro Wolf. Leipzig: F. A. Brockhaus; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1892. Pp. xii, 671. Illustrated. 2 inset maps. Accompanied by large map of Ecuador.

ECUADOR, the equatorial republic, enjoys the distinction of having been visited by an unusually large number of renowned travellers and scientists, and still there has been less accurate information obtainable concerning it than concerning any South American country. Towards the middle of the eighteenth century La Condamine and his able company of fellow French Academicians, together with A. de Ulloa and Jorge Juan, came to this elevated equatorial region for the purpose of measuring a meridian of the earth, which was done with a degree of accuracy that has commanded the admiration of scientists ever since. In addition to this, both La Condamine and Ulloa prepared general treatises, descriptive and historical, possessing the highest interest. At the beginning of this century came Alexander von Humboldt, whose records of exploration and investigation have been the source from which the world at large has chiefly drawn its knowledge of Ecuador. Humboldt was then a young man, just foreshowing his future greatness, and though he was uncommonly learned and able for one of his years, the world has got many things wrong because of his youthful misconceptions. Later came Boussingault (1831), who essayed to give a final and correct statement of the many debated questions concerning the geology and volcanology of Ecuador. But his work immediately received important revision by H. Karsten (1856), who was followed in turn, a few years later, by M. Wagner, and in 1870 by Doctors W. Reiss and A. Stübel, who made perhaps the most complete geological researches undertaken hitherto in any part of Latin America. Their studies lasted four years, and their collections number many thousands of specimens. Although they have published a number of valuable preliminary treatises, their *magnum opus* still remains in preparation. A decade passed before Edward Whymper turned his attention to Ecuador. He set out ostensibly with the object of measuring the height of the Ecuadorean peaks, and of determining the effect of high altitudes upon the human system, but his 'Travels amongst the Great Andes of the Equator' (1892) revealed that he had not limited himself to such narrow tasks, but that he had pursued investigations which enabled him to make a contribution to knowledge, in many departments, of unusual value. These are works which may have come within the range of the general reader. A smaller circle will have found additional material in the writings of Villavicencio, P. F. Cevallos, and F. González Suárez, the last named being now engaged in issuing in periodic volumes his 'Historia General de la República del Ecuador.'

It has remained, however, for Teodoro Wolf to present a general description of nearly the whole of Ecuador, viewed from the standpoint of the geographer and the geologist. The task was onerous in the extreme. Compilation of existing data was impossible, for there were practically none, and it took twenty years of assiduous labor to obtain the necessary material. In the course of this work Dr. Wolf has covered the entire republic, excepting the region east of the Andes. The result is a treatise, based upon personal observation, more accurate than anything yet attempted. It bears evidence on every page of having been written carefully and conscientiously. The country is divided into sections, bounded by natural lines of configuration, each section being usually the drainage basin of an important river; and these natural divisions are described in detail, so that the topography, direction of streams, characteristic rock formations, soil, products, ways of communication, and distribution of population, are all presented, giving the clearest possible idea of the leading features of the country. Moreover, it must be said that Dr. Wolf has not fallen into the habit that vitiates so many works written by Spanish-Americans, or by resident foreigners who enjoy Government favor, of exaggerating the magnificence and excellence of the country. In fact, his statements are everywhere characterized by good sense, and he takes frequent occasion to rebuke the tendency to inflation which he has encountered among the Ecuadoreans.

Examining the work in detail, we meet first of all the vexed question of territorial limits, concerning which a large part of the republic was for frantically rushing to arms against Peru a few months ago. It is a delicate matter for Dr. Wolf to handle, but duty places him in line as a defender of the pretensions of his adopted country. There is, of course, no doubt that, in the epoch of the viceroys, the province of Mainas fell within the jurisdiction of the *audiencia* of Quito, and thus the historic claims of Ecuador to a large part of northern and eastern Peru are well founded. Practically, however, Peru has established her authority over this region, including the river Amazon and a considerable strip of country along its left or northern bank, to the frontier of Brazil. Nevertheless, Dr. Wolf proceeds to describe this as a portion of Ecuador, and while he depends in this case upon accounts of other authors, it is worth while to mention the very clever method, which he recalls, adopted by the famous Italo-Peruvian savant Raimondi, to determine whether the Rio Marañon or the Rio Ucayali should be considered the main stream of the Amazon. This consisted in taking samples of the water from each river some distance above their confluence, and other samples far enough below to insure a thorough mixture of the

waters of each, at different seasons of the year, when the two streams were at opposite flood-stages. The samples after filtration were analyzed to ascertain the amounts of salts held in solution. A comparison of the results for the waters of each stream and of the Amazon below their junction would readily show which feeder carried the greater volume, and it appeared from this test that the Marañon was the larger at all seasons.

Topographically, Ecuador is divided into three main parts, the littoral, a low strip of country bordering on the Pacific Ocean; the central or Andean region, ranging from about 6,000 feet above the sea to the lofty snow-clad peaks; and the eastern montaña, or wooded country, in the basin of the Amazon. Neither the littoral nor the Andean regions are uniform in character. The former consists of a humid strip flowing down from the western slopes of the Andes, reaching the sea in the northwestern portion of the republic between the Rio Mira and Cabo Pasado, and again by a narrow tongue above Puntilla. The remainder of the coast is arid, being excessively dry, and destitute of vegetation in summer, although during the season of rains it is covered with a great variety of grasses and flowering plants, which transform its appearance as if by magic. The transitions between the humid and arid sections, and between the lower and more elevated portions of each, have been very acutely marked by the inhabitants, who have distinguished no less than thirteen different classes of lands. For instance, we have *manglares*, lowlands, densely covered with mangroves and other semi-aquatic trees, overflowed daily by the tides; *salitrales*, lowlands back of the *manglares*, overflowed only in the rainy season; *sabanas*, low plains, covered with a thick growth of grass; *sartenejales*, similar plains, covered with a scanty growth of grass; *tembladeras*, in which we recognize the "shaking prairies" so familiar in Louisiana; *pajonales*, which are merely diminutive "shaking prairies"; *esteros*, which are long narrow strips of lowland, being the abandoned channels of ancient rivers. Then there are *vegas*, or low sand-bars, often of great size, which follow the inner bends of the rivers, and back of these the *lomas*, or ridges, being the sand and gravel banks formed by more ancient watercourses.

The central or Andean region is divided into *hoyas* or basins, adapted to agriculture, and *páramos*, or barren heaths, which barely afford sustenance for scanty herds of cattle. Out of these *páramos* rise the lofty Andes, covered with perpetual snow. There are nine principal *hoyas* or basins, of which six are drained by rivers flowing into the Pacific. The basin of the Rio Pastassa is the most northerly in the Andean chain which opens to the eastward into the valley of the Amazon. Adjoining it on the south is the basin of the Rio Paute, which is distinguished by the fact that its source lies nearer the Pacific Ocean than that of any other tributary of the Amazon, the distance being a little less than thirty miles.

Geologically, Ecuador is remarkable for the small number of formations represented, and for the paucity of fossil remains. Dr. Wolf has succeeded in identifying only the Archæan, Mesozoic, Cenozoic, and modern or Psychozoic eras. There appears to be no record written in the rocks of that vast stretch of time between the Archæan and the age of reptiles. This is all the more remarkable considering the comparatively recent upheaval of the Andes, which is very clearly proved to have taken place during the Tertiary period or subsequently. The Jurassic and Triassic periods are also imperfectly identified, so that the recent geologic history of Ecuador may be said to commence with the Cretaceous. The sandstones of this period rest everywhere directly upon the gneissoid and crystalline schistose rocks of the Archæan. This formation is quite extensively developed, and with only two exceptions lies on the western flanks of the Andes. The Tertiary is found covering a large area in the littoral of the west and northwest, existing only in two small localities in the inter-Andean region near Loja. The Quaternary likewise occurs almost exclusively in the low coast region, although one little patch is included in the basin of the Rio Paute, at Cuenca. Almost the whole inter-Andean belt is occupied by volcanic tufas and conglomerates, with andesites and lavas wherever the giant peaks tower out of the *páramos*. The crystalline rocks, granites, syenites, gneiss, and schists are found chiefly in the south, near Loja, Macará, and Sabanilla, in narrow belts of no great length, usually in groups arranged in parallel series. The diorites and diabases are well developed, extending with few interruptions from Colombia to Peru, high up on the western slopes of the Cordillera between the cretaceous and volcanic formations.

The older rocks, and those of volcanic origin, present the greatest objects of interest to the geologist in Ecuador, and there are many things which are curious and difficult to account for. The Archæan rocks near Loja, which consist of gneiss and crystalline schists, are remarkable for the amounts of carbonaceous material which they contain. Graphitic schists are particularly abundant, and in many of them the mica is completely replaced by laminæ of graphite, and in some cases the schists pass into slates of microcrystalline structure, so thoroughly impregnated with graphite as to give a streak like a solid mass of this mineral. Furthermore, Dr. Wolf affirms that in a gorge known as Penicuchu, southeast of the town of Loja, occur three veins of anthracite in these same crystalline schists, one vein measuring a metre in thickness. The gold found in the alluvial deposits of the Rio Zamora below Loja is also derived from these schists, in which it occurs finely disseminated, and not in sufficient quantities to pay for mining. This would seem to account for the curious circumstance that the gold washings of the Rio Santiago, into which the Zamora empties, and of the Upper Amazon below the mouth of the Santiago, maintain a uniform value throughout, and are lacking in coarse gold and nuggets, although the deposits extend over a lineal distance of more than 200 miles. The gold mines of the western slopes of the Andes in Ecuador, at Zaruma, and in the province of Esmeraldas, are of a similar character, but the precious metal is disseminated through porphyritic rocks instead of schists. At Zaruma, however, the porphyries are traversed by innumerable "quartz veins," most of which pertain to the class known as greywacke, these veins carrying the bulk of the gold.

Dr. Wolf has furnished a very complete account of the mineral deposits of the country, covering forty-five pages, in the appendix to his work, consisting in large part of statistical matter, with numerous reports of analyses and assays. The list of useful minerals includes gold, copper, platinum, salt, nitrate of potash, petroleum, kaolin, emeralds, and unimportant deposits of galena, and silver ores. There are also many springs of mineral water, resembling in composition some of the famous waters of Europe. Many of the coast rivers in the low stage of the dry season are so highly impregnated with salts as to be unfit for drinking, while the rivers of the province of Guayas all contain salts of manganese, and some of them phosphates of lime and magnesia. A very remarkable occurrence of native mercury in the rocks of the Cretaceous period is also noted. The records of the ancient mercury mines at Azógues, near San Marcos, in cretaceous sandstones, have always been doubted, but recently mercury has been found in such rocks in the hill of Santa Ana on the outskirts of Guayaquil, and also in the alluvion along the Rio Daule. Again, it has been discovered in the gold washings of Collay near Loja, and on the western side of the mountains in the Rio Pozuelos, where it exists as amalgam in the gold washings, but it is also found native further up, where no gold exists in the gravel.

All the volcanic rocks of Ecuador belong to the single class of andesites, so named by Abich. These rocks always contain a variety of feldspar, called "andesine," and magnetite. Augite, hypersthene, biotite, and quartz are also usually present in varying quantities, but sanidine is always absent. That these enormous mountains of andesite are the product of a vast number of eruptions Dr. Wolf regards as sustained by infallible proofs, thus completely overturning the hypothesis of Boussingault that they were formed deep down in the earth and lifted up to their present position by a sudden convulsion of nature. Dr. Wolf takes issue with Boussingault again in regard to lava streams, whose existence in Ecuador the Frenchman had denied. The question is one of considerable geological importance, but the proof that there have been many of them, in ancient as well as modern times, must be left for the reader of Dr. Wolf's own work. The terrific floods, which are so unique an accompaniment of the eruptions of certain Ecuadorean volcanoes, sweeping whole villages before them, are explained by the sudden melting of the snow cap by these lava streams, and the cooling of the lava during this process would account for its frequent failure to flow down the mountain side into the valley, which may have deceived Boussingault. This simple explanation does away with the absurd fables regarding eruptions of mud and water, containing fishes, from the volcano of Cotopaxi, to which even Humboldt was disposed to give some credence. Another phenomenon observed by Dr. Wolf, as well as by Doctors Reiss and Stübel, is of great importance. A long series of observations, and analyses of fumes from volcanoes has shown that, during and immediately after periods of activity, the gases given off from the craters and solfataras contain large amounts of free chlorine, while sulphurous acid gas is equally characteristic of periods of tranquillity and of volcanoes which are becoming extinct. Furthermore, in the craters of volcanoes which are completely extinct, the exhalations consist almost entirely of carbonic acid gas.

The account of the later geological formations, which is given in much detail, is too special for examination here. The scarcity of fossils has made this part of the task very difficult, but Dr. Wolf supplies ample data to sustain his argument for the identification of strata, and gives a list of the species determined, with the localities where they can be found. It is of some interest that remains of mastodons (*Mastodon Andium*) and horses (*Equus Andium*) are encountered in the volcanic tufas of the inter-Andean region,

well as in the Quaternary deposits near the coast.

The climate of Ecuador naturally presents many contrasts, but Dr. Wolf emphasizes the fact that all zones are not represented in the flora. The species which predominate in the central region and in the lofty *páramos* are characteristic of the Andes, and are related to the neighboring subtropical forms rather than to arctic or subarctic types. The constancy of the temperature throughout the year would favor an adaptation of sub-tropic life to these elevated regions. The meteorological record for these tablelands is very incomplete, and yet there is strong evidence to show that the mean temperature here is gradually lowering. Boussingault discovered that at high elevations near the equator a thermometer placed in the earth at a depth of one foot, in a situation protected by a roof or building from the influence of the sun's rays, would register the mean annual temperature as faithfully as when determined by daily observations of the air temperature throughout the whole year. Records made in this way during his visit in 1831, compared with observations made from 1878 to 1881 at Quito, showed a decrease from 15.2° Centigrade to 13.27° Centigrade. Records by Hall from 1825 to 1827 give averages of 16.1°C., 15.52°C., and 15.6°C. This decrease holds good for all points in the inter-Andean region where records have been kept, and Humboldt's average for Cuenca (15.6°C.) is now reduced by ordinary observations, and by Boussingault's method, to 14.6°C.

Enough has been adduced to show that Dr. Wolf has published a volume of more than ordinary value. He has by no means said the final word on every part of his subject, but no one seems to be more conscious of his deficiencies than the author himself. He has prepared the way for others, who can now more easily concentrate their studies where the best results can be obtained. There is certainly nothing else in print to-day which can rival the claim of this work to be the authoritative treatise on Ecuador, and no one visiting that country can afford to be without it. In addition there is an admirable account of the Galápagos Islands, which fall within the jurisdiction of the republic, and a résumé of the history of Ecuador, which is confessedly addressed to the foreign reader. There is also an historical bibliography and much statistical material in the appendix. A good index adds to the value of 'Geografia y Geologia del Ecuador' as a work of reference, and a goodly number of illustrations are sprinkled through the text. The inset maps consist of a geological chart, and a chart showing the distribution of vegetation. Accompanying the volume is a large wall map of Ecuador on a scale of 1–445,000. Unfortunately it does not include the eastern portion of the republic on the same scale, this region being introduced as a corner inset drawn to 1–3,000,000. This mars its appearance, although it does not reduce its utility, since all that is known of the *montaña* can be clearly set forth on that scale. The Galápagos Islands are also represented (scale 1–890,000) as a corner inset. The workmanship is very creditable, and the map is the only one in existence to-day which can boast of even an approximation to accuracy.

Dr. Wolf deserves credit for his good sense in adhering to the simplest possible style in Spanish, which is with him an acquired tongue. His work is entirely free from attempts at fine writing, and, while a little prolix at times, is a direct, plain statement of facts, which does much to command the respect and confidence of the reader.

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*Lives of Twelve Bad Men:* Original Studies of Eminent Scoundrels by Various Hands. Edited by Thomas Seccombe. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1894.

The ten Englishmen who have written the 'Lives of Twelve Bad Men' probably know nothing about Gov. Peck of Wisconsin. But if they have heard what a run of popularity 'Peck's Bad Boy' has had, they may have borrowed something of the Governor's title in hope of a similar success. Their book, however, is of quite another character. It consists of a dozen magazine monographs with an average length of thirty pages. Their aim is to bring down to the millions information not otherwise accessible save by research in volumes by hundreds, such as the 'Dictionary of National Biography,' *Notes and Queries*, and even sundry rarities of the British Museum. The editor renders no good reason for pillorying exactly twelve bad men rather than a devil's dozen. In regard to both matter and manner his book stands in no need of a taking title to make it readable and read. It is, to be sure, a monochrome, each career growing gloomy as night; but the varieties of blackness are so multitudinous and so variously presented that the reader's interest never flags.

The Twelve Bad Men were all Britons, and are apportioned as equally as possible among the three kingdoms, save that one was a Welshman, namely, Jeffreys. The others were Bothwell, Lovat, Charteris, Maclaine, two Kelleys, Fitzgerald, Hopkins, Oates, Wild, and Wainewright. In this list of unworthies we notice one, Maclaine, whose right to stand among the twelve we must challenge. His sobriquet was "The Gentleman Highwayman," and he was in fact a milder-mannered man than ever scuttled ship or cut a throat. He is never recorded to have fired a pistol more than once, and then perhaps by accident. He never rose to the dignity of a bold robber. He really seems to owe his standing as a peer among the twelve to a couple of ancient and rare engravings in which he appears in such a pose as to enhance the attractiveness of his biography. The eleven would have scorned companionship with such a milksop. It may, however, be said that as he died youngest of the twelve save one, there is no knowing what a villain he would have become had his life been prolonged to the four score years of Lovat. The Twelve were every one practical anarchists, setting at naught all laws of family, society, and state. All but two died on scaffold, or gallows, or in jail. Of those two one, escaping death through a legal quibble, suffered torture worse than death; and the other, according to his epitaph, "having done every day of his life something worthy of a gibbet, was condemned to one." Though offence's gilded hand did shove by justice, he died offering £30,000 for assurance that there was no hell.

The rascal whose story comes nearest to our business and bosoms is Jonathan Wild. It reads like a chapter of the Lexow disclosures and exposures as to the police-system dominant in New York. How he became such an intermediary between thieves and their victims that laws holding the receiver as bad as the thief first became a necessity; how he evaded those laws and others so dexterously that, while crime was doubled, the percentage of convicted criminals dwindled; and how his wolfish rapacity and fox-like cunning were but the baby figure of the giant mass of things to come at large in our city, he that runs can read. Regarding Jeffreys, the terrors of his face are described as such that a man would scarcely encounter them a second time to save his life. His darkest frown was while passing sentence on the only one of the eleven whom he ever met.

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*The Study of Animal Life.* By J. Arthur Thomson, M.A., etc. Charles Scribner's Sons. 8vo, pp. 375, illustrated.

This book belongs to a somewhat limited class of works on natural history—good ones attractive to all readers and well adapted for students. It is planned to secure and retain the popular interest while leading on to deeper, more technical matter. Part i. treats of "the everyday life of animals," and contains chapters on the wealth, the web, and the struggle of life, the social life, the domestic life, industries, and shifts for a living; part ii. concerns "the powers of life," under the headings vitality, division of labor, and instinct; part iii. discusses "the forms of animal life," taking up structure, life history, past history, lowest forms, invertebrates, vertebrates; and part iv. relates to "the evolution of animal life," considering evidences, theories, influences, and heredity. An appendix compares "animal life and ours," while another suggests some of the best books on the subject in general, with a few that are not so good. The plan is admirable; the text is accurate, comprehensive, clear, and forcible; the illustrations are fair. Extensive knowledge, critical ability, good judgment, and a considerable amount of caution are everywhere manifest.

The author is a monist: his view postulates neither matter nor spirit, but an entity which is known objectively as matter and energy, and subjectively as consciousness; and he enjoins upon us that matter and energy, which we regard as fundamental realities, are known to us only through what is for us the supreme reality—ourselves—mind; or, in other words, they are known to us in our brain activity as thought. His evolution is a much modified Darwinian; he cannot trace all modifications to selection, but sometimes finds in it a refuge when proofs of other agencies are lacking:

"Until we know much more about the primary factors which directly cause variations, it will not be possible to decide in regard to the precise scope of natural selection and the other secondary factors which foster and accumulate, thin or prune, which in short establish a new organic equilibrium. The argument has been too much in regard to possibilities, too little in regard to observed facts of variation."

In Prof. Thomson's opinion, some characters acquired by the parent as a result of what it does, and as impacts from the surrounding conditions, are transmissible. "There is no doubt that some somatic changes affect the reproductive cells in some way. Is it inconceivable that they affect them in such a precise way that bodily changes may be transmitted?" Unable to conclude that the progress of life is due to the action of natural selection on fortuitous, indefinite, spontaneous variations, he says: "I believe that the conclusion of the whole matter should be an emphatic 'not proven' on either side, while the practical corollary is that we should cease to talk so much about possibilities (in regard to which one opinion is often as logically reasonable as another), and betake ourselves with energy to a study of the facts." He believes, also, that

the mental processes of the lower creatures differ from those of men more in degree than in kind, and says that if man's higher nature cannot be explained by the theory of natural selection, then that theory is incomplete; but, he adds, there may be other theories of evolution which are sufficient.

Liability to correction we have noticed in a few instances. Young batrachians (called amphibians) are said to breathe always by gills as fishes do; this ignores the fact that certain frogs are hatched in the shape of adults without gills. Flat fishes are treated as if all were colorless on the under side, which is not the case with some of them. Prof. Thomson prefers to trace the origin of certain phenomena in insect life to the direct action of intelligence, rather than cessation of selection, etc.; but in cases such as the habit of some wasps that provide their young with food they themselves do not eat, or that of butterflies which deposit the eggs on particular leaves never eaten by the adult, he thinks the ideas involved are too complex to be the result of intelligence, and decides that such instincts can be accounted for only by natural selection of fortunate varieties of habit. Yet if, in absence of proof to the contrary, the individual is credited with ability to retain impressions or memories of larval or pupal experience or preferences, the ideas lose much of their complexity; and the instincts accord with intelligent action nearly as well as in a case of choice by the insect of an allied prey or leaf in default of that most desired. In the account of the honey-bee it is said that of the numerous drones or males, very sluggish in their ordinary life, one, fleet and vigorous beyond his fellows, will pair with a queen in her nuptial flight. Though the author does not himself say so, there are two suggestions of possible reason for the existence of any other than fleet and vigorous males in the face of so much selection—one in the statement that the drones "have a mother but no father," the other in the quotation from Butler, "The race is not in the long run to the phenomenally swift, nor the battle to the phenomenally strong; but to the good average all-round organism that is alike shy of radical crotchets and old-world obstructiveness."

In the main the work is highly to be commended.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, T. G., Jr., and Sachtleben, W. L. Across Asia on a Bicycle. Century Co. $1.50.
Ames, C. J. "As Natural as Life." Boston: J. H. West. 50 cents.
Brooks, E. S. The Century Book for Young Americans. Century Co. $1.50.
Coote, C. H. The Voyage from Lisbon to India: Being an Account and Journal by Albericus Vespuccius. London: B. F. Stevens.
Dodge, Mrs. Mary M. When Life is Young. Century Co. $1.25.
Emerson, Prof. O. F. The History of the English Language. Macmillan. $1.25.
Furneaux, Henry. Tacitus's Germania. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Green, Rev. S. G. A Brief Introduction to New Testament Greek. F. H. Revell Co. 40 cents.
Hewitt, J. F. The Ruling Races of Prehistoric Times in India, Southwestern Asia and Southern Europe. London: Archibald Constable & Co.
Higgs, W. P. Algebra Self Taught. London: E. & F. N. Spon; New York: Spon & Chamberlain. 60 cents.
Jokai, Maurus. Timar's Two Worlds. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Kellogg, Dr. J. H. Second Book in Physiology and Hygiene. American Book Co. 80 cents.
Lillie, Lucy C. A Family Dilemma. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Lloyd, H. D. Wealth against Commonwealth. Harpers. $2.50.
Logie, Prof. Thomas. Halévy's L'Abbé Constantin. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents
Lummis, C. F. The Man who Married the Moon, and Other Pueblo Indian Folk Stories. Century Co. $1.50.
Mason, O. T. Woman's Share in Primitive Culture. Appletons.
Mike Moriarty, Alderman. Columbia Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Newell, P. S. Topsys and Turvys. Number 2. Century Co. $1.
Oliphant, Mrs. M. O. W. Historical Characters of the Reign of Queen Anne. Century Co. $6.
Oliphant, Mrs Sir Robert's Fortune. Harpers. $1.50.
Page, T. N. Polly: A Christmas Recollection. Scribners. $1.50.
Philipson, David. Old European Jewries. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society.
Rodway, James. History of British Guiana. Vol. III. Georgetown, Demerara: J. Thomson. $3.
Salt, H. S. Animals' Rights. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Saunders, Frederic. Character Studies: with Some Personal Recollections. Whittaker. $1.
Schindler, Sol mon. Young West: A Sequel to Looking Backward. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. $1.25.
Scott, Sir W. St. Ronan's Well. 2 vols. [International Edition.] Boston: Estes & Lauriat; New York: Bryan & Taylor.
Scott, Sir W. The Surgeon's Daughter, and Castle Dangerous. Edinburgh: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1 25.
Tautphœus, Baroness. Quits. 2 vols Putnams. $2 50.
Taylor, H. O. A Treatise on the Law of Private Corporations. 3d ed. Philadelphia: Kay & Brother.
The Ariel Shakspere. Groups 5 and 6. 12 vols. Putnams. $9.
The Boy Captain. Chicago: C. Eldridge.
The Green Carnation. Appletons
The Merchant of Venice, and Midsummer Night's Dream [The Temple Shakspere] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 2 vols. Each 45 cents.
Waite, W. H. Shakspere's Stratford: A Pictorial Pilgrimage Scribners. 50 cents.
Wendell, Prof. Barrett. William Shakspere: A Study in Elizabethan Literature. Scribners. $1.75.
West, J. H. In Love with Love. Boston: J. H. West. 50 cents.
Whitney, H. C. Marriage and Divorce. Philadelphia: J. E. Potter & Co.
Zola, Emile. Lourdes. Translated by Ernest A. Vizetelly. F. T. Neely. $1.25.


OCTOBER

**EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.**

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 18, 1894.

## The Week.

MR. MORTON'S letter of acceptance is of the perfunctory nature usual in such documents. His tariff argumentation is pretty watery, and actually brings in again that huge joke of the platform of 1888, that the way to get duties lowered and made sweetly reasonable is to leave them in the hands of their friends. We suppose Mr. Morton felt called upon to put all this in his letter to show that he was a true-blue Republican, and all that, but it really has no earthly relation to the canvass in this State this year. State issues, on the other hand, which are vital and which will be decisive, he treats only in a subordinate way and with nothing like the directness that the situation warrants. However, that situation, created by Democratic folly and wickedness, speaks for itself, and Mr. Morton is probably as well aware as anybody that no particular aggressiveness is required on his part. When the Lord is about to deliver the Philistines into your hands, the smiting hip and thigh and hewing in pieces may well be deferred to a later occasion.

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By the nomination of Everett P. Wheeler for Governor the Democrats who were expelled from the Saratoga convention and who cannot vote for the man who planned the fraud which Maynard executed, have a perfectly plain road before them. All the embarrassments are removed. They have a perfectly satisfactory candidate—a man whose party allegiance has never been questioned, and whose services to the party, if measured by unceasing efforts to keep it in the right path and to keep it fit to receive the support of good citizens, have been great. Mr. Wheeler has been chairman of the executive committee of the Civil-Service Reform Association from its beginning. He has been a member of the Local Advisory Board of Civil-Service Examiners, president of the Reform Club for several years, and prominently identified with the University Settlement and other charitable work, and has never been an office-seeker. In accepting a nomination now he is simply carrying forward in another way the kind of work which he has been doing gratuitously these many years. Probably most of the Independents of Republican leanings will vote for Morton for Governor in order to count double against Hill. Each man will decide this question for himself when the time comes. The platform adopted by the third party is excellent in all respects, and especially in its denunciation of secret societies and religious intolerance in politics.

All hope of escape for Tammany from the wrath to come in November was cut off last week by the State Democracy's public-spirited approval of Mr. Strong's candidacy, followed, as it shortly was, by similar action on the part of the German-American Reform Union, assuring a united anti-Tammany force behind a single candidate. Under these conditions Tammany's defeat is certain. The action of the State Democracy is formal recognition of the fact that Tammany is not a part of the Democratic party, but simply Tammany. When this distinction is made, the contention that this is a great Democratic city and should consequently be ruled by Democrats, falls to the ground. The men who have made this contention in the past have counted Tammany twice—once as Tammany and un-Democratic when they are opposing it, and once as Democratic when they are opposing the Republicans. They have discovered at last that they must be either for Tammany or against it, and they have wisely decided that as honest men they must be against it.

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People who are disposed to despair of our city government may take some comfort in the state of public feeling at this moment. When they recall the fact that, two years ago, Tammany seemed so solidly entrenched in public affection or public indifference that the Boss kept an office open for the sale of legislation, that Gilroy the mayor "sassed" the respectable citizens who complained of the misconduct of his "pals"; that he was filling high and responsible offices with furnace-men, gamblers, murderers, drunkards, and small adventurers; that the "well nows" were maintaining that New York was one of the best-governed cities in the world ("life and property nowhere so secure," "low interest on bonds"); that Croker was writing in the magazines on "organization," and Gilroy smacking his lips over "the wealth of New York"; that all the baser sort of little lawyers were running into Tammany in order to increase their base practice—when they remember all these things, they may well take heart and try again. And if this result can be ascribed to anything but the increasing audacity of the Tammany yahoos, we should ascribe it to the persistence and pluck with which Dr. Parkhurst stuck to the police. It was his splendid bulldog obstinacy in holding on to them which really made the first clear impression on the public mind and brought about the present investigation.

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Tammany has selected as its candidate for mayor one of the worst park commissioners we have ever had. It ought to be enough to say of him that he is willing to accept Tammany's nomination at this crisis, but we shall add of Mr. Straus that he was the head devil in the scheme of 1892 to ruin Central Park by putting a race-track through it. He joined with the other Tammany members of the Board in pushing the scheme through the Legislature, and in taking the position that the law was mandatory and the commissioners had no choice in the matter. When he was criticised for his course, he expressed a desire to "lick" his critics, and persisted in his conduct till a mass meeting was held and the repeal of the law compelled from the Legislature. He declares now that he has never been a member of Tammany Hall, that he has always been independent in his public conduct, and that his chief aim has been to serve the people. His record as an official is against this claim, for no instance can be found in which he was not ready both to do Tammany's bidding and to fight for it. In the proceedings of the Park Board he has shown himself to be so ignorant as to be incapable of drafting a resolution. He would be a dangerous man for the press and a troublesome man for the public to have in power in the city hall, for no editor could criticise him without danger of a "licking," and the public could not check his raids upon its parks and other cherished institutions except by calling mass-meetings. This would give us pandemonium instead of government.

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Last week, for the first time, a member of the police force went on the stand and told the Lexow Committee a straightforward story, without any backing and filling or failure of memory, setting forth the way his captain had forced him to give up half his extra earnings and finally demanded the whole. Such unaccustomed frankness brought applause from the spectators. It was, in fact, of the greatest importance, since it shows that the huge police conspiracy of evasion and perjury may be on the point of falling to pieces. There must be hundreds of policemen who, like Officer DeGann, are thoroughly sick of being treated like serfs, and made the instruments of oppression and blackmail in the hands of their superiors; and his example of truthfulness ought to inspire them to come forward to tell what they know.

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Of almost equal significance was the testimony drawn from the agent of the French steamship line. In his books had been found the tell-tale entry of $500, "payés à qui de droit," and the vain efforts of Mr. Forget to escape telling where this money went were really pitiful. Everybody knows where it went, directly or indirectly. Everybody knows who the men are who have collected money, "de droit," from steamship companies and all other

bleedable corporations in this city. What the public is now impatient to see established is the system on which Tammany has divided its blackmail. The fact of its collection in enormous quantities is now patent to the boys in the street; the only question is, How was it divided? We hope to see Mr. Goff yet strike upon the percentages of the "new Tammany's" division of plunder with a skill and certainty equal to that which Mr. Tilden showed in figuring out the booty which went, "de droit," to Tweed and each of his fellow-thieves.

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Mr. Goff's discovery of a witness who swore that when he let his store for $50 rental, to be used as a polling-booth at election time, he was obliged to give the police captain a bonus of $15 for selecting the store for that purpose, revealed a new and fruitful source of police revenue. There are 1,141 polling places in this city, so that if the regular tariff was $15, as was undoubtedly the case, the captains received yearly from this source more than $17,000, or an average of $500 apiece. This is pure robbery, for the amount paid is not large, being, in fact, barely adequate compensation for the use of the premises. The captains have exacted it literally at the point of the club by causing it to be understood that no place would be designated by them for the purpose unless the proprietor paid back part of his compensation. Mr. Goff's witness said that no bonus had been demanded of him this year—a fact which gives the first indication we have had that the police are getting cautious under exposure.

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Mr. Goff's daily revelations suggest irresistibly the juggler with his hat. "What would you like me to take out of it next?" he asks, and when the audience replies, "Oh, any new form of police depravity," he immediately takes out a new kind, a little more degrading if possible than all the other samples that have preceded it. On Wednesday week he took up policy-shop gambling, and had no difficulty whatever in showing that this, like green-goods swindling, bunco games, Chinese gambling, thieving, prostitution, liquor-selling, and pawn-shop rascality, goes on under the protection of the police captains and for their personal profit. In fact, Mr. Goff has proved beyond doubt that the police, instead of pursuing and seeking to abolish crime in the city, systematically protect and nourish it for purposes of revenue. Was there ever in the history of the world such a police force as this to be found in a civilized community? Before Mr. Goff began his labors we were assured by all the Tammany "well nows" that we undoubtedly had the "finest" police force in the world. Nothing of this kind is heard now: Tammany itself repudiates the police, and seeks to wash its hands of all responsibility for it; but does anybody doubt that if other branches of our municipal service—like the police courts, the Health Board, the Dock Department, the Excise Board, or the Fire Department—were to be overhauled by Mr. Goff, a state of affairs would be revealed which would be as embarrassing for the "well nows" as the police revelations are? It is the Tammany theory of government which is being laid bare, not any abuse of it, or any abnormal outgrowth of it. It is a government by thieves, and naturally it cannot bear the light.

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Nowhere in the country are the Democrats more thoroughly demoralized than in Michigan. Two members of the State committee have resigned their places and retired from the canvass, on the ground that their candidate for Governor has made a bargain with the A. P. A., and is to receive the vote of that organization for a consideration. Another prominent politician has also written a letter refusing to take any part in the campaign, on the same ground, and he cites evidence which appears conclusive of the truth of the charge. To make matters worse, the Democratic candidate for Lieutenant-Governor has declined the nomination, and announces that he purposes to support the Republican party. Moreover, the Democrats have never recovered from the just odium which they incurred four years ago, when they got control of the Legislature, by passing a law changing the system of choosing Presidential electors from the traditional and elsewhere universal one of a State ticket to the district system, in order that they might secure in 1892, as they did, some votes for their candidate, although the Republicans had a majority in the commonwealth. They have been "too smart," and they deserve no sympathy now that they have fallen into difficulties.

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It seems that Senator Hoar was the author of that extraordinary platform of the Massachusetts Republicans this year, with its "gushing" declarations in favor of "Americanism everywhere," "leadership along loftier paths," "minds ever open to the sunlight and the morning," and so on. We ought to have recognized its source by the introduction of "sunlight" and "morning." They are favorite political terms with the Massachusetts Senator, and have been embalmed for future generations in the *Congressional Record*, in his speech of welcome to that arrant demagogue, Mahone of Virginia, when he entered the Senate as a readjuster and ally of the Republicans in 1881. This passage from that speech, read in the light of experience, shows how easily Mr. Hoar was taken in by a cheap adventurer:

> "There are Democrats in the South who do not mean to live any longer in the graveyards and among the tombs, whose face is toward the morning, and on whose brow the rising sunlight of the future generations of this country is already beginning to be visible. Of such Democrats the avant-courier has already reached the Senate chamber, after long waiting and yearning. The Republicans of the North desire to stretch forth a friendly hand. It is in the spirit of the future, and not of the past, it is in the spirit of union and not of sectionalism, that we are holding out our hand to those brave and noble Democrats of Virginia whose representative took his seat to-day on this floor."

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All accounts now agree that the month of August was marked by a world-wide movement of financial recuperation. It began, as a rule, before the close of July. It reached its culmination here before the end of August; in several European centres it lasted longer. In all quarters, however, it has been now succeeded by another period of calm, alternately marked by utter dulness and by moderate reaction. This is the rule of recovery from trade depression. Confidence moves slowly; it merely feels its way. At intervals, commonly several months apart, a sentiment of hope seems all at once to spread throughout the business world. The resulting rise in prices and activity in exchange do not at first continue long. As the underlying demand for goods or investments slackens, the speculators, who as usual anticipate the outside buying, halt to take profits and to test their market. Prices, of course, recede; but if, as happened last month, they continue steady at a better level than before, the groundwork of confidence is laid for further recovery. Meantime, the current figures of the money market show a more substantial change than in any of the year's preceding recoveries. Comparing last Saturday's New York bank statement with that at August's opening, it will be found that loans and discounts increased, within the eleven weeks, $18,000,000, while actual cash reserve fell off $6,000,000. The Bank of Germany's loan account expanded in the same period $18,000,000, the Austrian Bank's $17,000,000; and while the Bank of England's discounts decreased slightly, its idle gold supply fell off nearly $9,000,000.

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The plan of currency reform adopted by the American bankers' convention at Baltimore proposes to substitute a cash guarantee fund, in place of deposited bonds, as security for the notes of failed banks. As the present generation has grown up in an atmosphere of bond security for banknotes, any other system seems at first glance quite inadmissible. It strikes the average American very much as a plan for abolishing the House of Representatives or establishing a state religion would, and he says at once that it will never do. Upon a little closer examination he finds that there is something to be said on the other side. When he has once begun to doubt, he learns that the system of bond security is really a system to dispense with credit as an element in banknote issues, which is much the same thing as dispensing with fuel in making a fire. Then, if he is an intelligent person capable of forming an opinion on this class of questions, he will be prepared to consider other

plans for making noteholders secure, and this he will the more readily do when he sees that present bond security will not last more than ten or twelve years, and will be a diminishing quantity all the time. The Baltimore plan contemplates that the Government shall redeem banknotes as it does now, and that the funds for redemption shall be provided by the banks; but instead of depositing $114 in order to get $90 of circulating notes as now, it proposes that the participating banks shall contribute to a mutual insurance fund sufficient to meet deficiencies in the assets of failed banks. The amount necessary for such a fund can be ascertained with as much certainty as a life-insurance reserve. Figures were presented by ex-Comptroller Hepburn at Baltimore showing that a tax of three-hundredths of one per cent. per annum on circulation would have reimbursed the Government for the redemption of the notes of all failed banks, even if there had been no bond security.

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These figures were supplied by the present comptroller, Mr. Eckels, and are brought down to the present time. Under the existing law, as well as under the proposed plan, the Government has a first lien on the assets of each failed bank for note redemption. The figures presented by Mr. Hepburn, therefore, mean that if there had never been any bond security for national banknotes, the winding up of the failed banks, taking each one by itself and applying its assets to its own notes exclusively, would have shown a gross deficiency in the last thirty-one years of only a little more than $1,000,000; and that a tax of three-hundredths of one per cent. per annum on all banknote circulation during that time would have met the entire shortage. Now, the Baltimore plan proposes to accumulate by a gradual tax a guarantee fund of 5 per cent., which is surely abundant and superabundant for the redemption of the notes of failed banks. The plan does not disturb the existing circulation of national banks. It does not specifically provide for furnishing circulating notes to State banks, but the drift of the discussion pointed that way, and Mr. Hepburn gave the sanction of his authority to that policy on condition that the State banks comply with the same requirements as to the guarantee fund and as to examinations by the National Currency Bureau. No opposition to that suggestion came from any quarter. Since the principal representative of the State banks in the convention (Mr. Lowry of Atlanta) was made a member of the committee to memorialize Congress, it may be assumed that that bone of contention no longer exists.

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The Belgian elections, which came off on Sunday, are extremely important, as instead of 130,000, as heretofore, 1,370,000 did or might have taken part in them, and these 1,370,000 might have cast, or did cast, 2,111,000 votes, owing to the plural vote. Of these it is calculated that 853,000, about 40 per cent. of the whole, had one vote. About 293,000, or 21 per cent., had two votes, and 223,000, or 15 per cent., had three votes. This is in the elections for the lower house. The Senate is elected by the same electors if over thirty years of age. The one-voters are men over twenty-five, who have lived a year in the district. The two-voters are married men and widowers paying a small tax. The three-voters are the educated class, including the priests. Voting is compulsory. The result is extremely interesting, because this is the first time that it has been possible to ascertain, with any degree of accuracy, the manner in which the Belgian population is divided among the various political parties. The three great divisions are the Liberals, the Socialists, and the Clericals or Catholics. The three-voters, who are mainly clerical, are more numerous in the country districts. The one-voters are more numerous in the towns, a circumstance which keeps up the power of the country as against the town. In the Brussels district, for instance, the city has 62 per cent. of the whole number of electors, but represents only 0.59 per cent. of the electoral power of the district. The country, on the other hand, has only 38 per cent. of the electors, but represents 0.41 of the electoral power.

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The Liberal camp has been greatly broken up by the extension of the suffrage. Some sections of the Liberal party have gone over bodily to the Socialists; others have tried and have been repulsed by the Socialists. The great Liberal leaders, in fact, like Janson, who have posed for years as protectors of the working classes, have lost their popularity and have been cast aside. Some of the fiercest fights in the election promised to be between the Clericals and Socialists, and the Socialists appear to have gained on both the other parties. The Catholics gain most by the plural vote, and may be said to be, on the whole, conservative, but their anxiety to save the souls of the workingmen is so great that there is no knowing what concessions they will make to the Socialists. In fact, the future of Belgium is now very uncertain.

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The great orator of the French Socialists, M. Jaurès, lately made a long speech at Bordeaux, from which we learn that the Golden Age, far from being indefinitely adjourned by late events in France, is really very near at hand. That we are still in the Age of Iron he admits, bayonets and the guillotine being too much in evidence to make any doubt possible on that point. But the extension of the functions of the state marks the dawning of the Silver Age, and to make that pass into the Age of Gold only a little thing is necessary. The little thing is simply "to get nature to assume control of the great corporations and the means of production." That is all, and yet M. Jaurès concedes that even nature cannot do it without a struggle. Still, the fight will be a great blessing to the very capitalists against whom it is waged. It is well known that rich men are bored to death. They do not know what to do with themselves or their money. To take it from them will give them novel sensations which they cannot help enjoying hugely. This will give many of them a new interest in life, and prevent no end of premature deaths and suicides from ennui. But will not the Socialist, in his turn, suffer from ennui when he gets hold of the money? Not at all, says M. Jaurès. "L'ouvrier ne s'ennuiera pas quand il sera le maître." Nothing can be more certain than that. It is one of those propositions which appeal to the common consciousness, and require no arguments to prove. As long as the money lasted there would not be a suspicion of ennui. And that is what will make the Age so Golden. In the Socialist millennium no one will ever be bored—or if he is, says M. Jaurès ominously, "so much the worse for him."

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Some time ago, after its first year's trial, we pointed out how completely the French law which exacts military service, in barracks and with the colors, of all seminarists and other candidates for the priesthood, had failed to justify either the hopes or the fears with which it had been regarded. The bill was passed as a distinctly Radical measure, and was meant to be a club to beat the Church with. Its supporters hoped that the novices from the seminaries would be simply drowned in the flood of other conscripts indifferent or hostile to religion, and would "lose their vocations." Nothing of the sort happened. None were lost who were worth keeping. On the other hand, the seminarists made a real gain in knowledge of the world and of their fellows, and in training in obedience and exactness and the military virtues. The full three years of service have just been completed by the first levy. The result is bewailed by the *XIXe Siècle*, while it fills the *Univers* with surprise and delight. But it should seem that no one with the least foresight need be surprised that a band of ardent young believers should not at once give up their faith at a first contact with an opposing world, or that zealous propagandists, as most of these young men are, should make some converts. At any rate, the Radicals have only themselves to thank. They voted down an amendment to the bill, which was favored by the moderate Republicans, providing that the seminarists in the army should be kept together and trained in hospital service only. They passed the present law simply to annoy and disturb the Catholics, without much thought of its ultimate results.

*WHAT IS THE MATTER WITH THE DEMOCRATS?*

WHAT is it that has put the Democratic party on the defensive all over the country, and is endangering its hold on power in New York city and State? What is it that has done so much to change the triumphant anticipations of 1892 into dismal forebodings of 1894? What is it that is driving back the Independents by the thousand into the Republican ranks, and making a great many feel that the overthrow of the Republicans through the Democratic instrumentality is impossible? It is certainly not any change of opinion on the tariff question. The McKinley bill is no more in favor now than it was in 1892. The facts of trade are still all in favor of lower duties. Protection has been failing rapidly in all the other countries in which it is tried as well as in ours. The theory of free trade—that all commerce is barter, that in order to sell you must buy—is making steady inroads every day into the public mind. In fact, every phenomenon of trade, commerce, and industry all over the world is working steadily on the side of the tariff reform with which the Democrats identified themselves when they elected Mr. Cleveland. What, then, is the trouble?

It is simply and solely the bad character of some of their leading men. It was bad character, not difference of opinion, which caused the defeat of the Wilson bill in the Senate. It failed there in order that some conspicuous Democrats might make money in sugar. It was bad character, not difference of opinion, which made Hill and Murphy labor for the defeat of the perfectly proper nominations which the President made for the Supreme Court. It was the criminal wreaking vengeance on the prosecutor. It was bad character which led to the theft of the election returns in this State, and the elevation of the thief to a judgeship as a reward. It is bad character which has given us our venal police and vicious police justices and our election frauds. These are the things which have brought the party into disrepute. Its ideas are as sound as ever, but some of its foremost men have proved irredeemable scoundrels.

Now, if this theory be true, what is the best service a good Democrat can render to his party? Is it not to drive the rascals out, to destroy them with every weapon which the law puts into his hands? Can there be any better preparation for the great contest of 1896 than sending them into obscurity? One of the strongest but most mischievous delusions of the strict party man, the old-fashioned "regular" who never strays one yard from his ticket, is that it is the good party men who win elections. But one of the most familiar facts of American politics is that it is the shifting independent vote, especially in this State, which turns the scale. As a matter of fact, the regulars, the people who never vote anything on any occasion but the Republican ticket or the Democratic ticket, never win anything. They are a perfectly helpless body. It is only by attracting the free-thinkers to their side that they ever get into office.

We have repeatedly called attention to the figures which illustrate this proposition. They are familiar to everybody. The regular party men are, at nearly all our elections, almost a neglectable quantity. It is not for them that stumpers stump and campaign documents fill the air. It is for the shifting independent vote which observes, reasons, considers, and takes care that the State suffers no damage. It is among these, as a rule, that American polity and morality, the great moral interests of the State—the Ten Commandments, in short—take refuge. It is in their ranks that "the good Americans," the real patriots, stand. It is their opinions and prejudices, therefore, which the wise or shrewd politician will consult. It is indifference to these opinions and prejudices which has ruined Maynard, ruined poor old Flower, and is going to ruin Hill. They, unless we are greatly mistaken, have decided that the Democratic party under such leaders as Hill and Murphy and Sheehan and Croker, is unfit to govern either the State or the country, and must either discard them or abdicate.

This feeling of distrust of the Democratic party, which is working its downfall, is, let us add, enormously aggravated by the persistent "regularity" of such men as Mr. Coudert and Mr. Stetson. Hill and Murphy, says the independent voter, are bad enough, but when men like these stick to such criminals through thick and thin, and ask no questions, except, Have they got the regular nomination? does it not show that there is a gangrene in the party which cannot be arrested? Does it not seem as if we had among us, seeking to govern our country, an organization which claims superiority to the laws of morality on which our civilization is based, and without which it cannot endure? When a mere party nomination closes the eyes of such men to complicity in a transaction like the Maynard fraud, does it not show that the time has come for its destruction as anti-social? Is it not thinly disguised anarchism, and is not the poison of it extraordinarily subtle?

What makes these adhesions to Hill, like that of these gentlemen, of Judge Gaynor, and of other decent people who have written almost comic testimonials to Hill's character, all the more extraordinary is, that there is not, we venture to assert, a single illustration in American political history of their political utility in the long run. We presume they are largely due to a vague notion that the party may some day have favors to bestow, and that the man who has had a black mark put to his name for some kind of "irregularity" will get none of them. But as a matter of fact parties in the long run, like all other human organizations except bands of robbers or pure thieving combinations like Tammany, depend for their success on their adhesion to the great principles on which human society rests. If the party is to be successful and have favors to bestow, it must be respectable and respected, and to be respectable and respected its leading men must stand well with the voters who have the ideas and habits which rule the nation. As long as this is the case, no member of it needs to degrade himself by winking at rascality. When evil days come like the present, the respectable men are sure to be in demand, no matter what their opinions are. Hill and Gilroy roaming around the town trying to get men of honor whom in the days of their prosperity they never consulted, if they did not revile them, to go on their tickets, ought to be a solemn warning to all who feel the party mania eating into their moral system.

*THE NEW CONSTITUTION AGAIN.*

THE intense interest felt in this city in the municipal campaign and throughout the State in the contest for Governor must not be allowed to thrust out of view the important constitutional questions involved in the approaching election. Experience has shown that it is hard enough, even under the most favorable circumstances, to secure proper attention for such issues. It is therefore the more necessary to call attention to the subject in a year when personal and partisan questions are unusually engrossing.

It will be remembered that the issues submitted by the Constitutional Convention to the voters are summarized in three propositions. One is an elaborate scheme for reapportioning the State, which we have already discussed and condemned on the ground that it is too favorable to the Republican party, and that it discriminates unjustly against this city and Brooklyn by putting a limit upon their possible representation in the State Senate. Another amendment, which is submitted separately, concerns expenditures for canal improvements. The bulk of the Convention's work—31 of the 33 amendments—will be submitted to be approved or rejected by the voter as a single proposition. Several of these are comparatively unimportant, and are universally approved by people who have examined them. A large number of others are of more consequence, but do not demand separate notice, as they were thoroughly discussed in the Convention without developing any possible objection to their adoption. Fully three-quarters of all the amendments passed the Convention with substantial unanimity, and will be accepted as desirable by 99 of every 100 citizens who take the trouble to examine them.

The most important of the proposed changes are those which provide for the separation of municipal from State and national elections, the prohibition of prison

labor in competition with free labor, the prohibition of pool-selling, the preservation of forests, the prohibition of railway passes for public officials, the removal of the $5,000 limitation of damage in case of death by accident, the extension of the period of citizenship from ten to ninety days before election, the requirement that the merit system shall be applied to the civil service; and the judiciary, education, and charities articles. Nearly all of these will be accepted as desirable changes by any thoughtful man who studies them, and they are remarkably free from features calculated to arouse class or partisan opposition.

Indeed, were it not for two provisions, this whole "omnibus" article would be beyond serious criticism on the one side and the danger of effective opposition from selfish interests on the other. The amendment which meets just criticism is that which practically prohibits prison labor in this State. It prohibits the manufacture by the convicts of any goods to be sold or given away; and the proviso that they may be employed in the manufacture of goods to be used in the prisons or in other public institutions of the State, it is declared by the executive committee of the Prison Association, "is illusory and affords slight relief, for the reason that the goods used in most institutions are now largely manufactured by their own inmates; and, under the operation of this proviso, it is not probable that 5 per cent. of the prisoners could be kept at work." In other words, it is proposed that the constitution shall require the convicts to live in idleness—than which nothing can be worse, more cruel, or more inhuman. What makes the action of the Convention the more inexcusable is the fact that this system has already been tried once in this State (in 1888), and was quickly abandoned because it worked so badly. The Prison Association Committee say of this experiment:

> "The effect of this law was most disastrous; it abolished labor in the prisons, and the convicts, confined in their cells and debarred from employment, made piteous appeals to the authorities to be allowed to go to work. As the idleness continued, the prisoners constantly deteriorated morally and physically; they became more and more restive and mutinous, until the prisons were seriously threatened with outbreak and riot. The injurious operation of this law was so strikingly manifest that it was repealed the following year by common consent."

The opposition to the "omnibus" article on grounds of selfish interest is prompted by the provision which prohibits pool-selling. A law which has been on the statute-book for seven years suspends the general laws against gambling so as to permit pool-selling on races. This law is described in its title as designed "for the purpose of improving the breed of horses." It certainly has not improved the breed of men. Its demoralizing effects have been so clear and so pronounced that the moral element of the community has long demanded its repeal. There is absolutely no defence of the system to be made. But a great amount of capital is invested in the race-tracks upon which pools are sold — $20,000,000, a good authority estimates. A large body of men get their living out of this racing and gambling, so that their bread and butter is at stake. Another large body of men is employed in breeding horses, and is interested in the continuance of conditions which furnish a good market for them. There are tens of thousands of men in the State who have, or can be persuaded that they have, a selfish interest in the maintenance of pool-selling. The race-track men will do their best to insure this by organizing opposition to the whole body of thirty-one amendments which are to be accepted or rejected in bulk. They will not hire brass bands to call attention to their operations, but they will work with the energy which always characterizes men whose chance to make money easily is threatened.

The people who desire the adoption of the new Constitution might as well understand that they cannot fold their arms and sit still while effective opposition is thus being organized. It is most unfortunate that the prison amendment was lumped with the rest. It is altogether bad. Its effect must be mischievous. If inserted in the Constitution, it could not be got out again in two years at the very least—instead of being repealed after a year's trial, as in the case of the legislative act embodying the same principle. The only thing the voter can do is to consider all of the thirty-one amendments upon which he must pass in one vote, and decide whether there is good enough in the other thirty to outweigh the bad in this one. We have heretofore expressed the opinion that the balance is on the side of the thirty, although we cannot criticise severely the man who finds the convict-labor provision too much for him to stomach.

### *THE LAW OF STRIKES.*

So much attention was attracted by Judge Jenkins's injunction forbidding the employees of the Northern Pacific Railroad to strike last December that the recent review of that proceeding by the United States Circuit Court of Appeals will be carefully read by all interested. The substance of the decision is this: Railway employees have a legal right to leave the service of the company either as individuals or by concerted action, provided it is a question of wages or the like, and if no intent to cripple the road can be proved against them. If the result of such action is to embarrass the receivers, it must be taken as incidental unless specially so intended.

It would seem at first as if this decision gave up the whole case. The *Railway Review* (Chicago) remarks that there is a theoretical but not a practical difference between the two actions, so that under such hair-splitting no strike can be enjoined. "Some additional legislation is imperative. Men engaged in transportation should be engaged for a specific period, or, in case of a continuing service, a sufficient notice should be given and required from either party." But, pending the solution of the problem of contracts or of a reasonable notice of leaving the company's employ, there is every probability that we have really taken a step forward. When Judge Jenkins gave his famous description of a strike on a railway as "essentially a conspiracy to extort by violence," and said that "the wit of man could not devise a legal strike, because compulsion is the leading idea of it," he no doubt, as the appellate court finds, overstepped the bounds of legal definition. In the eyes of the law it is possible for employees to enter upon a "peaceful" strike. But if we take Judge Jenkins's language as expressing a business truth confirmed by our industrial history, and a correct statement of strikes as they actually occur, his words could not better describe the situation. Every railway man knows that a peaceful strike would be a flat failure. To succeed, the strikers must surprise the company so as to guard against any efforts towards collecting men beforehand to take their places, and, next, must prevent by violence the running of trains by outside labor. We need go no further back than the Debs strike last summer for an illustration. That wretched attempt would have failed at the outset had not employees and ruffians combined to stop the trains; and it did fail the moment United States troops gave adequate protection to the new men. There was nothing in that strike but violence.

In the light of this fact, that violence is in practice the essence of a successful strike, we are prepared to see how important is that part of the appellate court's decision which confirms everything that Judge Jenkins said regarding the illegality of "combining to quit with the object and intent of crippling the property or embarrassing the operation of said railroad." This condemnation is expressed several times in the opinion. After stating that the injunction should have described an unlawful strike more distinctly, the court continues: "The order should indicate more clearly than has been done that the strikes intended to be restrained were those designed to physically cripple the trust property, or to interfere with their employees who do not wish to quit, or to prevent by intimidation or other wrongful modes the employment of others to take the place of those quitting." If our courts and troops, both State and national, may use their whole power to restrain violence, no strike will easily succeed unless it has such a basis in business justice as to enlist for it the hearty support of public opinion. Surely, to have this position clearly established is a great gain.

It was not to be supposed that our courts would infringe in any way upon the

general principle of freedom of service. If railway employment is by its nature a special pursuit which should be governed by special rules in the interest of the public, then it is a question whether such special contracts should not be passed upon first by Congress rather than by our courts. It is therefore not at all clear, as the *Railway Review* intimates, that this recent decision has only added to our complexity. On the contrary, the practical effect of the court's argument is to render a stoppage of railway commerce a thing of greater difficulty. Lest it be thought that one other branch of the subject was neglected in the decision, it is well to quote the following:

"It may be assumed for the purposes of this discussion that he [the striking employee] would be liable in like manner [that is, perhaps even to criminal prosecution] where the contract of service, by necessary implication arising out of the nature or the circumstances of the employment, required him not to quit the service of his employer suddenly and without reasonable notice of his intention to do so."

Certainly this latter quotation goes as far as any unbiassed student of the problem could ask. Of course it leaves open the question whether a striker's employment forbade his quitting suddenly, but in any case that would be for the lower court to consider. A peaceful strike is often the only possible protest against a commercial wrong, and as such is safeguarded in this decision; but strikes which "extort by violence" have received no uncertain condemnation from this high tribunal. Then, again, there is nothing in the decision which looks towards favoring corporations. An opinion that strikes, under any and all circumstances, were to be forbidden would at once have been construed to mean that our courts were the "slaves of capital," with the result that drastic legislation would have been asked for in the interests of labor. As the matter now stands, neither side can rightly complain of the general principles enunciated by the appellate judges. Those general principles may require some modification to fit them to the precise circumstances of each case—railway or other—but that is a matter to be determined later. The situation has gained in clearness. There is no hard-and-fast rule by which we can solve the labor problem; commercially speaking, we can do little else as a matter of law and for the moment than to set limits to the combat.

## *THE RUDDY PLANET.*

MARS, although the nearest to the earth of all the planets, Venus alone excepted, is an object by no means easy to observe, even at its present minimum distance of about forty million miles. To realize the extent of the difficulty, even under the best imaginable conditions of instrument and atmosphere, let any one with no previous knowledge of the moon attempt to settle precise markings, colors, and the nature of objects on our satellite by simple scrutiny with an ordinary opera-glass. Indeed, the moon would, for many technical reasons, prove the less perplexing, although the two cases would be quite parallel in so far as the mere geometry of the case is concerned.

Personal differences affect all sketches of Mars unduly, and the delicate and changing local colors add much uncertainty. Still, the leading features of the planet's surface are well made out, and their stability leaves no room to doubt their reality as permanent planetary crust. Here, unfortunately, the great advance in photographic application to astronomical requirements has not yet helped much, although excellent plates have been obtained by Prof. Pickering, and at the Lick Observatory as well: the texture of the sensitized film is too coarse, and the image of the planet is too small and faint. The border of its disc is considerably brighter than the interior, as the Lick photographs show; but this brightness is far from uniform, and is probably caused by the surface features of the planet. Also variations of color in the markings of Mars depend upon the diurnal rotation of the planet and the angle of vision; and changes of apparent brightness in certain regions are as well established as in the case of the moon.

Mindful of these obstacles in our own day, it is easy to see why the early telescopists failed to discern very much. Since 1830, with better telescopes, Martian investigations have rapidly increased in fulness and importance, Beer and Maedler, Sir John Herschel, Secchi, Kaiser, Lord Rosse, Lockyer, and Lassell being the chief observers down to the very favorable opposition of 1862; while since that time there have been critical observations by Dawes, Knobel, Trouvelot, Green, Terby, Niesten, Lohse, and others, culminating in the classic labors of Schiaparelli, begun at the memorable oppositions of the planet in 1877 and 1879. So abundant and careful have been the drawings of this planet in the past that many excellent maps of its entire surface have been made, by Kaiser (1864), Proctor (1867), Green (1877), Dreyer (1879), and in particular by Schiaparelli (1888), supplanting all others, from his elaborate sketches with the 18-inch Merz refractor of the Brera Observatory at Milan. Dr. Wislicenus of Strassburg has done excellent service by applying the micrometer to the more conspicuous markings, thereby establishing their accurate positions; and it is no exaggeration to say that the areography of Mars is now better known than the geography of immense tracts of our own planet.

The most casual observer of Mars would not fail to notice the striking difference between the brightness of the two hemispheres—the northern chiefly bright, and the southern pronouncedly dark. In fact, the light and dark regions are each very approximately a hemisphere in area. Generally speaking, the dark areas are broad zones lying northwest by southeast. It is the vast neutral-tint area of the northern hemisphere which the powerful eye of Schiaparelli has dotted over with numerous darkish regions of relatively small extent, and which are connected together by his complex system of "canali," intersecting the northern Martian continents. These *canali*, as Schiaparelli termed them (*channels* is the proper English equivalent, not *canals*, as often carelessly translated), were first seen by him in 1877, and they require for their easy visibility a steady atmosphere, and a large and perfect telescope with a trained eye behind it. Not even then are they always visible; particularly near the opposition time, the conditions of illumination appear to be unfavorable, and they are hard to make out or are altogether invisible. Straight in their course, only slightly differing from a great circle, but very different in length (from 400 to 4,000 miles), they intersect one another at various angles, and terminate in darkish areas, many *canali* (in several regions) meeting in a small dark spot. Owing to the varying physical aspects, as to Mars's season and orbital position with reference to the earth, under which they may be presented, a given marking of this type may for a long time remain invisible; and very often, says Schiaparelli, they look like a gray band, deepest in intensity at the middle and shaded at the edges. Not long after the spring equinox, and in a brief duration of time, Schiaparelli has observed many of these *canali* transformed from a single faint marking into a double one. This gemination, discovered in 1879 and verified at many subsequent oppositions, shows the two bands ordinarily equal and parallel, within a few miles of each other, and of the same color and intensity. Apparently this doubling is periodic, fluctuating with the Martian seasons.

The axis of Mars pierces the northern heavens about midway between the two bright stars $\alpha$ Cephei and $\alpha$ Cygni (Deneb), and no precessional motion of the pole is yet made out. No one now doubts the waxing and waning of the polar caps, particularly the southern one; it being largest near the end of the Martian winter and smallest near the end of summer, though seasons on Mars can hardly come and go, as on the earth, if that planet has no atmosphere to conserve and distribute the solar heat. The polar spots are a brilliant white, and are generally thought to be covered with snow and ice. Curiously, while the north polar snows cap the exact pole quite concentrically, and as far as the 85th parallel of latitude all around, the south circumpolar snows do not centre about the pole, but round a point much removed from the planet's true pole; as much as 8° in the elder Herschel's time (1783), and even 20° as measured by Linsser in 1862, but only 3° at the opposition in 1892, according to Prof. Comstock, whose observations bring out very clearly not only the rapid shrinking of the snow-cap—its diameter diminishing about fifteen miles daily—but a progressive shifting of its centre, which would seem to show an unsymmetrical shrinking. Evidently the fluctuations of the polar caps are the key to the situation on Mars, and at the oppositions both of 1892 and 1894 the southern one has been critically scrutinized. The rate of its progressive diminution is by no means constant, and its area, sometimes increasing and again diminishing, is at other times intersected by one or more dark narrow markings; naturally interpreted as heavy falls of snow in the one case, and in the other as the melting of snow in the polar valleys. One "great rift" of the polar cap is very conspicuous, and Mr. Lowell compares it to the appearance of "a huge cart-track coming down to one over the snow." Its breadth he estimates at 220 miles, and its length 1,200. Surrounding this polar cap is a narrow, dark line, nearly uniform in breadth, which is, Mr. Lowell surmises, "clearly water at the edge of the melting snow—a polar sea, in short." He says further:

"In 1892, as the snow began to decrease, a long dark line was observed, at Arequipa, Peru, to make its appearance in the midst of the cap and then gradually to grow till it cut the cap in two. At the corresponding Martian season in 1894 the same dark line was observed at Flagstaff [Arizona] in the same position. It was well placed for observation, and was carefully studied. It started apparently not far from the centre of the snow-cap, and increased in width and length till it opened into the polar sea in longitude 160°. Later its opposite end

came out in longitude 330°. Meanwhile it was spreading even faster in the middle. While it was thus eating into the snow, some brilliant points, shining like stars, were observed in the snow between it and the outer edge of the cap, on several successive mornings. They undoubtedly were the far-off gusten of snow-slopes. The subsequent behavior of the spots from which they came bore witness to this, for the rift grew till it formed a large lake in the midst of the snow not far from the geographical pole. Other rifts also appeared and ate into the cap, but the spots that had shone out so brilliantly still remained as snow islands, though daily diminished in size. At last the smaller of the two chief portions into which the cap had been split dwindled entirely away, and the other became a tiny patch eccentrically placed."

A recent announcement of Prof. Campbell regarding the spectrum of Mars is decidedly revolutionary. Our only present means of finding out whether the planet has an atmosphere or not is by means of the spectroscope, which, in the hands of Secchi, Huggins, Rutherfurd, Vogel, and Maunder, has given certain evidence of absorption lines in the spectrum of Mars not due to our own atmosphere; and the inference has always been irresistible that Mars is surrounded by a gaseous evelope of sufficient density to make itself apparent. But, a few months ago, Prof. Campbell, embracing the opportunity when Mars and the moon were near together, made a direct and critical comparison of the spectra of these two bodies, with the unexpected result that they appeared alike in every particular; meaning, of course, that Mars has no more of an atmosphere than the moon itself, which has long been known to be devoid of such an envelope. Should this startling result be confirmed by other investigators, its acceptance would necessitate an utter change in the usual interpretation of the well-known appearances which the disc of Mars presents. For example, as the planet turns on its axis, carrying the spots from the centre to the edge of the disc, they gradually melt from view, just as they would if seen through a greater thickness of atmosphere. The temporary obscurations of certain parts of the disc, frequently observed and satisfactorily attributed to clouds, will have to be otherwise accounted for, and the amount of water must be inappreciable, even without considering the difficulties of explaining how that periodic and well-established expansion and shrinking of the polar caps can go on if there is no atmosphere to act as a medium in the formation and deposition of snow. Prof. Campbell, then, should feel no disappointment if his announcement fails to elicit a cordial welcome from speculators on the climatology of Mars.

But, allowing that the cosmic conditions of Mars are still suitable for the existence of water and an atmosphere, though of no great density, it is an easy surmise, and one doubtless correct, that the lighter regions of the planet's face disclosed by the telescope are land and the darker water. The southern hemisphere of Mars, then, is principally water, and the northern continental land, precisely as in the case of the earth; but while, on our globe, the proportion of land and water is about four to eleven, the surface of Mars shows water and land in very nearly equal amounts. Only the darkest of the dark regions may be actual sea; indeed, M. Niesten thinks those parts of the planet now and then seen to be lightly tinted gray may be marshy lands. But the true aquatic character of the suspected seas would best be established by watching for the reflection of the solar image from them. M. Flammarion has calculated that under favorable circumstances the sun, thus reflected, ought to shine as a star of the third magnitude; but no such phenomenon has yet been observed.

M. Flammarion, who has made an extended study of the climatology of Mars, pronounces it analogous to that of the earth. The northern ice-cap is concentric with the pole, while the southern is removed about 5°. At periods of minimum ice, then, this pole is entirely bare, the diameter of the cap varying from 4° to 5° in summer to 45° or 50° in winter. The polar snows vary according to the seasons; and outside the polar ice, falls of snow have been observed, sometimes extending as far as the equator. The relations of the planet's axis to its orbit are similar to those which obtain for our own globe; but the supply of direct solar heat is about one-half as great per square mile as that of the earth. Owing to the great eccentricity of Mars's orbit, it receives at perihelion about one-half more of solar heat than at aphelion; so that the southern summers must be much hotter and winters colder than those of the northern hemisphere. We may believe, he says, that there are on Mars, compared with the earth, less water and water vapor, fewer clouds, less snow, and a smaller thickness of ice; the length of summer, twice that of the terrestrial season, may amply suffice to melt all the ice.

Only when the crowding enigmas of the moon have been dissolved shall we be ready to pronounce upon Martian appearances with certainty. Particularly must the marked changes of lunar objects with the direction of their illumination be critically interrogated as an auxiliary key to the situation on Mars. The striking rill-systems of the moon vanish utterly as our satellite recedes from the full; and this simple fact shows how foolish it is to attach too great significance to apparent phenomena of the Martian surface which may turn out to be mere phantom changes of illumination.

## SARAH BERNHARDT IN THE "FEMME DE CLAUDE."

PARIS, September 28, 1894.

OUR theatres live chiefly, just now, on revivals. With the exception of "Mme. Sans-Gêne" and of the "Cabotins," no plays of any importance have been introduced lately. Alexandre Dumas has given us revivals at various theatres—the "Dame aux Camélias," the "Fils Naturel." A few days ago Mme. Sarah Bernhardt produced at the Theatre of the Renaissance, which has become her theatre, the "Femme de Claude," one of the most extraordinary plays of Alexandre Dumas, which did not meet with much success when it appeared in 1873, and which had not been played for twenty years. "La Femme de Claude" was written before the new law on divorce was enacted; now it seems almost an anachronism. As Dumas himself avowed, some time ago, he would not write it now, since there would be no occasion for Claude to kill his wife, as he does in the play; he would simply take her to a law-court and divorce her.

But, this being so, why is the play again put on the stage? It would be difficult always to explain the motives of Mme. Sarah Bernhardt; she probably merely saw in the part of the wife of *Claude* one in which she could well develop her original qualities; that was enough for her, and, I confess, it was also enough for me—for perpetual travelling, playing before foreign audiences amid third-rate actors and actresses, has not an improving influence on the best of actors. Though time has not spared the ideal Sarah who played in "Hernani" and in "Andromaque," though she has felt, like *Athalie*, "des ans l'irréparable outrage," she still has something left which nothing can alter or destroy—an innate genius, an indescribable grace and delicacy.

It has often been said that the most important part of a letter is generally in the postscript; it is just the reverse with the "Femme de Claude." Alexandre Dumas wrote for it, in 1873, a preface, which you will find either in the first edition of the play or in volume v. of the edition of his complete works. In this preface, which takes the form of a letter to the theatrical critic of the *Journal des Débats*, who had handled the play rather severely, and had found fault with its tragic ending, Dumas comes out in his favorite character, as a moralist, as a critic of the modern code of morality, and of the laws which regulate the relations of man and woman, of father or mother and children.

To those who may some day be tempted to write a biography of Alexandre Dumas the son, this preface is an invaluable document. Its date partly explains the excitement under which it was visibly written. The fatal war of 1870 had come to an end; Dumas had seen the invasion and the Commune; he conceived that the misfortunes of France were owing to its inner condition, to the corruption which had been growing under the Empire. He personified this corruption on the stage in *Césarine*, the wife of *Claude*. In his preface he has a sort of dream of Patmos, and sees the Beast of the Apocalypse.

"This Beast was like a leopard, her feet were like the paws of a bear, her mouth like the mouth of a lion. . . . She was dressed in purple and scarlet, adorned with gold, precious stones, and pearls. She kept in her hands, as white as milk, a golden vase full of the abominations and impurities of Babylon, of Sodom, and of Lesbos. At times this Beast, whom I thought the same that Saint John had seen, emitted from her whole body a vapor, through which she appeared and shone as the handsomest of God's angels, and in which come by thousands, play in convulsions of pleasure and with howlings of pain, and finally evaporate, the anthropomorphous animalcules. They vanished spontaneously with a slight detonation, and nothing remained but a drop of liquid—tear or blood—which was immediately absorbed. . . ."

I will not give the rest of this apocalyptic description; you have perceived already that the Beast is a new incarnation of Eve, of the woman. It is the great Whore of Babylon, the devourer of souls and of bodies. Dumas speaks of her as of a personal enemy, and he explains at length how he came to study her in all her metamorphoses.

The theatrical critic of the *Débats* had been impudent enough to ask Dumas if he had a right to give himself out as a professor of morality, and to say that with the general public he had not the credit of the preacher, the legislator, the magistrate, of all those who have received from society the mission to regulate life. Dumas retorted thus:

"To be sure, everybody knows that I am neither a prince, nor a priest, nor a minister, nor a deputy, nor a magistrate, nor an Academician, nor a member of a general or a municipal council, nor a doctor, nor a lawyer, nor a mayor; and as these people have all received from society the right to speak officially of something, there remains for me, as it did for *Figaro*, the right to speak of nothing. Well, sir, this right, which, if I am to believe you, I do not possess, I assume. And I will tell you why. . . . The judges and the priests who condemned Calas to the torture of the rack had received from society the mission to ad-

minister justice and to diffuse charity. It did not prevent them from condemning and killing an innocent man. A mere man of letters, like you and me—M. de Voltaire—who had received no mission of the kind, took on his conscience the right to discuss the judgment of the judges, and to avenge and rehabilitate the memory and the family of this innocent man. . . . The man of letters, without any mandate, assumed the function of priest and judge."

Dumas was not yet an Academician, but I trust that he would write now as he did then: "The Academy was a constituted body which had received from the State and from society the mission to instruct and enlighten the country, to summon to itself the men of talent. It nevertheless shut its doors on Molière, who, meanwhile, accomplished his functions of a man of genius without the authorization of anybody." To the critic who had brutally asked him, "Who are you? Who made you a judge?" he answered by a short biography of himself, which is the most important part of this curious preface. He says boldly that he was born a natural child. "Fortunately," he adds, "my mother was a courageous woman, who worked in order to educate me; my father, a small clerk with a salary of 1,200 francs [namely, in the bureau of the Duc d'Orléans, afterwards Louis Philippe], had to support his mother." His father recognized him and gave him his name, though he did not marry his mother. This name did not serve as sufficient protection to the young Alexandre when he was put to school. La Fontaine has said of children: "Cet âge est sans pitié." In the school of Prosper Goubaux, who was himself the best of men, the boys insulted young Dumas "from morning till night; probably delighted to insult in me, since my mother unfortunately did not bear it, the name which my father was making famous. This torture lasted five years; I nearly died of it. I did not grow; I was perishing; I had no taste for study or for play; I was shut up in myself, and I was forming that habit of reflection and of observation which afterwards served and shielded me."

Young Dumas was placed in another school, where he was happy; he became strong and even robust, and at twenty he had no thought except for pleasure. He was not discouraged, he was rather encouraged, by his father in a life of dissipation. Dumas the father had a very exuberant nature; he was a hard worker, and was as fond of pleasure as of work. He saw no impropriety in treating his son as a merry companion, and was always the merrier of the two; "for," says the son, "I took no great delight in these easy pleasures. I observed more than I enjoyed in this turbulent existence. The unfortunate creatures . . . who sold pleasure to some, who gave it to others, who kept for themselves only shame, a fatal ignominy, a doubtful fortune, inclined me rather to cry than to laugh." At this period of his life, Dumas contracted debts to the amount of fifty thousand francs; and, as he happened, he says, to have been born honest, he was anxious to pay them. The drama of the "Dame aux Camélias," taken from his own novel, which he wrote at the age of twenty-one, was the beginning of his pecuniary independence. He decided to remain his own master and worked steadily. He had a plan. He wished to get rid of all conventions and to put reality on the stage in all its forms; he conceived the project of attacking the Beast, the corrupt woman, destroyer of the peace of mankind. He followed her in all the strata of society, and attacked her in every possible way. In a curious pamphlet, where he had shown the destructive power of the Beast, he ends thus:

"If you have tied your life to a creature unworthy of yourself; if, after having vainly tried to make of her what a wife ought to be, you could not save her by maternity, this terrestial redemption of her sex; if she is unwilling to hear you as a husband, as a father, as a friend, as a master; if, not content to abandon your children, she with the first comer calls other children into being, who will continue on earth her accursed race; . . . if the law which has assumed the right to tie has renounced the right of untying and is impotent, then declare yourself personally the judge and the executioner of this creature. She is not your wife, she is not a woman; she is not in the divine conception—she is purely animal, the monkey of the Land of Nod, the female of Cain; kill her!"

This "Kill her!" made some noise before the days of divorce; the "Femme de Claude" is "Kill her" put on the stage. In order to justify the execution, it was necessary to paint the wife of Claude in the blackest possible colors, and, as the piece was written after the war, when patriotism was wounded and very sensitive, *Césarine* is not only an unfaithful wife, she is unfaithful to France; she helps a reprobate to steal a valuable secret from *Claude*, an engineer who devotes his energies to the construction of new guns, new arms, new powders. *Claude* has discovered a way of throwing mélinite and such explosives an enormous distance; his secret is in a memoir which is shut up in a strong-box. *M. Cantagnac* is the agent of a society which we cannot call otherwise than a society of spies, which is working for a nation not named, but, in the mind of Dumas, the nation which had become master of France in 1870. This *Cantagnac* finds an accomplice in *Claude's* own wife, *Césarine*. She is a kind of Messalina. *Cantagnac* has made himself master of all the secrets of her life, before she married *Claude* and since she married him. *Césarine* had deserted *Claude*, who understands her and has lost all confidence in her.

When the curtain is drawn for the first act, we find her returned to the house of her husband. Why did she come back? She wants to win back his love. She has 200,000 francs which she offers him, as he is in debt and must sell his house; his scientific work has been the cause of his difficulties. In vain does she try to take possession of him; he lives now only for science and for his country; he loves *Césarine* no longer. He does not believe in her repentance. She has been a bad mother as she has been a bad wife; she is to him the "Beast," the "monkey of the Land of Nod." He shuts himself up in a sort of sublime contempt. She becomes exasperated. Whether she really wishes to become another woman or not, she thinks herself too much injured. The tempter is there in the person of the spy; he makes use of her fears, her anger. At last she promises to get for him the famous secret of the mélinite gun; but she can get possession of it only by means of *Claude's* pupil, the sentimental *Antonin*, who has always been secretly in love with her. He opens for her the strong-box, where he had deposited her 200,000 francs, which she needs now, as she tells him that *Claude* will not keep her, and that she must run away. When the safe is open, she seizes the memoir which she has promised to *Cantagnac*. *Claude* is in hiding; the trusty servant of *Césarine* has experienced remorse and has told him everything. He enters at the moment when *Césarine* is seizing the memoir, under the eyes of the distressed *Antonin;* he seizes a gun which is lying on a table, he fires, *Césarine* falls dead.

Sarah Bernhardt has lost none of her great powers; she is all herself in this extraordinary play. I am told by friends who saw Mlle. Desclée in the part of *Césarine*, in 1873, that Mlle. Desclée was the incarnate devil which Dumas intended to represent, that she seemed really identified with the "Beast," and produced more effect by her unconscious wickedness and heartlessness. Comparisons are odious. To me, Sarah Bernhardt appeared especially remarkable in the conversation which she has with the spy, when he tells her all he knows about her; and in the scene in which she tries to win back her husband, she displays those qualities of feline coquetry and of nervous sensibility which are among her most extraordinary characteristics.

## THE COPYRIGHT CONGRESS IN ANTWERP.

PARIS, September, 1894.

THE sixteenth annual session of the Association Littéraire et Artistique Internationale was held at Antwerp, August 18 to 25, under the direct patronage of King Leopold II. and the State of Belgium. His Majesty, who is a "membre protecteur" of the Association, appointed a commission which included the leading names in the literary, musical, and artistic world of Belgium, and from its numerous members was formed a Committee of Organization intrusted with the preparation of a programme of entertainment, while the Minister of Agriculture, Industry, and Public Works was charged with the execution of the royal decree. M. Jules de Borchgrave, a former member of the Chamber of Representatives and author of the present copyright law of Belgium, was named by the King to represent the Government in the conference, and the session of inauguration was opened by an address from the Minister of Justice. The Royal Commission and Committee of Entertainment —the latter acting also for the municipality— were under the active presidency of M. Victor Robyns, president of the Cercle Artistique, Littéraire et Scientifique of Antwerp, and the commodious club-house of that organization was put at the disposal of the congress; its great hall being used for the public meetings and banquets, one of its smaller rooms for the daily working sessions, while the comfortable reading-room and pleasant garden served for rest and conversation.

There was no lack of hospitality upon the part of the hosts of the Association, although the steady procession of international conferences from the opening of the Universal Exposition must have proved no small tax upon the ingenuity as well as the good nature of the Antwerpians. During the short term of the literary-property congress, the sessions of no less than three international gatherings overlapped each other; but however great the strain may have been, there was apparent no sign of exhaustion, and so extensive was the programme of social entertainment that members could scarcely follow their own devices, or accept the invitations offered to them as individuals, without seeming to slight their courteous entertainers. One whole day was set aside for an excursion on the river Scheldt, on board one of the royal steamers, but the full enjoyment of this trip was interfered with by a steady downpour of rain; nevertheless it gave opportunity for members to make closer possible acquaintanceship. The two hours' visit to the Musée Plantin Moretus, under the guidance of its courteous cu-

rator, M. Max Rooses, was both enjoyable and profitable; and the picture presented to us of the sixteenth-century Flemish street procession in its beautiful setting (the artistic imitation of Old Antwerp on the Exposition grounds) will not soon fade from memory.

Aside from the absence of last year's large Spanish contingent—which involved the appreciable loss of addresses in the sonorous and beautiful Castilian—the composition of the present congress was not noticeably different from that which met at Barcelona; certain changes in the attendance, however, being remarked. The genial presence and brightness of speech of that pessimistic writer Dr. Max Nordau were missed, while the hard-working representation from Paris was strengthened by the participation in the labor of the conference of M. Alcide Darras, and the delegate of the Société des Gens de Lettres, M. Théodore Cahu. The absence of M. Henri Morel, the director of the Bureau of the International Union for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Property, was much regretted, although the bureau was ably represented by its secretary, M. Léon Poinsard, the author of a recent book upon 'International Conventional Law' which is receiving flattering attention. Switzerland was represented officially also this year by an additional delegate. Pressure of literary work prevented the appearance of Dr. Gustav Diercks of Berlin, whose intimate knowledge of Spanish affairs made him a marked figure at Barcelona; but the German delegation was increased by the attendance of the poet Wolfgang Kirchbach of Dresden, who brought an invitation for the Association to meet next year in that city. Sig. Augusto Ferrari, who took so prominent a part in 1893, was unhappily absent; Italy being represented, however, by Prof. Castori of the University of Padua. From the Iberian peninsula a single belated delegate of the Society of Spanish Authors and Artists arrived on the third day. Three delegates were sent by various Austrian literary associations, and a member of the Athenæum of Bucharest spoke for distant Rumania. Of the Scandinavian countries only Sweden was represented, by B. W. Lundstedt of the Royal Library of Stockholm. Mr. F. Bætzmann of Norway, one of the perpetual presidents of the Association, whose influence has been marked in its general work and in the shaping of the copyright legislation of the countries of the North, was on the programme for a paper on copyright in Norway and Denmark, and his failure to appear was a genuine disappointment. The absence of any representation from neighboring Holland was noticeable, and was accentuated by the fact that that State is still outside of the Copyright Union. Neither the United States nor Great Britain had any official representation, nor did these countries furnish any delegates from societies interested in copyright. Letters of regret, however, were received from several English men of letters, and the novelist, Mr. J. E. Muddock, was present during one day; while two Americans, both active members of the Association Littéraire et Artistique Internationale, were in attendance—your correspondent during the entire conference, and Mr. Paul Oeker of California for a couple of days.

The number of Belgians who attended the congress was large, and their familiarity with French made it easy for them to take part in the debates, while an intimate knowledge of the subjects discussed gave weight to the active participation of men like MM. de Borchgrave; Peter Benoit, the musical composer; Victor Souchon; Frans Gittens, the Flemish dramatist; the artist Fritz Hanno; and the young lawyers, Charles Dumercy of Antwerp and Paul Wauwermans of Brussels—the latter the author of the most recent important work on the law of literary property in Belgium. Notwithstanding this considerable share in the proceedings borne by the Belgian representation, the members from Paris not only formed a majority of the debating body, but they possessed the great advantage of coming to the conference with a knowledge of what topics would be discussed, and a preliminary acquaintance with the contents of the reports upon which almost the entire proceedings of the congress are based. Printed copies of these reports are distributed to the members, but not sufficiently early to secure for them more than a cursory examination. Thus, of the eighteen documents laid before the present conference, ten only were received on Monday, the remaining eight coming to hand at intervals during the week of the session. Dr. Osterrieth of Heidelberg voiced a general desire when, deprecating this, he asked that hereafter the reports be distributed to members on a fixed date, long enough before the meeting of the conference to allow them to be studied and, if need be, translated for the benefit of non French delegates.

The public session of inauguration held on Saturday, August 18, from two to four o'clock, was fairly well attended, with a sprinkling of ladies in the audience. The Minister of Justice, on the part of the Belgian Government, and the president of the Cercle Artistique, on behalf of Antwerp, welcomed the congress. M. Pouillet, the president of the Association, responded, paying affectionate tribute to the memory of former associates from Belgium, and closing with an appeal for fraternity among nations. At the Hôtel de Ville, also, M. Pouillet drank a toast to universal peace, and the applause accorded in both instances, together with the acclamations which greeted the announcement that next year's congress would be held in Germany, may be taken as hopeful indications, notwithstanding the suspicions that France's recent change of attitude towards the sister nation may have a less admirable foundation than a sincere desire for the peace of Europe.

Following the address of the president, the delegated representatives and members of the Association were called upon in turn for remarks in response to the names of the countries to which they owed allegiance; and in conclusion, the honorary secretary, M. Lermina, the "cheville ouvrière" of each congress, read his admirable yearly review of copyright progress.

The working sessions were held daily at ten A. M. and two P. M. during the following week. Thursday, however, was set aside for recreation, and the last session took place on Saturday forenoon, the afternoon being occupied by the public meeting of closure, when the time was given up to addresses of acknowledgment and farewell, the name of each country being again responded to by some one called upon by the chairman. The working sessions were not public, only such outsiders being admitted as paid a subscription fee of ten francs—a limitation upon the attendance of questionable advisability. These sessions passed rapidly. The proceedings were never tedious, being constantly enlivened by sallies of humor, and occasionally becoming warm and exciting. A word of praise is due to the work of the presiding officers, and especially in acknowledgment of the courtesy and tact with which M. Pouillet kept the discussions to the subject in hand. The fact that many of the subjects treated had been considered at previous conferences gave speed to the procession of topics. Thus the right of translation was brought up in order, simply, to revote at Antwerp the resolutions on this subject passed at Barcelona in view of the approaching diplomatic conference on the Berne convention, it being held that the ten years during which an author enjoys the exclusive control of the translation of his work, according to article 5 of the Berne treaty, ought to be extended to twenty years. The resolution of the Neuchâtel congress (to the effect that the lines in article 1 of the protocol of the Berne convention whereby photographs are admitted to all the privileges of the convention in those countries of the union "where the character of artistic works is not refused to them," should be changed to read, "where photographs are protected by law") was also revoted, without debate, in order to revive this desired amendment of the treaty. It was thought well, also, to reaffirm the view of the Association that the rights of publication and of representation or execution of dramatic or musical works are distinct, and that the cession of the right to publish does not carry with it the privilege of representation or execution, nor does authorization to represent or perform give authority to otherwise publish a dramatic or musical work. The congress suggested certain textual changes in article 9 of the Berne convention in conformity with the above opinion; and, at the suggestion of M. Barthomieu, who represented various architectural societies of Paris, also voted that article 4 of the Berne treaty should be amended so as to include architectural works among works of art protected by the convention.

A report by M. Alcide Darras, entitled "Du mouvement législatif en matière de droits intellectuels dans les trois Amériques," was chiefly concerned with the United States and the progress it had made in establishing copyright relations with other nations, and contained a careful statement of copyright movements since the passage of the act of March 3, 1891. This report gave rise to some discussion regarding the application of the American-manufacture clause to music, and the opportune receipt that morning, by your correspondent, of the decision in the recent case of Novello & Co. vs. The Oliver Ditson Co. made it possible to assure the Congress that the sufficiently explicit text of the statute was sustained by our courts in declaring music exempt from compulsory remanufacture. M. Darras also presented an argument summed up in a resolution that "it is desirable in behalf of simplicity and clearness that the clause regarding 'the most favored nation' shall cease to figure in the treaties relating to the rights of authors and artists." This proposition gave rise to a short but warm debate, and the proposal to suppress the clause was rejected. A lively discussion was aroused, also, by M. Lucien Layus's proposal that contracts relating to literary property should contain an agreement to submit matters of dispute to a board of arbitration. The sense of the Congress was distinctly expressed in favor of leaving the interpretation of disputed contracts to the existing judicial tribunals.

Tuesday's session was opened by the presentation of a detailed report, drawn up by M. Georges Maillard, one of the vice-presidents of the Association, on the copyright bill which has recently passed the Austrian House of Lords. There was unanimity as to the justice of the criticisms made upon the proposed law, and it was voted to appoint a committee of

three members to prepare a memorial setting out the amendments considered desirable, to be presented to the International Copyright Bureau for transmission to the Austrian Parliament. The next report, also from the hand of M. Maillard, and carried over from last year, was entitled: "De la propriété des noms individuels et du droit d'interdiction en cette matière." The conclusion formulated by the reporter was that "the individual has no property in the assemblage of letters which compose his name, but he is entitled to oppose all injury which may be brought to his personality by the use of it." After a very general debate, occupying two whole sessions, an amended resolution was voted, namely, that "the writer may choose to his liking names for the characters which he creates, but that he becomes responsible for all injury brought thereby to the personality of others." The delicate subject of the liberty of portraiture also aroused considerable discussion. M. Albert Vaunois of Paris distributed a tract entitled "La Liberté du Portrait," which he defended with spirit, declaring that "the portrait which contained nothing insulting was in nothing reprehensible." The conservative view was presented by M. Maillard, whose conclusion that "every person can prohibit the reproduction of his portrait when such reproduction constitutes any injury to his personality" was voted, it being added that, in the case of the authorized execution of a portrait, the artist or photographer holds the artistic-property right, but can use it only with the consent of the subject.

The very interesting topic of the establishment of a universal index of published works was again presented in a monograph by Jules Lermina "from the double point of view of literary property and international statistics." In brief, the idea is to utilize the Copyright Bureau at Berne as the bibliographical recording office of the literary production of the world, or of that portion of it which is comprised within the Copyright Union—which union will ultimately include, it is hoped, all civilized countries. Not much discussion was elicited, but there was general agreement as to the utility of the scheme provided it could take a practical form. A statement by M. Poinsard went to show that the plan would be seconded by the Berne Bureau, although it was as yet an open question as to what might be possible of accomplishment. A series of resolutions were passed in order to bring the matter before the approaching diplomatic conference, and the Barcelona resolution was revoted asking the insertion in the Berne convention of an obligation upon the part of the States within the Copyright Union to prepare an alphabetical index of all the works which have been published or represented in their respective countries since the promulgation of that treaty. In the afternoon session of Wednesday an address was delivered by M. Wauwermans on the subject of gratuitous representation or execution, the speaker contending against the prevalent disposition to consider the benevolent object of a performance sufficient excuse for ignoring the rights of the author or composer. It was the opinion of the Congress that "no performance or execution of a dramatic or musical work, gratuitous or otherwise, for whatsoever purpose, should take place without the express consent of the author, and that the latter was free to give or withhold such consent, or to impose such conditions as he saw fit."

In the absence of M. Halpérine-Kaminsky, who went to Russia last winter on a mission in relation to the rights of authors, M. Darras submitted his "Rapport sur l'État de la Propriété Intellectuelle en Russie." This interesting document contains the full text of a proposed new copyright statute elaborated by the eminent St. Petersburg jurist, M. de Spassovitch. After a vote of thanks to the author of the report, it was agreed to appoint three members of the Association to make a report on the proposed law to be submitted to the Berne Copyright Bureau to be laid before the proper authorities in Russia. An important but difficult question was next taken up: the drafting of a law to govern the relations between authors and publishers in case of the non existence of a contract between them. In two previous congresses proposed texts had been voted upon, and the greater part of the two sessions of Friday, August 24, was spent in a lively debate upon a third draft which was printed together with a brief explanatory report. A feeling prevailed that the form proposed was based too much upon the law and custom in force in France, with too little regard to the practices prevailing in other countries, and that the necessity of formulating only general principles instead of detailed stipulations had been lost sight of. It was voted to remand the report for the evolution of a more simple text of greater international application, and to inscribe its discussion as one of the orders of the day of the next conference.

Saturday morning a careful report by M. Layus, the delegate of the Cercle de la Librairie of Paris, on the legal deposit of copyrighted articles was considered. After some discussion the sense of the congress was expressed in a series of resolutions embodying the principle of compulsory deposit of copies of books and engravings claiming copyright. M. Georges Harmand submitted, without argument, an interesting report on the rights involved in literary collaboration, and asked that this subject be made an order of the day at the next congress, which was agreed to. As usual, there was a failure to reach some of the topics upon the programme, and their consideration must be postponed until the next congress, which is to meet at Dresden in September, 1895.

T. S.

# Correspondence.

## ARCHÆOLOGY OF INDIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to call attention to an opportunity of which I fear American libraries and students are not availing themselves as they ought. The Government of India has some 3,500 photographic negatives of ancient monuments, temples, and sculptures in India. They illustrate the history of Indian architecture—Buddhist, Brahmanical, Jaina, Dravidian, Chalukyan, Indo-Aryan, Saracenic—and are, in the opinion of experts, of great importance to students of the history, art, and mythology of India.

The Secretary of State for India in Council has granted to Mr. Griggs of London permission to publish the pictures. The publisher proposes to issue a selection of at least 450 plates, imperial quarto, in portfolio form, and in the best style of photo-collotype. The average size of the actual pictures will be 8 inches by 10 inches. The portfolios are to appear at intervals of twelve months, and each is to contain at least 150 plates, and to cost £10. The publication is to be completed in three such parts. Since the list is larger than was at first expected, Mr. Griggs intends to augment considerably the numbers of plates in each portfolio, but without any change in the price.

The undertaking has started with one very great advantage: the subjects and negatives are to be selected by the most eminent living authority in these matters, Dr. James Burgess, C. I. E., late Director-General of the Archæological Survey of India, and he will provide for each picture a brief letter-press description.

The subscription list is full (about sixty), the issue very limited, and Mr. Griggs has many plates put down and is ready to begin to print. On the other hand, few of the subscribers are American, and many are foreign public libraries and museums and Government offices, so that there will be little chance of getting a copy afterwards from second-hand dealers.

I have just secured by cable a delay of a few days in the beginning of the printing, and call upon all such public institutions or private persons as may desire to subscribe and have not yet done so, to send me their names and addresses with an agreement to take the work, and to do so on or before the 25th of October.

Charles R. Lanman.

Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass., October 15, 1894.

# Notes.

An inexpensive series of "Economic Classics" is to be published by Macmillan during the coming winter, under the editorship of W. J. Ashley, professor of economic history in Harvard University. It will embrace three divisions into (1) select chapters from the great so-called classical economists — Adam Smith, Malthus, Ricardo (this with an eye to ready consultation by students); (2) reprints of older English works—Mun, Child, Petty; (3) translations of important foreign treatises—Roscher, Von Thüenen, Hermann. The volumes will be uniform except in thickness, and not numbered, and will be issued at 75 cents. The only notes will be biographical and bibliographical.

'Lorenzo Lotto: An Essay in Constructive Art Criticism,' by Bernhard Berenson, is announced by G. P. Putnam's Sons. Lotto's precursor, Alvise Vivarini, will necessarily come in for consideration, and his works along with Lotto's (few of which have ever been published before, and some have been expressly photographed for this book) will furnish about thirty full-page heliotype illustrations.

Longmans, Green & Co.'s fall announcements include the first volume of a 'History of the Commonwealth and the Protectorate,' by Samuel R. Gardiner; the third of Canon Liddon's Life of Dr. Pusey; 'English History in Shakspere's Plays,' by Beverley E. Warner; 'Memorials of St. James's Palace,' in two volumes, by the Rev. Edgar Sheppard; 'The History of Marriage, Jewish and Christian, in relation to Divorce and certain Forbidden Degrees,' by the Rev. Herbert M. Luckock; 'From Edinburgh to the Antarctic,' being an artist's notes and sketches during the Dundee Antarctic Expedition of 1892–93, by W. G. Burn-Murdoch; 'Studies of Nature on the Coast of Arran,' by George Milner; 'Butterflies and Moths (British),' by W. Furneaux; 'The Making of the Body,' a reading-book for children on anatomy and physiology, by Mrs. S. A. Barnett; 'A Primer of Evolution,' a popular abridgment by Edward Clodd of his 'Story of Creation'; 'A

History of Painting,' by Prof. John C. Van Dyke; 'Wandering Words,' various papers, reprinted, by Sir Edwin Arnold; 'The Evolution of Whist,' by William Pole; and 'The Yellow Fairy-Book,' by Andrew Lang.

'The World Beautiful,' soon to be published by Roberts Bros., is made up of recent articles in the Boston *Budget* and *Le Beau Monde*, by Miss Lilian Whiting.

A. C. McClurg & Co. have nearly ready 'Polar Gleams,' an account by Helen Peel of a voyage on the yacht *Blencathra* to the mouth of the Yenisei River.

George H. Richmond & Co., New York, have in press a series of satirical essays and humorous sketches relating to modern fiction under the title of 'The Literary Shop,' from the pen of James L. Ford.

A brief Danish and Dano-Norwegian grammar, by P. Groth, A.M., is in the press of D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

We must now bid good-by to the dainty "Ariel Shakspere" of Messrs. Putnam, since its tale of forty volumes is at last completed by the fifth and sixth sections. After each play has had a volume to itself, the thirty-eighth is devoted to the Sonnets, the thirty-ninth to the Poems, and the fortieth to a Glossary that will not strain the pocket carrying any other one of the series. This contains a list of Shakspere's works, the short annals of his life, an index of characters, the first lines of the songs, and finally the glossary proper. Altogether, the publishers and the public may congratulate themselves on this edition, which can be purchased in bulk or per volume in several styles.

It was inevitable that Masson's 'Napoléon et les Femmes' should be translated, and a version by J. M. Howell, under the title 'Napoleon, Lover and Husband,' is before us (New York: The Merriam Co). The rendering is fluent and idiomatic, and the slip on page 201 about Napoleon's invitation being "paramount to an order" is the only one that has attracted our eye. The book is well printed in open type, and tastefully bound.

Dumas's 'Three Musketeers,' in the two-volume edition just issued by T. Y. Crowell & Co., is a compact text interspersed with photographic "process" reductions of Maurice Leloir's illustrations to the French. In point of time it forestalls the *édition de luxe* which, by arrangement, Messrs. Appleton are shortly to bring out, printing from the original blocks of the designer, and which will bear his name. Those who prize this feature, therefore, must wait for their complete satisfaction. Mr. Frank T. Merrill's full-page illustrations to Messrs. Crowell's 'Count of Monte Cristo,' again in two volumes, uniform with the foregoing, are of a different order, but at their best are quite up to the average of the work of the day, in which there cannot be said to be a progressive improvement.

Besides the 'Three Musketeers,' as just explained, D. Appleton & Co. are preparing a handsome edition of 'Paul and Virginia,' likewise illustrated by Leloir; 'Popular Astronomy,' by Camille Flammarion; three novels, 'Round the Red Lamp,' by A. Conan Doyle, 'The Lilac Sunbonnet,' by S. R. Crockett, and 'The God in the Car,' by Anthony Hope; and a 'Treatise on American Football,' by A. A. Stagg and H. L. Williams.

In view of the coming celebration of the centennial of Onondaga County, N. Y., a volume of 'Early Landmarks of Syracuse' has been prepared by Gurney S. Strong, a local journalist (Syracuse: *Times* Publishing Co.). It is an unpretentious series of historical and antiquarian sketches regarding persons, places, and events, fortified with numerous portraits, pictures of buildings, etc. Four at least of the chapters have a national interest, namely, that on Ephraim Webster, if the contention be sound that this character suggested Leather-Stocking to the novelist Cooper; that on the Hiawatha legend, an Onondaga property; that on Dr. Cyrus Thomas, son of the once famous founder of a school of vegetable medicine; and that on the Jerry rescue, which was among the events precursive of the civil war. Perhaps we should add chapters iv. and v. on early money and the three earliest banks.

C. W. Irwin, Toronto, sends us the thirteenth issue of his 'Hand-book to the Canada Tariff.' It contains the important amendments enacted in the same year as our own latest schedule, though with much greater expedition and less painful legislative throes; a résumé of Ontario commercial law, with all the latest rulings; exchange tables, etc. The reciprocal lowering of the customs bars between the two countries should make such a publication of new importance in this country as well as across the border.

The literary feature of Part ii. of *Bibliographica* (London: Kegan Paul; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons) is the double article on "Two English Bookmen," in which Mr. H. B. Wheatley, Pepys's latest editor, describes that worthy's library at Magdalene College, Cambridge, while Mr. Austin Dobson in a similar manner vindicates Fielding against Thackeray's imputation of "twopenny learning." But in the latter case the library has not been religiously preserved, and its contents are known only from a priced auctioneer's catalogue. The Pepys collection is cited for unique copies of several of the publications of Henry Pepwell, one of Mr. Gordon Duff's "Booksellers at the Sign of the Trinity in St. Paul's Churchyard," 1518–1539, this article being the second in the series; and there is a brief editorial notice of two contemporary references to the English book-trade. For specialists Mr. E. Maunde Thompson provides a learned discourse on "English Illuminated MSS., A. D. 700–1066," and Mr. R. C. Christie another on "The Chronology of the Early Aldines," a valuable rectification, reached by establishing the fact that Aldus used the common and not the Venetian style in fixing the date of his issues. We mention last what may well attract most readers first of all, viz., Mr. Falconer Madan's review, with numerous illustrations, of "Early Representations of the Printing press." This possesses a curious historical interest, and is, like Mr. Christie's paper, worth the whole price of this sumptuous publication, of which we have but hinted at the pictorial embellishment.

The Randolphs of Virginia, the Pooles, and above all the Saltonstalls of Massachusetts, in their several connections, are exhibited in Mr. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings in England" in the October number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*. The wills are unusually readable as conveying glimpses of the worldly goods, manners, and individual characters of the testators. "I do require my executor," says Dame Susan Saltonstall, "not to use any pomp in giving blacks, or such like," meaning thereby mourning display, and not the sort of gifts that Andrew Hamilton "of the City of Philadelphia Esq," made in 1741, viz: "my negroes Isaac the gardner, Nanny and her daughter Ciss, and the negro boy Jeremiah," etc. Robert Parker's "will and mind" is to "have the organs in Wallsall church played on every Sunday . . . and every holiday likewise . . . forever by a skilful man that can play well. And I hope," he adds, "it will please both God and man, woman and child, for seeing they were prepared by our forefathers, it is a great pity that they should not be played on." John Parker, having entangled himself with a discursive "forasmuch as," pulls himself up with "—— but, to come to my purpose, my will and desire is," etc.

The October number of the *Virginia Magazine of History and Biography* approaches in its contents nearest the present day in its comments on Keith's chart of the ancestry of ex-President Harrison. The writer, having occasion to speak of the prompt remarrying of widowers and widows in colonial times, so that "it was not at all an unusual thing for a later husband to submit for probate the will of his predecessor," instances a woman who had six husbands, and adds: "It should be borne in mind, however, that the position of a woman alone in charge of an estate in a newly settled country, surrounded by half-savage negroes or convict servants, was a disagreeable and trying one, and doubtless accounts a good deal for the marriages." Much space is given up to the Flournoy family, and their wills throw light on the size of slave holdings in Virginia. Samuel Flournoy's estate in 1782 yielded thirty-eight negroes; Elizabeth Harris Flournoy bequeathed eleven, after "commending her soul to God and her body to the earth, 'in hopes of a joyful resurrection.'" Thomas Flournoy, 1794, emancipated his (number not given), "forasmuch as it appears to me that by nature all mankind has an equal claim to Freedom."

There is not much to specify in the October number of the *William and Mary Quarterly Historical Papers*. The series of inventories of colonial libraries is continued, and deserves to be studied in comparison with what New England has to show for the same time. Mr. John Fiske's United States History is warmly commended as one that every Southern man can read without outrage to his feelings. This quarterly is now beautifully printed.

The contents of the October Bulletin of the Boston Public Library are of interest chiefly to the students of English and American history. There are lists of the titles of a collection of English tracts, political and religious, published between the years 1625 and 1660, and of the papers relating to America contained in the great Spanish "Coleccion de documentos ineditos." The chronological index of historical fiction of Germany and the Austro-Hungarian Empire is a bibliography rather than a catalogue, as many of the works noted are not to be found in the library. The illustrations are several interesting views of Tremont Street, Boston, from pictures taken in 1800 down to 1869, and a facsimile of a Proclamation of Charles I., intended to restrain emigration to this country, issued in 1637.

One of the scientific results of the William Astor Chanler expedition in East Africa was a very careful mapping of the country northeast of Mt. Kenia by his companion, Lieut. von Höhnel. This accomplished cartographer has given in the last number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* an account of the observations upon which his map was constructed, together with a sketch-map showing the principal constructional elements. Gen. Krahmer contributes to the same number extracts from letters giving the latest news from the exploring expedition in Central Asia of the Imperial Russian Geographical Society, and Prof. Engler describes the more important

facts obtained from recent botanical researches in tropical East Africa.

The committee, of which the Speaker of the House of Commons is president, having in charge the raising of a Jowett Memorial Fund, reports that it has received from about 850 subscribers the sum of £10,100, of which £600 will be devoted to a bust for deposit in the Bodleian, and a monument in the chapel where Dr. Jowett used to preach. The remainder will be used to carry out the other and chief aim of the fund, viz., "to maintain, strengthen, and extend the educational work of Balliol College." Pledges are now called in, and may (along with new subscriptions) be sent to the Hon. Secretary, Philip Lyttelton Gell, Langley Lodge, Oxford.

Concurrent with the publication of the last incomplete volume of the late Dr. Karl Hirsche's demonstration of the authorship of the 'Imitatio Christi' comes the news that the long-talked-of monument to the memory of Thomas à Kempis is to be erected at once. It will be in the form of a tomb, in the lower part of which will repose the relics of the saintly writer, while above there will be a representation in relief of Thomas kneeling before Christ bearing his cross. The figures are to be of life size. The monument will be set up at Zwolle, in the church of St. Michael.

The Scotch Universities Act of 1889 authorized the Universities Commissioners "to alter . . . and regulate" the foundations, endowments, etc., which had at that time taken effect for more than twenty-five years, or which, although of later foundation, were for any reason inoperative. Under this authority the commissioners have issued a general order providing for the admission of women students to a share in the money prizes distributed by their alma mater. The new order (No. 20, ordinance No. 58) comes into force January 1, 1895, "or as soon thereafter as it shall be approved by her Majesty in council," and authorizes the University Court of each Scotch university, "after consultation with the Senatus Academicus," to open to competition without restriction as to sex, or for competition among women students only, any open bursaries, scholarships, or fellowships established prior to 1864. With canny caution, however, it is also ordered that, "save as hereinbefore provided, women shall not be allowed to compete for or hold any bursary, scholarship, or fellowship [of later date than 1864], which is not expressly open to competition by women by the terms of the deed of foundation." The action of the several Scotch universities under this new permission for an equitable division of a portion of educational spoils will be instructive to members of other educational institutions.

The high standard for admission set by Johns Hopkins Medical School is practically justified by the new freshman (2d) class of forty, of whom eight are women. Two of the women students are graduates of Vassar College; the others come, one each, from Bryn Mawr, Mount Holyoke, Smith, Wellesley, and from the coeducational institutions of Swarthmore College and the University of Wisconsin.

—Any light upon the cabal of 1777-'78 against Washington is welcome, and a new bit of evidence has been found. In November, 1777, Washington was near Philadelphia, anxiously awaiting the return of the troops he had sent to Gates, and hoping to have sufficient strength on their arrival to attack the enemy. He had knowledge of a scheme in the northern army to replace him with Gates, and he knew that Conway was one of the principals. What he did not then suspect was the existence of a strong party in Congress hostile to him, and herein lies the interest of a report submitted to Congress by the Board of War on November 21. Under the resolutions of Congress the army had been newly recruited at the end of each year, and Washington was eager to have a force enlisted for three years, or for the war —a new establishment, in short. This idea he urged on Congress in his letters; in his mind, it was the mainspring of any future operations, and unless it was adopted he predicted only ruin to the cause. With a feeling that something in their policy was wrong, Congress had instituted a new Board of War, electing Mifflin a member of it. This new board was to be an executive body, and would, as such, possess important powers. The old board met on the 21st, and Mifflin was present as an adviser. The members present were: Richard Henry Lee, William Duer, Joseph Jones, William Williams, Francis Dana, and Harvie. As members of Congress they were perfectly aware of the high importance, nay, the necessity, in the opinion of Washington, of a new establishment of the army, yet they agreed to the following report and submitted it to Congress:

"The Board further beg leave to represent that General Mifflin has expressed a warm solicitude that Major-General Gates should be appointed President of this Board, from a conviction that his Military skill would suggest Reformations in the different Departments of the Army essential to good Discipline, Order & Œconomy, and that his Character and Popularity in the Army would facilitate the execution of such Reformations when adopted by Congress: a Task in the opinion of this Committee more arduous and important than the formation of any new Establishment, however wise it may be in Theory!"

—This recommendation was considered by Congress, and action upon it "postponed"; but six days later the following resolution was passed:

"Resolved, That Mr. President inform Maj.-Gen. Gates of his being appointed president of the new constituted board of war, expressing the high sense Congress entertain of the general's abilities and peculiar fitness to discharge the duties of that important office, upon the right execution of which the success of the American cause does eminently depend; that he inform Gen. Gates, that it is the intention of Congress to continue his rank as Major-General in the army, and that he officiate at the board, or in the field, as occasion may require; and that the general be requested to repair to Congress with all convenient despatch, to enter on the duties of his new appointment."

It is useless to speculate on what would have happened had the original resolution been adopted, but it is difficult to see how Washington could have retained the command after such a pronounced declaration of "want of confidence." The total failure of the Canadian expedition in the following spring is ample evidence of the want of executive capacity in Gates, Mifflin, and Conway—the persons chiefly responsible for that wretched attempt, out of which only Lafayette came with honor. The report is of high interest, as it shows how far Congress would go towards snubbing its generals, and it also points out, what has not been positively known before, that Mifflin was responsible for the appointment of Gates as president of the new Board of War—a position near Congress and admirably calculated to meet the wishes of a "political general." Six months later the tide had completely turned, and Washington was ordered to make an inquiry into the conduct of Mifflin as quartermaster-general, and into the "extraordinary deficiencies" in his department and "consequent distresses of the army."

—On September 14, Prof. Dr. Sophus Bugge of the University of Christiania, Norway, read a paper before the Academy of Sciences of that city on the subject of a Runic inscription possessing a special interest for Americanists, inasmuch as, according to Prof. Bugge's interpretation, it refers to one of the early Vineland voyages. The inscription, of which there is now only a copy left, taken by a Major Klüwer, of the Norwegian army, in 1823, was engraved on a stone found at Hönen, in the district of Ringerike, Norway. The stone was raised in memory of a youthful party (or parties) who died in consequence of hardships suffered while returning from an expedition to Vineland. The inscription, in English translation, reads as follows: "Tired and wet and needing warmth and food, they [men and women] came from Vineland to the ice fields in the uninhabited region. Ill luck may bend fate so that one dies in his early youth." The beginning of the inscription has been lost; it must have contained the names of the party. Prof. Bugge believes that the inscription dates from about 1010-1020, and the character of the runes, at any rate, shows it to be no younger than the first half of the eleventh century. He thinks it possible that this inscription may refer to one of the expeditions known from the Icelandic sagas. In 1003, according to the Saga of Eric the Red, Thorfinn Karlsefni went to Vineland with an expedition consisting of three ships and 140 men (including some women). In 1006 the expedition, while in Vineland, was divided into two parties. One of these parties, which returned on a ship belonging to the Icelander Bjarni Grimolfsson, had to leave it on its becoming worm-eaten while in the waters of Greenland. But as the boat could take only half the party, they had to draw lots as to who should go and who stay with the ship. Those who went away in the boat were saved, those who remained on board perished. It may be that the stone was raised in memory of one or more of the members of this party. The inscription is interesting as being the only written monument from Norway proper referring to the Vineland voyages, and the earliest European monument in which mention is made of America.

—Any one who has followed for a dozen years the course of the constantly swelling flood of French periodicals must often have wondered not only at the number and variety of the reviews conducted by the younger, or youngest, writers, but also at their very existence. How in the world do these scores of immature publications, for the most part of no intrinsic value, manage to subsist? The public that cares to follow their crazy dance of literary and artistic innovation cannot be very large. Who pays the printer? Some light is thrown on this question by an article of M. Paul Souday's in the *Temps* of September 24. He names sixty or more of the "jeunes revues," present or of the recent past. Of these a very few have paid their way: the *Revue Indépendante* was of this number during a portion of its relatively long existence, as the *Plume* is now and has been for the last two or three years. Now and then a Mæcenas is found who, for love of art, supports a magazine and even pays its contributors. This is understood to be the enviable situation of the *Revue Blanche*. Two or three publishers have undertaken such a work, but they have found, after a brief space, that the business lacked

commercial interest. Tresse & Stock published four numbers of the *Symboliste;* Savine, the *Revue Indépendante*, which died on his hands; Kolb and his successor, the *Entretiens Politiques et Littéraires*, which came to a like end. The commoner plan to-day is one which was begun by the *Mercure de France*, and has been followed by the *Ermitage*, the *Idée Libre*, and others. A coöperative association of young writers is formed, each one of whom contributes five, ten, or fifteen francs a month to pay expenses. These last vary much in amount. The *Mercure de France*, a monthly of ninety-six pages, nicely printed on good paper, costs about a thousand francs for each number; others not more than fifty. The *Revue Fantaisiste* was the earliest of the "jeunes revues." It was founded in 1863 by M. Catulle Mendès, then in his adolescence. It ran to nineteen numbers, when it was suppressed in consequence of a prosecution by the Imperial Government, which ended in a fine and the imprisonment of its editor. Among his collaborators were Baudelaire, Banville, A. Daudet, Monselet, Champfleury, Léon Cladel, and other writers of note. But the review was a losing venture in a commercial way, and M. Mendès *père* sank a considerable sum in it. A long series of similar ventures followed it, leading down to those of to-day. Among them one at least may be noted, the *Revue Contemporaine*. Édouard Rod was its editor, and copies of it are even now worth buying when one can pick them up at the bookstalls on the quays.

—Among recent preliminary and preparatory researches on the Vulgate, there is nothing better than the masterly production of the successor of Renan in the Collège de France, Samuel Berger, in his 'Histoire de la Vulgate pendant les premiers siècles du Moyen Âge' (Paris, 1893). Berger, although until recently only a plain Lutheran pastor in Paris, has since 1879 published a series of investigations on phases of the Vulgate problem in the shape of books, pamphlets, articles, etc. When, then, at the instigation of L. Delisle, the Institute of France several years ago offered to crown the best discussion of "the efforts made in the Carolingian ages to settle and revise the Latin text of the Bible," Berger naturally stood the best chance of success. His work is in reality a monument of close and painstaking research. Nothing seems to have escaped him. He has ransacked forty-nine libraries of France, England, Ireland, Denmark, Germany, Italy, Spain, and Switzerland, tracing the ups and downs of the 250 manuscripts (of which he personally examined 241) and of their relations to each other. We will instance only a Codex of Fleury, of 32 pages, which contains, according to Berger, fragments of five different texts. The scope and contents of the book can be gleaned from its seven general divisions, namely, the Original Text, the Old Francean Text, the St. Gallen and North Italian Text, the Bible of Theodulfus; Alcuin and the Bible of Tours; the Great Carolingian Schools, the Addenda. There are very few publications even in our day of specialism that contain so much new material for study as does this volume of Berger's.

## BRAHMS AND BRAHMSISM.

*Masters of German Music.* By J. A. Fuller Maitland. Scribners.

ALTHOUGH the composers of Germany got more than ten thousand of their effusions into type last year, the fact is undeniable that quality lagged far behind quantity, and that Germany has to-day very few composers whose works will long survive them. Most music-lovers have a vague impression that this is so, but few can realize thoroughly the present dearth of originality in that country until they take up Mr. Maitland's volume, which is concerned only with living composers, as the title or sub-title ought, perhaps, to indicate. He finds only four worthy of separate chapters —Brahms, Bruch, Goldmark, and Rheinberger. Three others—Kirchner, Reinecke, and Bargiel —are grouped together in another chapter headed "The Older Generation." Then there are "The Little Masters," as the author calls them—Herzogenberg, H. Hofmann, Bruckner, Draeseke, followed by the "Great 'Virtuosi,'" Joachim and Clara Schumann, and finally the younger men, Nicodé, Richard Strauss, Sommer, and Kistler, one or two of whom may possibly attain the highest rank—a hope which Mr. Maitland indicates by the heading "New Paths," though he cautiously adds an interrogation-point.

This is rather a meagre showing for what has been ever since the days of Bach the leading musical nation. Yet Mr. Maitland seeks consolation in the belief that in this list there is one man not only of high rank but of the highest. He does not hesitate to class Brahms with Bach, Mozart, and Beethoven. He tells us that he is not only the greatest of living German composers, but "the most original thinker among living composers," and concludes his article with the bold assertion that he holds this great position "in the estimation of the most thoughtful musicians of his own and other countries." On a preceding page, however, he more modestly admits that "even among cultivated musicians there are those who still hesitate to give him the foremost place among living composers," and then proceeds to intimate that this is because he is not understood by his contemporaries. He makes no attempt, however, to explain why Schumann, who gave Brahms such a warm send-off in his "New Paths," did not apparently preserve his interest in him; why Wagner said that "if Brahms could write symphonies like Beethoven, he too would be a great composer"; why Liszt, who always had the keenest appreciation for true genius, both in its germs and in its full development, gave Brahms the cold shoulder; why Rubinstein thinks him "small potatoes"; why Tchaikovsky wrote that Brahms was "dry, cold, misty, vague, and repellent," and had no sense of beauty or melody; and why Paderewski said that for him Brahms's piano-forte music practically did not exist. Surely there are some "thoughtful minds" among these; and many others might be named.

No one denies that Brahms is a composer of noble, serious aims and amazing skill in the manipulation of musical themes; no one denies that he has written songs, symphonies, and especially chamber music, which deserve an occasional hearing. But we have excellent reason for thinking that a great many "thoughtful musicians" will feel tempted to write exclamation-points along the margin of Mr. Maitland's book after not a few of his remarks on Brahms, such as this, that there is in his works a "passionate ardor that is characteristic of southern countries"; that in his songs "is reached the highest point of development of the German Lied"; that he is a "great originator"; and—most astounding of all—that it was probably simply his difficulty in getting a good libretto, and his predilection for classical form, which prevented him from being a great opera composer too, since there is "so much of vigorous dramatic imagination, such buoyant humor, such romantic feeling for what is called 'atmosphere,' such command of 'local color' . . . scattered up and down his vocal compositions." We have always believed that dramatic imagination, passionate ardor, humor, romantic feeling, and the realism of local color were the qualities most conspicuously absent in Brahms; but that is, perhaps, because we are not among the "thoughtful musicians," but merely followed our sense impressions.

The fact that Mr. Maitland, although he has seventeen composers on his list, devotes exactly one-third of his pages to Brahms, may be taken as an illustration of the present Brahms fad in London, which seems to us one of the most extraordinary and amusing phenomena in the history of music. If there is one composer whom Brahms resembles in a general way (though without his creative genius), it is Schumann. Now how did Londoners treat Schumann, not only during his whole lifetime but even subsequently? Mr. Maitland himself tells us, in speaking of his wife's pianistic career:

> "It was just before her husband's tragic death, in 1856, that she made her first appearance in London, where the most prominent musical critics vied with each other in indecent abuse of the compositions which she was most anxious to make popular. It cannot have been much consolation to her to read the somewhat half-hearted praises of her own performances, side by side with scurrilous witticisms on Schumann's music," etc.

Now, in the natural course of events, Brahms would have shared the fate of Schumann, as he has done in Paris, for instance. Why has he been more fortunate? We have long suspected that the reason is very much like that which gave Hegel such an amazing vogue in Germany at one time—the obscurity and pedantic heaviness of his diction, which made people think that that of which they could not understand a word or a bar must be very deep and profound indeed. Certainly, nothing could be more diametrically opposed than Brahms to national English taste as revealed in the almost exclusive worship for many decades of Handel, Mendelssohn, and—Sir Arthur Sullivan. Yet to-day one might almost say that Brahms is the fashion in London, although he does not even condescend to answer the letters in which he is invited by an English university to come and be made a doctor of music; and although he bluntly tells an English festival committee who want a new choral work from him, that if his old ones aren't good enough for them, they cannot have any.

In Germany the situation in regard to Brahms is somewhat different. There the Brahms cult, so far as it exists (and there is far less of it than in London), is due very largely to the desperate efforts of the conservatives to find a worthy champion to pit against that terrible ogre Wagner, who threatens to swallow the whole musical globe. It is this which has given to Brahmsism (as to Mascagnitis, which has a similar source) much of its inflated aspect. The best-known German critic, Dr. Hanslick, has led this movement, having for two or three decades lavished on Brahms the adulation which he withheld from all other modern masters, especially Wagner and Liszt. It is to be hoped that Brahms has benefited by this state of affairs, for it is not well that composers of talent should be ignored or allowed to starve; but that the next generation will assign to him a much higher place than we assign to Hummel or Hiller is a matter which we very seriously

doubt. Mr. Maitland, indeed, argues that the existence of a strong opposition to Brahms "implies strength in the thing opposed"; but if he will reflect a moment, he will see that this opposition is only to the *overrating* of Brahms, not to his music as such, which, regarded from its own level, is often quite meritorious. The opposition to composers of which musical history is so full has always been to daring innovators, and Brahms is the exact opposite of an innovator, being in most respects a reactionary. He has not only retained the old forms, but has even refused to learn the idiomatic orchestral language taught by Wagner and Berlioz, and the idiomatic language of the piano as revealed for all time by Chopin, Liszt, and Rubinstein. That Beethoven wrote less idiomatically than these composers is pardonable, for he came before them and had other fields to cultivate; but that Brahms should ignore almost all progress since Beethoven is absurd, and will prove suicidal.

Many more things in this vein might be added, did we not fear to give the impression that Mr. Maitland's book is not a good one. On the contrary, apart from his overrating of Brahms, it is admirable, both in substance and in style, and it is also very useful as being the only manual of living German composers accessible to English readers. After all, if we were asked who was the greatest living orchestral composer in Germany, we should name Brahms, although we would not place him so high above some others as Mr. Maitland does. Above all, we should not have felt justified in omitting from such a volume the name of Johann Strauss. True, he has written no symphonies and only one opera on a large scale; but is not real genius displayed in an operetta or a waltz infinitely more worthy of honor than the voluminous effusions and *Kapellmeister-Musik* of such men as Reinecke, Herzogenberg, and Max Bruch? As an original melodist Strauss is a true successor of Schubert; his harmonies are more modern than those of Brahms, whom he also infinitely surpasses as a master of orchestration. His operettas, too, are by far the best works of their genre ever written. To omit such a man from a book on contemporary German masters is unpardonable. True, he is an Austrian, but Mr. Maitland's list includes the Hungarian Joachim and the Hungarian Jew Goldmark, whose life is most interestingly told, with amusing anecdotes. Indeed, the volume is entertaining throughout; it is written with great care and genuine literary art, and its usefulness is increased by a list of works following the biography of each musician and the analysis of his works. For an English book on a German subject it is remarkably free from misprints, the only one we have noticed being on page 19, where "Wanderjahre" appears as "Wanderjähre."

Lest this disquisition on the present shortcomings of Germany should leave a wrong impression on the reader's mind, it may as well be added that most other countries are in a similar predicament. France, with Saint-Saëns, Thomas, Massenet, Bruneau, and a few others, can hardly be said to make even as good a showing as Germany. England has a vigorous young school which deserves attention, but has not as yet raised the highest expectations. It is now the fashion to speak of the "young Italians" as bidding fair to found a new school and redeem their country's reputation; but it is hard to repress a smile when such claims are put forth for what an English critic has aptly called the "bill-poster" style of operas of Mascagni and Leoncavallo, with their inevitable adultery and murder set to music of a similar moral character. Italy is, in fact, infinitely worse off than Germany, as it has only Verdi now, who is practically past his years of usefulness, and Boïto, who has been dormant for ten years or more. The real musical geniuses of our day are to be sought outside of the three great musical countries. Norway has Grieg, Bohemia has Dvorák, Russia Rubinstein and the lately deceased Tchaikovsky—four composers each of whom is greater and more original than Brahms, if ideas are more valuable than the scholarly elaboration of commonplace themes in traditional forms.

## "THE COLLEGE OF THE SCARLET GOWN."

*St. Andrews.* By Andrew Lang. Longmans, Green & Co. 1893.

*Rectorial Addresses: University of St. Andrews, 1863-1893.* Edited, with an Introduction, by Professor Knight. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 1894.

In an out-of-the-way corner of the east coast of Scotland there is a little college with a couple of hundred students and a dozen or so instructors. The "city" in which it is placed is hardly more than a village, which serves as a home for a few score fishermen, as a market for the neighboring farmers, and as an economical residence for retired officers and Indian civilians. During these later centuries no great teacher has arisen in it, no great "movement" come out of it; its society has been "provincial," and, like that of most small academic groups, enlivened by personal feuds. It has seemed to offer a man so scanty an opportunity of impressing his thought upon his time that ambitious professors have commonly regarded it as but a stepping-stone to the wider activities of Glasgow or Edinburgh. And yet this little city touches the imaginations of cultivated men with a peculiar tenderness. There are places, like people, that are made to be loved; and St. Andrews is one of them.

The secret of its charm can be learned only by one who has seen it beneath sunshine and blue sky. During the long winter months, indeed, it needs a sturdy constitution to enjoy it, when, as Mr. Andrew Lang tells us,

> "the thin and biting spray
> Drives down the melancholy street";

though even in December there are days, as another St. Andrews poet affirms, when, but for the bare hilltops, one might think it June. But in its proper framework of blue sky and sea the place has a peculiar loveliness. The sturdy tower of St. Salvator's College is still erect; the irregular vista of the main street is still guarded by its West Port. But the ruins of cathedral and castle on the edge of the waters draw us with a spell even more powerful. St. Andrews was the ecclesiastical centre of mediæval Scotland. Here, with the martyrdom of Wishart and the murder of Cardinal Beaton, modern Scotland had its beginning. And so to-day, as we stroll about the green sward, the idealized spirit of the Middle Ages, freed from all its grossnesses, seems to rise before us—to ask us the question, so difficult to answer, wherein the world is better now than it was then.

Of this St. Andrews Mr. Lang might appear the predestined historian. A St. Andrews student himself, the author of those verses on

> "the college of the scarlet gown
> And shining sands beside the sea
> And stretch of links beyond the sand,"

which have gone so far as to earn for him the name of poet, the essayist who had already written so agreeably on bygone Oxford, he was apparently the man marked out for the task. And yet, we must frankly say, Mr. Lang would have better consulted the interests of his reputation by refusing to write it, could he only write it *so*. We do not expect research from Mr. Andrew Lang, save upon Homer and Primitive Man—large enough subjects, in all conscience; but one has a right to expect something like consecutive and sustained narrative. Moreover, though one may smile at Mr. Lang's amusing quips, like the well-deserved thrusts at Mr. Froude and his "manly regret" at the absence of "lash or gallows to correct the overzeal of the ecclesiastics," one cannot help feeling that they are sometimes forced and out of place. We are not sticklers for the dignity of history; and yet we would urge that the remark, apropos of Andrew Melville, that "Aristotle is still regarded as a superior person," and the description of the belief of a lad hanged last century as "the negative opinions of the Rev. Robert Elsmere," are more suited to the columns of the *Daily News* or *Longmans' Magazine* than to a comely octavo which is, presumably, intended to be read ten years hence. "Lightness of touch" is a good thing in its way, but, as some writers understand it, it is occasionally rather poor taste.

We would not be supposed to imply that the book is not worth reading. Mr. Lang would find it hard to write anything that was not worth reading; and the mischief is that he and his publishers know this and presume upon it. Mr. Lang says some remarkably good things, which are well worth the attention of those who are interested in the Scottish life and character. "Scotland," he remarks in one place, "received the Reformation without the Renaissance." The covetousness of the nobles in "starving the Reformation" "necessarily produced," he tells us in another place, "a peasant clergy with democratic instincts, and hence came the division between the gentry and the Presbyterian Kirk in Scotland." And Mr. Lang takes a view of the national struggle against incorporation with England which is refreshingly novel and outspoken:

> "In both junctures [in the 13th and in the 16th century] the English policy would have saved infinite bloodshed and suffering; would have secured to Scotland peace, wealth, opportunities of learning; and, in the case of Henry VIII., would have mitigated the havoc of the Scottish Reformation and obtained a due provision for the Reformed Church. The national resistance under Wallace, Bruce, and Lamberton changed Scotland from a comparatively prosperous country, with inklings of civilization, into a starved, fierce, and half-barbarous realm . . . . The Reformation, again, conducted as it was, bequeathed to Scotland a disastrous legacy, the turmoil of the Solemn League and Covenant, innumerable blood-feuds, horrors uncounted, a stinted Kirk, beggarly universities, and a fierce, dissatisfied temper of which we may never see the last."

Since 1863 the students here, as at other Scottish universities, have had the right of electing every three years a Lord Rector. This high officer, although *ex-officio* member of the governing body, usually takes little part in the administration. The chief practical result of the custom is that the students have an opportunity of hearing an address every two or three years from a distinguished personage, who, speaking as an older man who has seen the world to those whose battles are most of them still to come, often uses a directness and simplicity of speech unusual on other occasions. Prof. Knight has done well to put together the thirteen of these addresses

given at St. Andrews during the last thirty years, in a volume the profits whereof are to accrue to the students' benefit. The most important of them have, indeed, already been published in the works of their authors—John Stuart Mill, Mr. Froude, and Dean Stanley. But the others are difficult to get; and they all gain in interest by juxtaposition.

At a time like the present, when an amount of thought altogether unexampled is being given in America to questions of university organization, such a volume as this is sure of a ready attention. Here will be found almost every view that can be held by cultivated men of to-day as to the true function of a university, the subjects properly taught there, and the fitting methods of study—views widely differing from one another, and all expressed with eloquence and force. And the addresses are perhaps of fresher interest where they touch upon topics lying a little on one side of the main theme. The last three—to dwell only upon these—are each charming in their particular manner. Thus, in 1887, Mr. A. J. Balfour, in amusing and intentional contrast to Mr. Frederic Harrison's recent solemn utterances on the duty of reading only the best books, discoursed on the delights of desultory reading, and said many entertaining and true things by the way. "The individual whose excellent natural gifts have been so overloaded with huge masses of undigested and indigestible learning that they have no chance of healthy development," he boldly pronounces "mythical," and remarks that "true dulness is seldom acquired; it is a natural grace." In '91 that courteous and wily diplomat, the Marquess of Dufferin, told the young men how to succeed in life as he had done—though he did not put it quite in that way—by learning foreign languages, by skill in public speaking, by attention to manner. He tells a story of some political interest:

"Some years ago I had to write a report on the best way of reorganizing the Government of Egypt. . . . My one thought . . . was to make it a clear, practical, and business-like statement of the actual condition of the country and of the measures it would be desirable to introduce. Unfortunately, however, in one of the earlier paragraphs, I was tempted, in the fervor of composition, as there rose to my mind's eye a regenerated Egypt, . . . to make some allusion to Memnon and the rising sun. It was a perfectly spontaneous image, which sprang unbidden from the innocence of my heart; but . . . those who . . . were opposed to the policy of the Government I was representing at once seized upon this unfortunate simile, and denounced what I had written, which in all its other parts was as bald as well could be, as a literary exercitation; and no doubt they were perfectly justified in considering that neither Memnon nor the rising sun had any business in a blue book."

Finally, in '93, another marquess, this time of Bute, who combines a liberal Roman Catholicism with vast mediæval and especially liturgical learning, suitably concludes the series by a lecture on the history of St. Andrews. The excursuses must have astonished his auditors, wherein he discoursed on the probable authenticity of the relics of the eponymous saint, on the unclerical character of the Culdees, and on the virtues of Peter de Luna, on whom most of the historians of his own faith heap all the blame for the Great Schism. Here is lore easily handled and lit up by fancy and insight, leading to some conclusions which are in curious contrast to those of Mr. Andrew Lang. We rub our eyes when we hear of "the mild and conservative manner in which the Reformation was effected in Scotland as compared with England." But, for this and other statements equally surprising, and all with a good show of evidence, the reader must be referred to the address itself.

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*Le Declin et la Chute de Napoléon.* Par le Maréchal Vicomte Wolseley. 8vo, pp. 220. Paris: Paul Ollendorf.

THE appearance of Lord Wolseley's papers on the campaigns of Napoleon from 1812 to 1815 in a French edition which the publishers inform us, anticipates the English edition of the book by several months, is certainly an interesting fact in the history of book-making in this generation. The English general is very far from enrolling himself among the worshippers of the great man who profess the Napoleon cult. Even his French editor is obliged to say that, from the French standpoint, his criticisms are often unjust and harsh, sometimes even astonishing, and that some of them must be quite inexplicable for the French reader. It is not, then, because Lord Wolseley has suited his tone to a French audience that the reading public in France enjoys the first perusal, in book form, of these papers; we rather conclude that the revival of intense interest in the Napoleonic epoch creates an eager demand in France for whatever the leading soldier of England may say concerning the great Emperor.

Yet English readers will not find the point of view taken which they are most accustomed to, and especially will they be discontented with the subordinate rank assigned to Wellington. The series consists of five papers, of which the first three are very general sketches of the campaigns of Moscow, of Leipzig, and of 1814. The outline is clear, but the treatment is necessarily so brief that there is little room for more than the accepted facts. The chapters on Ligny and Waterloo, dealing each with a single action, give more room for discussion of mooted points and for the presentation of the author's own opinions. The comments of a distinguished soldier upon the operations of great commanders are always instructive. They give us the opportunity to see how his own experience leads him to interpret affairs in critical conjunctures, and how his military instinct seizes the probable meaning of tangled situations on the field of battle.

To account for manifest faults in Napoleon's military conduct, Lord Wolseley emphasizes, more than any other writer we know, the story of some mysterious disease, under the influence of which his genius paled and his energy withered at Borodino, at Dresden, and again at Waterloo. The difficulty with this hypothesis is that such a constantly working cause must have left many traces and been well known in all its symptoms to everybody about the Emperor. It is not commonly pretended that it can be connected with the ailments of which he died at St. Helena. The symptoms are said to have been an irresistible somnolence and a temporary inattention to what are now seen to be important matters. That his growing obesity should affect his physical activity and vigor was no evidence of peculiar ill-health. He had all his life been noted for the irregularity of his sleep, boasting of his power to make up for the usual night's rest by brief naps caught as circumstances would permit. Marmont, in his memoirs, alludes to this, and makes some telling comments on the way in which this eccentricity of Napoleon interfered with the usefulness as well as the comfort of his subordinates who had more normal habits. Gouvion St.-Cyr points to the fact that Napoleon's extraordinary endurance of his rough journey from Wilna to Paris after the Moscow retreat, and the strain of his almost superhuman exertions in creating the new army with which he took the field in 1813, demonstrate a condition of physical health of the highest order. Méneval, the last published of the Napoleonic memoirs writers, who was the Emperor's private secretary, explicitly denies the existence of the supposed disease and its effects.

The argument too often takes the form of an assumption that the Emperor was wholly free from all the human weaknesses of resolution, periods of doubt and of depression, lassitude from overtasked energies, lapses of memory, mistakes of forecast, omissions of complete system, and the other limitations which flesh is heir to. It would, of course, follow that some portentous and mysterious cause must be invoked to explain how he descended to the level of other men. It would be more scientific, however, to make his mental and physical constitution one which will harmonize the undisputed facts in his personal history. He was a very great man, not by being free from human limitations, but by having somewhat less of them than the men with whom he was in competition. It suited his purpose to play the *divus Augustus*, and to affect omniscience and omnipotence; but this, though it imposed upon crowds in his time, was really a wholly finite and human vanity that was weak in itself, and no small element among the failings that finally worked his ruin. He got tired, as other men did, though he pretended that he did not. He got sleepy also, though his courtiers might not dare to tell him of it or to wake him up, even at Ligny. He even got dismayed occasionally when the towering edifice of his ambition began to crack and sway in the earthquake, and he, like other mortals, was made to feel how puny he was when caught in the really dominant forces of nature and of human progress.

A sound historical method must discard the mysterious and the mythical, and build up the portrait of a great historical character by taking honest account of all that he did, the weak things as well as the strong. On the side of morality and of regard for human rights, Lord Wolseley's criticisms are most pertinent. Indeed, in many ways, with the exception which has been noted, his sketches, though brief, are fresh, vivid, and strong, full of instructive suggestion even to those who are familiar with the more complete history of the time and the man.

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*Familiar Letters of Henry David Thoreau.* Edited, with an Introduction and Notes, by F. B. Sanborn. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1894.

MR. SANBORN'S edition of Thoreau's letters includes apparently all the letters in Emerson's edition of 1865, and how much added matter he has given us may be reckoned from the pages of his book. It has 464 to 207 of Emerson's, the amount of matter to a page being about the same in each. Mr. Sanborn's additional matter is of two kinds—letters of Thoreau's not hitherto published in a book, and a good deal of editorial matter, rich in personal recollection and the fruit of much research, amounting to a brief biography. It gives the order and connection of Thoreau's life, accounts for his presence in this or that place and his flittings to and fro, gives some account of his friends as one after another of them appears upon the scene, explains various circumstances and obscure allusions, and, taken altogether, is a very real and palatable addition

to the feast spread by Emerson and the fresh dishes from Thoreau's larder which have been added thereunto.

Moreover, Mr. Sanborn has made good his purpose in undertaking a new collection, namely, to show Thoreau in a less aloof and stoical aspect than Emerson deliberately singled out. Thoreau's sister Sophia objected to the one-sidedness of Emerson's choice, and cherished a hope for something different and more complete which Mr. Sanborn has now piously fulfilled. The letters which do most to correct the stoicism and the didacticism of the earlier collection are those written by Thoreau to Emerson when he was in Europe, or elsewhere away from home, and Thoreau was living under his roof and looking out for things about the house and garden. His friendship with Mrs. Emerson was very close and beautiful, and his relation to the children altogether genial and pleasant. In general, Thoreau's misanthropic bark was much worse than his bite. He warned his friend Blake to beware of his exaggeration. It was the form his humor oftenest took. He was nothing if not hyperbolical. The superlative which Emerson deprecated was his daily food. And the favorite subject of his exaggeration was his indifference to mankind, his contempt for his contemporaries. Practically he liked many people, and some very much; enjoyed appreciation; and, like the Scriptural Wisdom, "his delight was with the sons of men." He is never happier in these letters than in describing one person and another. He had the keenest eye for character and its expression in the human face. He knew well enough that of all nature human nature is the best. "What is Nature," he once wrote, "if there be not an eventful human life passing within her? Many joys and many sorrows are the lights and shades in which she shows most beautiful."

It is interesting to see how much of a chameleon he was in his correspondence. Like the Hebrew Yahweh, "to the froward he shows himself froward." He knows well enough that neither Emerson nor Greeley would tolerate such pyrotechnics as he fires off in his letters to his friend Blake of Worcester. To read some of these is very much like filling one's belly with the east wind, but they contain passages of rare and tremulous beauty, some of his funniest exaggerations, and unquestionably some forms of expression concerning the deep things of God that cannot seem otherwise than irreverent and blasphemous to the conventional and traditional mind. The irreverence and blasphemy, however, are entirely in the form. As he pours out his hyperboles to Mr. Blake, we can almost imagine him laughing in his sleeve and wondering how much of it his friend will stand before he sees the joke. Then he repents, and warns him of his habit of exaggeration. In his first letters to Emerson, he appears to be trying hard to be more Emersonian than he, but it is not long before he discovers a more excellent way, and when writing him is at his simplest and his best. Occasionally his criticism of Emerson is more frank than just. He is very hard upon the "Ode to Beauty," which some, especially if they have heard George William Curtis repeat it, have thought one of Emerson's most musical poems.

Alcott did not take Thoreau in his snare so successfully as he did Emerson. Thoreau cannot regard him seriously. He is particularly amused with his building of Emerson's summer-house. But it would not be fair to either Alcott or Thoreau to regard the things here printed as a complete expression of Thoreau's feeling about his neighbor. In 'Walden' we have quite another note. Thoreau and Alcott went together to see Whitman in Brooklyn, and Thoreau found his nature large but coarse. "He said that I misapprehended him. I am not quite sure that I do." The understatement here is in refreshing contrast with the habitual exaggeration. Yet Whitman impressed him sufficiently to set him to writing Whitmanese in his next letter. Evidently this Simeon Stylites was not at all insensitive to the personal influences of his environment. His enthusiasm for John Brown was the most powerful to which he ever yielded himself up. One of Brown's companions at Harper's Ferry came half-crazed to Concord, and it fell to Thoreau to get him safely out of the way. It was hard work, but it was finally accomplished.

There are sentences here that justify the lofty praise which Lowell mingled with his general depreciation of Thoreau's character and work. The old question of his originality and the relation of his talent to Emerson's genius once more recurs. The right answer probably is, that though the influence of Emerson upon his youthful mind was very great, he could hardly have helped being much what he ultimately was if he had never known any such influence. There is much in his books that we could spare because we have it in Emerson in a much saner, sweeter form. But there is much more, especially of the concrete of nature, that is all his own, and there are sentences of such large and striking spiritual significance that beside the best of Emerson's they suffer no injurious reflection on their quality. As for the man Thoreau, he was a good deal of an actor, and his acting was very generally mistaken for his proper self. But, behind the mask, the Yankee townsman—the frugalities of his French extraction in his blood and bones—relished his joke, and looked out with shrewd complacency on those who fancied that he knew not what he was about.

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*On the Development and Transmission of Power from Central Stations;* being the Howard Lectures delivered at the Society of Arts in 1893 by William Cawthorne Unwin, F.R.S. Longmans, Green & Co.

THIS treatise, which is an extension of a course of lectures delivered in the early part of 1893, covers matter which is of special interest at the present time, while the name of Prof. Unwin stamps it at once as a valuable work. In a series of fifteen chapters, it treats of the different methods at present in use for the transmission of power from central stations to the places of application, considering the matter specially with reference to relative efficiency and cost. The general idea is to show the practical advantages and disadvantages of long transmission, so as to enable the student to determine the relative economy of central stations and separate power plants.

The work contains much valuable and very suggestive information, but it is all in technical form, and would be of little interest to the layman unless he had special occasion to study the subject technically. Although the author has apparently made every effort to bring his work down to the present time, it is an illustration of the rapid progress now being made in these matters that the book is already behind the times. Of the 308 pages of text, 82 are devoted to the transmission of power by compressed air, and a very interesting account is given of the compressed-air system which has been so extensively carried out in Paris; but only 34 pages are devoted to the transmission of power by electricity, although this is the method of transmission which is now being studied most ardently, especially in America, and which seems to promise the most useful results. The simple reason for this is that the first cost of the transmitting system is less than that of any other method; and in places where inaccessible waterfalls exist, it offers a chance of utilizing a power whose only real cost is the expense of transmission.

No field of investigation now promises greater practical results than that concerned with the transmission of power, and the book is well worth the careful study of every one interested in this important subject.

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*A Corner of Cathay:* Studies from Life among the Chinese. By Adele M. Fielde. New York: Macmillan & Co.

THE author of 'Pagoda Shadows,' 'Chinese Nights' Entertainments,' etc, furnishes another of her accurate and conscientious studies of Chinese life. Her new volume, in addition to an engaging exterior, shows many proofs of literary art as well as of abundant material and a wise selection. Her sixteen chapters deal almost entirely with social life; even in her treatment of Chinese philosophy and religion she lays emphasis upon the practical side as shown in everyday affairs, illustrating these by many a pat quotation and lively anecdote. She has engaged the services of artists in the celebrated school of Go Leng at Swatow, whose spirited sketches are finely reproduced in color. Throughout the volume one gets the impression that the author has lived very near her subject. Her word-pictures of babies, their mothers and grandmothers, and her insight into ways of thinking and doing are those of one who can see what is permanently good among this unlovely but admirable people. Not content with telling us of household economy, family life, children's games and school work, she takes us into the regions of dream and fancy, and shows the funny kind of people and things there resident. The chapter on the Chinese theory of evolution is cleverly written. The author clearly shows that, whatever may be the political future of China, the moral philosophy of Confucius will ever be largely represented in the science of comparative ethics.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Drama in Dutch. Macmillan. $1.
Bax, E. B. German Society at the Close of the Middle Ages. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Bible Stories for Young People. Harpers. $1.
Bishop, W. H. Writing to Rosina. Century Co. $1.
Bissell, Dr. Mary T. A Manual of Hygiene. Baker & Taylor Co.
Blaikie, Rev. W. G. Heroes of Israel. T. Nelson & Sons. $1.50.
Bliss, Philemon. A Treatise upon the Law of Pleading under the Codes of Civil Procedure. Third edition, revised. St. Paul: West Publishing Co.
Bolles, Frank. From Blomidon to Smoky, and Other Papers. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Boswell's Life of Johnson. 2 vols. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $3.
Boyer, E. R. A Laboratory Manual in Elementary Biology. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 80 cents.
Boyesen, Prof. H. H. Norseland Tales. Scribners. $1.25.
Bristol, Rev. Frank M. Providential Epochs. Hunt & Eaton.
Buckingham and Chandos, Duchess of. Glimpses of Four Continents. London: Murray; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $3.50.
Champernowne, Henry. The Boss: An Essay upon the Art of Governing American Cities. G. H. Richmond & Co.
Chapman, Elizabeth R. A Little Child's Wreath. London: Mathews & Lane; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Clark, Rev. F. E., and Mrs. H. E. Our Journey around the World. Hartford, Conn.: A. D. Worthington & Co.
Coolidge, Susan. Not Quite Eighteen. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Conkling, A. R. City Government in the United States. Appletons.
Cox, Palmer. The Brownies Around the World. Century Co. $1.50.
Davis, Prof. J. D. Genesis and Semitic Tradition. Scribners. $1.50.

Dawson Sir J. W. The Meeting-Place of Geology and History. F. H. Revell Co. $1.25.
Dodge, Mrs. Mary Mapes. The Land of Pluck. Century Co. $1.50.
Drieu, P. Historiettes adapted from the English. Maynard, Merrill & Co.
Dumas, A. The Count of Monte Cristo. 2 vols. T. Y. Crowell & Co.
Dumas, Alexandre. The Three Musketeers. 2 vols. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $3.
Earle, M. L. Euripides's Alcestis. Macmillan. 90 cents.
Edwards, G. W. P'tit Matinic', and Other Monotones. Century Co. $1.25.
Eells, Myron. Father Eells: A Biography of Rev. Cushing Eells. Boston: Congregational Publication Society.
Erman, Adolph. Life in Ancient Egypt. Illustrated. Macmillan. $6.
Fawcett, Edgar. A Mild Barbarian. Appletons. 50 cents.
Fenn, G. M. Nurse Elisia. Cassell. 50 cents.
Fitnam, J. C. Trial Procedure. St. Paul: West Publishing Co.
Fletcher, J. S. The Wonderful City. T. Nelson & Sons. 60 cents.
Ford, P. L. The Writings of Thomas Jefferson. Vol. IV. 1784–1787. Putnams.
Frost, W. H. The Wagner Story Book. Scribners. $1.50.
Frye, J. A. Fables of Field and Staff. Boston: The Colonial Co.
Gilder, R. W. Five Books of Song. Century Co. $1.50.
Gillespie, Rev. C. G. K. The Sanitary Code of the Pentateuch. F. H. Revell Co. $1.
Goodrich, Prof. F. P. Freytag's Doktor Luther. Boston: Ginn & Co. 70 cents.
Gordon-Stables, Dr. As We Sweep through the Deep. T. Nelson & Sons. 80 cents.
Graham, A. J. Handbook of Standard Phonography. New ed. Andrew J. Graham & Co.
Gunn, John. Sons of the Vikings. T. Nelson & Sons. $1.
Hartland, E. S. The Legend of Perseus. [The Grimm Library.] London: David Nutt.
Hayes, M. H. Among Men and Horses. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $4.
Henty, G. A. When London Burned. Scribners. $1.50.
Henty, G. A. Wulf the Saxon. Scribners. $1.50.
Herford, Oliver. Artful Anticks. Century Co. $1.
Herrick, Mrs. Christine T. The Chafing-Dish Supper. Scribners. 75 cents.
Hodges, Rev. George. The Heresy of Cain. Whittaker. $1.
Howe, E. G. Systematic Science Teaching. Appletons.
Hyde, T. W. Following the Greek Cross; or, Memoirs of the Sixth Army Corps. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Jamison, Mrs. C. V. Toinette's Philip. Century Co. $1.50.
Jarvis, Stinson. The Ascent of Life. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Jenks, Tudor. Imaginotions: Truthless Tales. Century Co. $1.50.
Jessop, G. H. Gerald Ffrench's Friends. Longmans, Green & Co. 50 cents.
Kimber, Diana C. Text-Book of Anatomy and Physiology for Nurses. Macmillan. $2.50.
Knox, T. W. The Boy Travellers in the Levant. Illustrated. Harpers. $3.
Lamb, Eva H. The Dutchman's Daughter. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. $1.25.
Lavisse, Prof. Ernest, and Rambaud, Prof. Alfred. Histoire Générale du IVe Siècle à nos jours. Tome IV. Renaissance et Réforme: Les Nouveaux Mondes. 1492—1559. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Larra, M. J. de. Partir á Tiempo. W. R. Jenkins. 35 cents.
Le Baron, Grace. Little Miss Faith. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 75 cents.
Lee, Fitzhugh. General Lee. [Great Commanders.] Appletons.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XL. Mylar—Nichols. Macmillan. $3.75.
Lefèvre, Prof. André. Race and Language. [International Scientific Series.] Appletons.
Macgeorge, G. W. Ways and Works in India. London: Archibald Constable & Co.
Maclagan, T. T. The Royal English Dictionary and Word Treasury. T. Nelson & Sons. $1.
Major, A. F. Sagas and Songs of the Norsemen. London: David Nutt.
Morris, H. S. Madonna, and Other Poems. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Moulton, Mrs. L. M. Arthur O'Shaughnessy. Chicago: Stone & Kimball. $1.25.
Plympton, A. G. Penelope Prig, and Other Stories. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Plympton, A. G. Rags and Velvet Gowns. Boston: Roberts Bros. 50 cents.
Rinder, Edith W. Poems and Lyrics of Nature. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. 75 cents.
Robinson, R. E. Danvis Folks. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Sand, George. Fadette. The Devil's Pool. François the Waif. 3 vols. G. H. Richmond Co.
Scott, Prof. Charlotte A. An Introductory Account of Certain Modern Ideas and Methods in Plane Analytical Geometry. Macmillan. $2 50.
Scott, Sir W. Ivanhoe. T. Nelson & Sons. $1.25.
Scott, Sir Walter. Complete Poetical Works. 2 vols. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $3.
Scudder, H. E. Childhood in Literature and Art, with Some Observations on Literature for Children. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Seidl, H. Weinachten bei Leberecht Hühnchen. Maynard, Merrill & Co.
Seth, Prof. James. A Study of Ethical Principles. London: William Blackwood & Sons; New York: Scribners. $2.50.
Sewall, May W. The World's Congress of Representative Women. 2 vols. Rand, McNally & Co.
Shaler, Prof. N. S. The United States of America: A Study of the American Commonwealth, its Natural Resources, People, Industries, Manufactures, Commerce, and its Work in Literature, Science, Education, and Self-Government. 2 vols. Appletons.
Shutter, Rev. M. D. Justice and Mercy: Sermons. Boston: Universalist Publishing House.
Slocum, Capt. Joshua. Voyage of the *Liberdade*. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Smith, A. H. Chinese Characteristics. 2d ed. F. H. Revell Co. $2.
Smith, Prof. C. A. Repetition and Parallelism in English Verse. University Publishing Co.
Socialism: The Fabian Essays. Boston: C. E. Brown & Co. 75 cents.
Stockton, F. R. Pomona's Travels. Scribners. $2.
Thiers, L. A. History of the Consulate and the Empire of France under Napoleon. London: Chatto & Windus; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 12 vols. $36.
Thiers, L. A. The History of the French Revolution. Vols. I., II. London: Richard Bentley & Son; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $6.
Valera, Juan. El Pájaro Verde. W. R. Jenkins. 35 cents.
Webster, Leigh. Another Girl's Experience. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Winter, W. Life and Art of Joseph Jefferson. Macmillan. $2.25.


# ENGLISH READINGS.

*Used in the Harvard Forensic Course.*

## SPECIMENS OF EXPOSITION.

*Development of a Brief—The Steam Engine*, by Geo. C. V. Holmes—*Physical Basis of Life*, by Huxley—*Charles II.*, by J. R. Green—*Interpretation of the Constitution*, by Bryce—*The Græco-Italian Stock*, Mommsen—*American Love of Freedom*, by Burke—*Division of Labor*, by Adam Smith—*Spinoza*, by Royce—*Peace*' by J. F D. Maurice—*The Unemployed* (from the *Nation*)—*Albery's "Apple Blossoms,"* by Wm. Archer—*Wordsworth*, by Matthew Arnold. Edited by Hammond Lamont of Harvard. Boards, 54c.

## SPECIMENS OF ARGUMENTATION.

*Directions for Drawing a Brief—Specimen Brief—Chatham on Removing Troops from Boston—Mansfield in Evans Case—Junius to the Printer of the Public Advertiser—Huxley on Evolution, I.—Erskine's Defence of Gordon—Beecher's Liverpool Speech.* Edited by G. P. Baker of Harvard. Boards, 54c.

*UNIFORM WITH THE ABOVE:*

**MARLOWE;** Edward II. With selections from *Tamburlaine* and the *Poems*. Edited by Prof. McLaughlin of Yale. Teachers' price—cloth, *75c.; boards, *44c.

**COLERIDGE:** Prose Selections. Edited by Prof. Beers of Yale. Boards, *34c.

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 25, 1894.

## The Week.

Ex-Speaker Reed's significant failure in his campaign speeches to endorse the demand of the McKinleyites for a restoration of the high tariff had prepared the public for his interview at Ann Arbor last week, in which he declared that "it would not necessarily follow that the return of the Republican party to power in 1896 would mean the reënactment of the McKinley law," and that he did not think the party would make that an issue, as conditions had changed materially in the last few years, and there was room for many modifications. Mr. Reed even went a step further, and admitted that the rates in the McKinley law were marked up higher than he expected when he appointed the committee on ways and means. In taking this position the ex-Speaker only anticipates the mass of his party. It is clear enough to any careful observer that there never was any popular demand for so extreme a measure as McKinley framed, and that no party could now do a more unpopular thing than to pledge itself to a restoration of a policy which the people rejected so emphatically in 1890 and again in 1892. McKinley, of course, tries desperately hard to hold on to the old issue, for it is all he has to offer as a candidate for the next Presidential nomination of his party; but he will find himself more and more lonesome.

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McKinley, Harrison, and Reed evade all discussion of the income tax in their speeches, and even the Republicans of Massachusetts dodged the question in their platform. But Senator Hoar has at last broken the silence of Republican orators on this issue, and in a recent speech summed up forcibly the objections to the policy. He declared his conviction that it was never intended by the framers of the Constitution that resort should be had to such a tax except in cases of dire extremity, as during the civil war, and pronounced it impossible to adjust from Washington a single policy applicable to the different conditions in different parts of the Union. He pointed out one serious objection to the present measure, in the fact that it puts an equal burden upon the man without property whose income is derived from his labor, and the man who possesses property which has come to him by inheritance; and he cited other weaknesses and defects in the law. But the most significant thing about this deliverance is the fact that it is the first to come from any Republican of prominence. As a rule, the Republican politicians evidently doubt whether it is good policy to say a word against the income tax.

Mr. Wheeler's letter accepting the nomination of the Democratic reform organization for Governor knocks the wind out of Mr. Hill as a party man by showing that his course in the Senate has been uniformly and bitterly hostile to the Administration personally, and to the policy adopted by the Democratic platform as carried out by the party in Congress. There is no other man in the party against whom such an indictment would lie. Hill is the only man in the whole country who would have the audacity to go to Congress, work and vote against his party through the whole session, and then come home and claim to be *par excellence* the representative and jewel of the party. Mr. Wheeler properly places these facts at the beginning of his letter, and shows among other things that the tariff bill was at one time saved only by the casting vote of the Vice-President. It is perhaps well for the party that Hill was absent at that crisis, because if present he would have voted with the enemies of the measure. It should be borne in mind that Hill was absolutely the sole Democratic member of the Senate who voted against the bill on its final passage, and yet he has the cheek to go through the State now telling the farmers that they will find their condition much bettered when the new tariff gets fairly in operation. This is probably true, but the question recurs, "*Why, then, did you vote against it?*"

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It is an act of doubtful friendliness to Senator Hill to publish the account which the *Sun* did on Monday of his efforts to get Maynard to decline to run for the Court of Appeals last year. According to this account, Hill wrote to Maynard a letter sixteen pages long, on the eve of last year's Democratic State convention, advising him to step aside in the interest of the party because of the drift of public sentiment against him. Maynard declined to follow this advice. Now, it seems, Mr. Hill is trying to wash his hands of all responsibility for Maynard's candidacy, and has asked Maynard to make public his letter of last year. It is not, however, Maynard's candidacy that is weighing upon Hill in this campaign, but Hill's complicity with Maynard in the theft of election returns. Judge Cullen put the two together in his decision of February 10, 1892, when he said that the legal returns were not before the Board of State Canvassers, "because, by the action of the secretary of state [Frank Rice], the Governor [Hill], and the counsel of the comptroller [Maynard], the returns had been taken from the several public offices where they had been properly received."

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Hill's effort to rid himself of the burden of Maynard's reputation by showing that he was opposed to his candidacy, emphasizes the justness of Mr. Fairchild's recent remark about Hill's "cruel meanness" in casting aside "like shotten herring" the men whom he has used and ruined while he himself "strides on clad in the white garment of Democracy." It is a matter susceptible of proof that Hill was the author and instigator of all that Maynard did which brought about his ruin. Hill set up the conspiracy to "doctor" the returns in several close senatorial districts; Hill removed two county clerks who refused to be parties to the frauds of the canvassing boards; Hill covered with personal abuse a Supreme Court judge who gave decisions against his fraudulent devices, and assigned a judge from New York city to sit in Special Session in the offending judge's district in the hope of having those decisions reversed, whereas they were sustained; Hill was at the meeting of State officials in Albany which decided upon the plan by which the illegal return from Dutchess County should be canvassed by the Board of State Canvassers, and when Maynard sat at the meeting of the board and kept silence when the returns which he and Hill and Rice had stolen were asked for, he was acting under Hill's orders. That, after all this, Maynard should decline to act the part of "shotten herring" is not strange.

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Mr. Straus's withdrawal as the Tammany candidate for mayor was officially announced on Thursday. The most singular feature in the case is that the Tammany men have seemed to be perfectly indifferent as to whether he retired or not. This would be true with regard to any other candidate. They evidently have not much hope of electing anybody to the mayoralty. The question of candidates is therefore a question of no importance to them. But their attitude in this matter is one of great importance to the public, and as such we call the attention of the voters to it once more. They feel, as every voter ought to feel, that the mayoralty is not in this contest the important office; the governorship is. The Tammany men know, and are no longer concealing it, that a reform mayor will have no terrors for them unless he is backed up by a reform Governor. It is for this reason that they and Hill have no objection whatever to the Grace device of putting his name on their Strong ticket. If they can elect Hill Governor, no change of any moment to them can take place in this city. They would retain nearly all their offices throughout Mr. Strong's term. They are solidly intrenched against him or any reform mayor everywhere, except in the Excise Department. This makes the putting of Hill on the reform ticket a little ridiculous; but let that pass. Our object now is to impress on the voters

the fact that Tammany is right in regarding the governorship as the critical point in the fight, and that any one who votes for Hill in any sort of combination practically votes against Strong.

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The substitution of Grant for Straus is the substitution of a man who is popular with the Tammany masses for a man who is not. It does not change the situation in the least. The regular Tammany voter is not much affected by the character of the candidate, though there may be somewhat of a revolt this year on account of the police exposures. As far as the outside world was concerned, Straus was a better candidate than Grant, inasmuch as he had no record except as a park commissioner, whereas people have had four years' experience of Grant in the mayoralty. It was he who began the process of handing the city offices over to the thugs and thieves who now fill them; and he carried it on steadily during his two terms. As fast as the offices fell vacant he filled them with criminals and semi-criminals, in the usual Tammany style. Gilroy has only carried Grant's processes a few steps further. It has been reported that Grant refused to appoint Scannell, the murderer, to the Fire Department, which may be true; but if so, this was the only Tammany atrocity from which he recoiled. In fact, it may be said that Grant was the first to display that open contempt for the opinion of the moral and religious public, in the choice of public officers, which has finally brought Tammany to its present straits. Up to his time, mayors had always had a general regard for decency in this matter. Grant showed at once that he had none. In truth, his own success in getting into the mayoralty furnished some excuse for his course. Tammany had never before ventured to put up a candidate of his kind—a young "sport" of unknown occupation and liquor-dealing antecedents. He is said to have accepted the present nomination very reluctantly, but the voters can, and we believe will, now effectually close his political career.

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The unanimity and vigor with which the press of the city, without a reputable exception, exposes the real character of "Hughey" Grant and his candidacy must be a cause of dismay in Tammany Hall. Nothing like it has been seen in the city since the last days of the Tweed ring. It means, of course, that public sentiment against Tammany is so overpowering that it is carrying everything before it. The true nature of Tammany rule has been so clearly revealed that few persons with any pretence to character care to be associated with it, or to be making excuses for it. The efforts of Mr. Grant to tone down appearances somewhat by forcing Wissig, "Silver Dollar" Smith, and "Paddy" Divver into temporary retirement, excite only ridicule. The charge against Wissig is that he is "foul-mouthed," but in that he is no exception among Tammany men. No respectable person could remain where a body of Wigwam men were assembled discussing political or other questions. Their language is habitually indecent, for it is the language of the bar-room and the gutter. Why should Wissig go and "Dry Dollar" Sullivan be spared? In what respect is Divver worse than "Barney" Martin or "Tom" Grady? Does anybody suppose that in the free intercourse of Tammany society the language of these men is any less "foul" than Wissig's? Is the habitual, unrestrained language of "Hughey" Grant any more refined? Everybody who has heard Tammany heroes of the highest rank talk, knows that whenever they seek to be vigorous they are always blasphemous and filthy.

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Apropos of the recent discharge of 800 men from confinement on Blackwell's Island, which Mr. Goff discovered the other day, certain testimony forming a part of the Fassett committee's investigation of 1890 becomes important. The counsel of the committee, Mr. Ivins, was interrogating Mr. H. H. Porter, president of the Board of Public Charities and Correction, and he had ascertained from the witness that the law authorized the granting of discharges to certain prisoners by the concurrent action of the committing magistrate and the commissioners, but that in practice the commissioners never took any pains to examine cases, but always granted the discharge on the certificate of the magistrate. Then these questions and answers followed:

"Q. I find, by going over such statistics as I have, that the discharges are usually 100 per cent. more in the month of October than they are in any other month in the year. A. *I guess you and I understand that.*

"Q. We understand it, but I want the committee to understand it. Why is it, Mr. Porter? A. Well, I don't know; they discharge them.

"Q. The police justices discharge them? A. Yes, sir. . . . When these men say, 'Commissioner, won't you let me out?' I say, 'What for?' They say, 'Well, I want to vote; I want to register.' . . .

"Q. In other words, to help elect officers to make appropriations to support them in future on the island? A. *Unfortunately, that, I suppose, is the basis.*"

There are so many grotesque features of what passes for government in New York coming out every day that this one may perhaps seem to be of little consequence, but it harmonizes well with the green-goods business, the blackmailing, clubbing, and bar-room brawls.

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The fight between "Paddy" Divver and Tekulsky on Thursday owes its importance to the fact that it was a conflict between a Magistrate and a Jurist. "Paddy" is, as we know, a judicial officer, and Tekulsky served as a Tammany member in the Constitutional Convention. Tekulsky is, therefore, a jurist—a Tammany liquor-jurist, it is true, but still a jurist. Fisticuffs between Magistrates and Jurists have been rare in history, which makes this one an interesting phenomenon. The accounts of the origin of the quarrel, as in all such cases, are confused. The Magistrate maintains a dignified silence, and the Jurist's story is doubtless colored by prejudice and passion. Charges of cheating seem to have been freely exchanged, and finally the Jurist hit the Magistrate on the nose and drew his judicial blood, besides tearing his clothes. Recorder Smyth will have the deepest sympathy of the community over this unfortunate occurrence. That a man whom he has known so long and has esteemed so highly as Divver, should, while occupying a high judicial position, have been hit on the nose by another Jurist belonging to the same "organization," might well depress a man of sensibilities much less fine than the recorder's. Moreover, as we do not yet know how many friends like Paddy the recorder may have in different departments of the city service, we can well imagine his looking in the papers every morning with bated breath to see what calamities have overtaken the others. When they hit each other, or when they are called before the Lexow committee, he must experience a painful sense of the awful uncertainties of Tammany life.

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At their recent session the California State Grange spent a day in discussion of the "Lubin scheme." This scheme proposes to have the Government pay at least a part of the cost of transporting staple farm products to market. It has been pushed with tireless energy, and seems to suit many farmers. The Grange adopted, as an entering wedge, a resolution demanding "protection for American staples," and "that this be done by the Government paying a percentage of the cost of sea-transportation to foreign ports." This proposition now goes to the National Grange, and it would not be surprising to see it adopted there. The history of this first Lubin plank in California is as follows: It was rejected by the Populists last May; it was accepted in full by the Republican convention last June; it was rejected by the Democratic convention in August. The Lubinites then began a "campaign of education" among the granges and farmers' alliances, and here they carried everything with a rush. The strength of Lubinism is in the claim that it is a legitimate and necessary extension of Republican protection doctrines. Its acceptance by the Republican State convention is well worth the attention of some future historian of the rise and fall of the high-protection idea in America. In California, where there are almost no manufacturers, and where the whole community has been very heavily taxed by McKinleyism, this sort of notion is made a party issue in hope of obtaining the farmer vote.

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Train robbery has become so frequent that no one would be particularly sur-

prised to read any day in the newspapers of a "hold-up" between New York and Albany. The recent robbery at Quantico, Va., was within a few miles of Alexandria. Every railroad in the country has some lonely spots, and it does not make much difference whether they are in a thickly settled country or not. Robbers can hide as easily in New York city as in the sage-brush country beyond the Rocky Mountains, perhaps more so. Something must be done to deliver society from this pest, but what to do is not so clear. Perhaps more than one measure is necessary. It has been proposed that Congress should pass an amendment to the interstate-commerce act putting these cases under the jurisdiction of the federal courts. We see no objection to that if it can be shown that the federal courts would be more efficient in dealing with the cases. Another proposal is that the express companies should carry heavier safes, or safes that cannot be opened except by the station agents, or that they should carry money only on day trains. The latter plan is not feasible on long routes. The delay would be more costly to the public than the extra expense of guards. Whatever this extra expense may be, the public must pay it in extra charges for carriage. One thing is certain: there must be better enforcement of law all around. The form of disease called Coxeyism, which had such a run last spring, and which took the form of seizing railroad trains and levying contributions on towns through which the "commonwealers" passed, was almost certain to develop into train robbery if allowed to pass unchecked. The commonwealers came to consider themselves a superior class of citizens who had somehow lost their right to three meals a day and their beer and tobacco. If the States through which they passed had enforced the vagrant laws against them and put them to work at Coxey's favorite enterprise of making good roads, the number of train-robbers would now be smaller than it is.

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Ohio has been so severely and so justly criticised in the past for the brutality shown to negro criminals that a change for the better should not go without recognition. There have been two or three cases within as many years where colored men accused of serious offences were taken from the authorities and lynched by mobs of "respectable" white citizens, and each time Gov. McKinley has weakly lamented that he could do nothing about it. In one case a serious attempt was made by the judicial department of the Government to secure punishment of the lynchers, but public sentiment did not sustain the courts and nothing came of the proceedings. It had thus begun to look as though any negro charged with a serious crime was liable to be hanged off-hand by a mob in a State which has long been conspicuous for the severity of its lectures to the South on the evils of lynch law. But the prompt calling out of the military in the case where the usual treatment of a colored offender was threatened at Washington Courthouse last week, and the killing of three of the mob by the troops, indicate that Ohioans at last realize the discredit which has been brought upon their commonwealth, and are resolved to restore the reign of law. The whole North has suffered from the practice of condoning lynching in that State, and will welcome the evidence that there is to be a reform.

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The Iowa Republicans already find that they are profiting by their action last winter in virtually abandoning prohibition and substituting a local-option and saloon-taxing system. There is a large German element in the State, most of which was drawn into the Republican party on the slavery issue and retained by the stand of that organization towards the financial issues which followed the war. But when the party took up prohibition, a great proportion of the German Republicans deserted it, and this class of voters was doubtless large enough to more than make the small majorities by which a Democrat was twice elected Governor. Now that prohibition has been dropped, these Germans feel at liberty to return to their old party. The Democrats might have kept them if the party had behaved better in State as well as in national affairs, but, as it is, the bonds are easily severed. One German newspaper which has long been Democratic recently announced its support of the Republicans, and the tide which sets in that direction everywhere by virtue of general causes will be swollen in Iowa by the removal of the prohibition issue.

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The Massachusetts Supreme Court last week sustained the constitutionality of a law passed by a recent Legislature which imposes a tax of 5 per cent. upon collateral legacies and successions in all cases where the estate, after the payment of debts, reaches $10,000. Two questions were raised in the discussion—one, whether the privilege of transmitting and receiving property by will is a "commodity" within the meaning of the State Constitution, which authorizes the Legislature to levy an excise in such cases; and the other, whether the proposed tax is "reasonable." All seven of the justices sat upon the case, and six of them decide both points in the affirmative, holding emphatically that the tax is within the power of the Legislature, that it is not oppressive in amount, and that the exemption of estates below $10,000 in value is not unreasonable. New York, Pennsylvania, and several other States have similar laws, and the tendency towards utilizing a method of raising money by taxation which is so easily enforced seems to be growing throughout the country. Indeed, the income-tax provisions of the new tariff law expressly specify "money and the value of all personal property acquired by gift or inheritance" as subject to the tax.

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In a paper read at Baltimore by Mr. James G. Cannon, of the Fourth National Bank of this city, upon bank accounts, an attempt was made to find a way by which the profitableness of a depositor's account may be determined arithmetically by each bank. The principle is not difficult. It is found by a series of experiments that the average life of a country check deposited for collection is six days, and the actual cost of collection ⅛ of 1 per cent. Mr. Cannon had an elaborate statement prepared showing the length of time each country check is out, and the cost. The average amount of these country checks is deducted from the apparent balance on hand for each depositor. Then 25 per cent. is deducted, being the amount retained as reserve under the national-bank act. Next it is assumed that the bank has had carefully prepared by its discount department an analysis of its loans and discounts and the different rates which they are earning, by which the average rate on all the loanable funds may be determined. The depositor is to be credited with the interest earned on his average balance as just ascertained. Then the percentage of expenses to gross earnings is easily figured out; as the gross profit on the depositor's account has already been calculated, the proper proportion of expense with which it should be debited should now be deducted. The difference will show the net profit earned by the bank on each deposit account.

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Mr. Cannon mentions some surprising results ascertained by this method. A large country bank kept for four months an average daily balance of $101,000. The amount of the out-of-town checks deposited was $1,340,035; interest to the amount of $665.99 was allowed. During this time the actual loanable funds amounted to only $45,936, which yielded an income of but $765.62. The sum of the whole matter was a gross profit to the bank of $9.40, from which to pay the cost of clerical force and the incidental expenses necessary to handle so many checks, as well as compensation for the bank's guarantee. Another concern had a gross average daily balance of over $30,000 in the bank for a year, which would apparently be a profitable account, but in reality, owing to a large number of out-of-town checks which required from four to six days for collection, the account showed large overdrafts each month. The books indeed showed a nominal balance, but the firm drew their money before the bank had time to receive the funds from the checks deposited. Such investigations into details as this are to be commended even if subject to correction.

*THE TEST OF EXPERIENCE.*

THE Democratic Congress during the extra session beginning in August, 1893, and the regular session opening in December, passed three measures of the first importance—measures which constitute landmarks in legislation. The first was the repeal of the Sherman silver-purchase act; the second, the removal from the statute-book of the federal-election laws; and the third, the passage of a tariff bill which, despite all its faults, goes so far in putting raw materials on the free list and reducing duties on other articles as to constitute a new departure.

The test of experience is now being applied to each of these measures. There was long and hot discussion as to the effect of repealing the Sherman act. A year has passed since the step was taken, and the country has had abundant opportunity to make up its mind as to the result. The benefits are so clear and unmistakable that the silver craze which led to the passage of the Sherman act has sensibly diminished, and the danger of free coinage, towards which this act was proclaimed by its friends as being "a long yet prudent step," has now disappeared. Experience has already vindicated this feature of Democratic policy.

The repeal of the federal-election laws involved a point of fundamental difference between the two parties. Those laws had been originally passed by the Republicans, against the opposition of the Democrats, as a feature of the reconstruction policy toward the South; and the Harrison Administration urged more extreme legislation in the same sectional direction as an embodiment of Republican ideas. The Democrats condemned the principle of such legislation as utterly wrong, and made its repeal one of their first achievements after securing control of all branches of the Government.

The political campaign of the present year has sufficed to justify the wisdom of Democratic policy in this matter. The opponents of federal-election laws always claimed that the repeal of this legislation would be a long step in the direction of better elections at the South; that, once relieved from the annoying complications incident to outside interference in the matter, public sentiment in that part of the country would demand fair play so emphatically as to compel honest elections and to cause a normal division among voters, instead of the old and mischievous color line; in short, that the surest way to obtain in the South such political methods as prevail in the North was to put the South on an equality with the North, and turn over the responsibility everywhere to the people.

The elections already held in Southern States this year, and the campaigns now in progress there, have fully vindicated these claims. Never has there been so close an approach to "a free ballot and a fair count." Never have there been such earnest demands from leading newspapers and representative citizens that whatever cheating in elections still prevails must be suppressed. Never have the negroes voted so freely and found their ballots so much sought for by factions among the whites. Never has there been so marked a division of opinion among the whites, and so great a readiness to disregard the old race line as unnecessary, now that hostile legislation has been abolished. Candid Republican newspapers at the North are already admitting that political conditions at the South are now healthier than at any previous time since the negroes were enfranchised, and that the repeal of the federal-election laws has contributed powerfully to this improvement. The shrewd framers of Republican platforms have dropped the old sectional issue as a matter which is settled. Experience has already vindicated this feature of Democratic policy also.

The question of high tariff or low tariff, like the sectional issue, has been fought over by the two parties for many years. Prosperity and ruin were predicted as the consequences of the proposed change by its advocates and opponents. Each party professed itself willing to abide by the test of experience. A small element among the Democrats long delayed all action towards redeeming party pledges, and finally prevented the passage of a symmetrical measure; but, notwithstanding all obstacles, what is essentially a low-tariff bill at last became a law. So long did the "conservatives" in the Senate postpone final action that only about two months will elapse between the time when the law went upon the statute-book and election day. Even this brief period, however, will have been long enough to afford conclusive indications of the manner in which the law will work. There is already an evident improvement in the industrial situation. Mills which have been closed are opening. Manufactories which have been working on short time are returning to full hours. McKinley, in his repetition of his "calamity wail," has to look sharp, or he may find, as at Ionia, Mich., last week, that a banner hangs before him announcing that "our factories are running twelve hours a day as a result of the Wilson bill." The president of the Pennsylvania Railroad expresses the opinion that the improvement already observed in manufacturing is sure to extend gradually but steadily to all other departments of business. A more hopeful feeling pervades the whole community, and the prophets of ruin are becoming bores on whom busy people cannot afford to waste their time. Experience promises to vindicate this feature of Democratic policy as abundantly as in the case of the other two.

Impatience with Democratic follies and weaknesses has blinded the country to a sense of the real services which a Democratic Administration has rendered. The repeal of the silver-purchase act, the removal from the statute-book of the federal-election laws, and the passage of a low-tariff measure for the first time in forty years, are great achievements. Each and all are acts which can stand that crucial test of legislation—the test of experience. With a record containing so much of good, it is inconceivably stupid that the Democrats should put up a ticket in the most important State of the Union which seems especially contrived to drive away from the party the independent voters who hold the balance of power.

*PRIVATE AND PUBLIC MORALITY.*

AMONG the curious consequences which the political situation in this State has produced, none is more curious than the disposition which has been shown in certain quarters to make a distinction between Hill's personal and political character in the matter of honesty. Several gentlemen with a fair reputation for acuteness have made express reservations as to his "personal integrity," while passing the severest condemnation on his conduct as a politician. They have, in fact, propounded, as if it were a generally accepted commonplace, the theory that a man may be a notorious rogue in his dealings with public affairs while remaining quite virtuous in his attitude towards money. Several gentlemen of eminence have given us to understand that Hill, though a very tricky and dishonest politician, is really an upright man. If this were possible, it would be a terrible thing for the state, and in fact for human society. No social organization could long resist the unchecked political rascality of its "best people"; for if men could be political rascals without damage to their private reputations, there would soon be very few patriots left among us.

But it is not possible. There is no foundation for this theory either in our experience of human nature or in the history of civilized states. Man is not so constituted that he can be untruthful and unscrupulous in dealing with one set of facts or one department of conduct, and faithful, just, and true with regard to another. Human character is one. It is not cut up into departments, in some of which conscience has jurisdiction, and in others self-interest only. *Falsus in uno, falsus in omnibus*, is a maxim founded on long observation of the race. There may be certain wickednesses of which even the wickedest man would not be guilty, to which, for some reason or another, he is not tempted, but it is not open to any one to say he is sure not to commit them. The probability on which the world has to rely in dealing with him is, that he will commit them. Hungry Joe might be cashier of a bank for twenty years without robbing it, but the directors who employed him would be considered insane. If they said, "Oh, he has never robbed a bank; he only robs farmers," they would be laughed at. In fact, reputation rests on human belief in the unity of charac-

ter. No one in the ordinary affairs of life trusts people who are partially honest—that is, honest about some things and knavish about others. It is only in politics that one hears of this curious distinction.

The way to judge a man is to observe how he behaves in the presence of anything which he strongly desires—it makes no difference what it is. His methods in getting hold of one thing are sure to be his methods when he turns his attention to something else. Nearly all the great political knaves of history whose doings have been exposed, have been as weak about money, if they were needy, as about other things; which is quite natural, money being the most prominent object of human desire and the cause of nearly all crime. When Hill found he needed $30,000, he did not hesitate a moment about getting some of it out of contractors in the public service. The sole reason, in fact, for supposing that any man who is politically corrupt does not steal public money is that it is very difficult to find him out. A man's jobbing about offices has to be more or less public, but his pecuniary thefts are in their nature secret or easily covered up.

Nearly three hundred citizens of the best standing and of various callings have signed a solemn declaration that they believe Hill to have been guilty, on divers occasions, of "fraudulent" and "dishonest" practices, of having robbed ("looted") municipalities, of having defied the laws of the State and the mandates of the courts, of having "outraged common decency," and of having used the appointing power to put disreputable persons in public office as a reward for disreputable services. The description they give of him, in fact, connotes lying, concealment, deception, lawbreaking, and the use of the public money to reward criminals or semi-criminals. Whether he has ever pocketed public money himself unlawfully, they do not know, but the account they give of him, if true, warrants the belief that he would pocket it if he got a chance of doing so without exposing himself to punishment, or that he has done so if the temptation has ever come in his way. The only good thing they can consistently aver of him now is that he has not been found out. And let us add here that the distinction between appointing to office and keeping in office a man who, you know, will steal, and stealing yourself, is too futile for serious examination.

Hill is, in fact, according to both friends and foes, the worst man any political party in America has ever offered for popular suffrage. If bad men have been previously set up, their supporters have at least had the grace to deny their badness. In his case the charges against him are admitted by the men who are going to vote for him. This is a new and startling departure in American politics, and its prompt repression is the solemn duty not only of Republicans or Democrats, but of good and patriotic men of all parties. The fiction that David B. Hill has kept pure and good while Governor and Senator Hill were misbehaving, is too thin to impose on anybody. It was remarked to the German prince bishop who defended his atrocities on the ground that he committed them as a prince and not as a bishop—"When the devil gets hold of the prince, what will become of the bishop?" So also we may ask, What will become of the upright David when the cheating and lying Senator and Governor are getting their due?

### *MR. MORTON'S COACHMAN.*

For the first time, unless we are greatly mistaken, since the writ of habeas corpus was introduced into Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence, a judge last week in this city found that a man brought before him under it was unlawfully deprived of his liberty, and yet remanded him to the custody of his captor. The writ of habeas corpus, it must be remembered, is not intended to enable the court simply to inquire whether the prisoner likes to be in jail, or whether he would like to get out, or how he came to get into jail. Its object is and always has been to enable him to regain his liberty, if he has been illegally deprived of it; and if a court finds that he has been illegally deprived of it, it has always been held to be its duty to discharge him. But Howard, Mr. Morton's coachman, was brought before Judge Lacombe last week on a writ of habeas corpus, and showed that although he was detained under the contract-labor act, it really did not affect him, because it specially excepts "domestic servants," and there was no dispute about his being a domestic servant. His captors hunted him up in his employer's house, found him engaged in the duties of a domestic servant, and, we believe, although they have had the poor man in custody two or three weeks, have never denied that he was a domestic servant. Moreover, when brought before Judge Lacombe, the judge found that he *was* a domestic servant, and therefore the contract-labor act did not affect him in any way. It was, as regards him, as if it had never been passed. He was no more affected by it than Mr. Morton, or any native-born citizen. Why, then, did not the judge discharge him? The answer to this question reveals an extraordinary state of things.

The contract-labor act empowers the secretary of the treasury to seize and deport, at any time within one year after their arrival, all immigrants who may have come into the country in violation of the law; that is, who may have come over under contracts made on the other side of the water. The object of the act is to prevent the importation of the swarm of "Huns" and other half-savage peasantry from eastern Europe, whom the protected manufacturers and miners had got into the way of bringing over to avoid paying American laborers the high wages provided for in the tariff. We may add that we think it is good policy for the United States to shut their doors, as a rule, to all people who cannot pay their own way. But, in the interest of civilization itself, exceptions have been, and ought to be, made. To exclude artists, teachers, musicians, clergymen, lecturers, and domestic servants, or any class of persons who are likely to contribute to the culture of the country, or the ease and commodity of family life, would be simple barbarism. Domestic servants in particular come over in great numbers every year, and supply one of the greatest wants of American life. "Domestic servants" are accordingly specifically exempted by the act, and the Supreme Court, interpreting the act broadly, has concluded that Congress meant to except other classes also. So far all is well.

But Congress left the execution of the act to the secretary of the treasury. It gave him the power to seize and deport aliens whom he should consider to have violated the law in their coming to this country, at any time within one year after their arrival. "But, of course," the foreign observer would remark, "he must exercise those powers in subjection to the courts, like all other executive officers in Anglo-Saxon countries. If he abuses his powers, or goes beyond the law, the courts will discharge his victims on a habeas corpus, and they will have their remedy in an action for damages." Nothing of the kind; the Supreme Court has decided, in a judgment (Nishimura Ekiu agt. the United States, 142 U. S., 660) which may well stand beside the legal-tender decision, as follows:

> "An alien immigrant prevented from landing by any such officer, claiming authority to do so under an act of Congress, and thereby restrained of his liberty, is doubtless entitled to a writ of habeas corpus to ascertain whether the restraint is lawful. And Congress may, if it sees fit, authorize the courts to investigate and ascertain the facts on which the right to land depends. But, on the other hand, the final determination of those facts may be intrusted by Congress to executive officers; and in such a case, as in all others in which a statute gives a discretionary power to an officer, to be exercised by him upon his own opinion of certain facts, he is made the sole and exclusive judge of the existence of those facts; and no other tribunal, unless expressly authorized by law to do so, is at liberty to reexamine or controvert the sufficiency of the evidence on which he acted. It is not within the province of the judiciary to order that foreigners who have never been naturalized or acquired any domicile or residence within the United States, nor ever been admitted into the country pursuant to law, shall be permitted to enter in opposition to the constitutional and lawful measures of the legislative and executive branches of the national Government. As to such persons, the decisions of executive or administrative officers acting within powers expressly conferred by Congress are due process of law."

And further:

> "That the provisions of Article V. of Amendments United States Constitution, 'no person shall be deprived of life, liberty or property without due process of law,' do not apply to an alien immigrant who has not acquired a domicile, because, so far as *he* is concerned, any examination into his right to

come here by such executive officer as Congress may select (without appeal to the courts), is 'due process of law.'"

It will be seen that this allows the man the habeas corpus—it cannot deprive him of that under the Constitution—but it makes it worthless by depriving the judge of power to act on it. The great writ of liberty becomes, under this inquiry, a ridiculous examination of the reason of the man's imprisonment, by a tribunal which can do nothing for him. Judge Lacombe had to follow the decision in the recent proceeding.

And now see how it works, how soon its monstrosity is demonstrated. In the middle of an exciting political campaign, the secretary of the treasury allows his subordinates to seek out, in the house of a prominent political candidate who has filled the office of Vice-President of the United States, one of his "domestic servants," to whom the law had no application, to arrest him, cart him about the country as a prisoner, and deny the right of the courts to liberate him, although there is no pretence that he is legally held. As a legal correspondent of the *Evening Post* has well pointed out, under this ruling of the Supreme Court, the secretary is so far raised above the law that he might really seize on a native-born political opponent, pronounce him an alien immigrant, and deport him. This seems an extravagant supposition, but the law fully warrants it, and it would not greatly surpass in absurdity the treatment of Howard the coachman, who, as far as the contract-labor law is concerned, stands exactly in the position of a native-born citizen. Nothing can prove better the strength of the principles to which the Democratic party is wedded than its continued strength and vitality in spite of the acts and opinions of many of its leading men.

### *THE BALTIMORE PLAN.*

THE Baltimore plan of currency reform has met with a very favorable reception from the press. The Columbia (S. C.) *State* regards it as a sign of progress to a rational and fair solution of the money question, and says:

"As the scheme has been unanimously endorsed by a body so conservative and so influential as the American Bankers' Association, and will be pressed by it upon the attention of Congress, we may be sure that some legislation on this line will be had at the next session. Indeed, it must be had. *It is the only possible alternative to a swamping flood of bad money.* But the friends of State banks must see to it that it is amended so as to be all that it purports to be, and to give in truth the elastic and sufficient currency of home issue which is required."

Quite true. It is the only alternative to a swamping flood of bad money. It should be added that it is the cheapest possible plan. Instead of buying silver at sixty-three cents per ounce, or whatever the price may be, the currency will be supplied at a cost of next to nothing. This does not mean that we can all of us pick up money in the street. If we could do so, it would be worth nothing. We shall have to pay one hundred cents' worth of our goods or labor for every dollar, whether it be silver or banknotes; but in the former case society as a whole must begin by paying out fifty cents for the material of which the dollar is composed, while in the other case it pays only a small fraction of a cent. This is true whether the silver is obtained by Government purchase or by free coinage. The cost of mining and smelting, which is not less than sixty-three cents per ounce (the equivalent of fifty cents per dollar), must be paid by the community which uses the dollars. It seems something like a paradox to say that the money which costs nothing is better than that which costs 50 per cent. of its face value, but it is true, because the banknotes represent 100 cents in bank assets. The banknotes are swapping tickets. The Baltimore plan, as Mr. Hepburn tersely said, is a plan for swapping well-known credit for less-known credit. All trade is exchange. A bank is a machine of exchange, and banknotes and bank-checks are simply two parts of the same machine.

The Columbia *State*, while endorsing the Baltimore plan, criticises some of the details. It says that "if the Canadian banks safely issue notes up to the full amount of their unimpaired capital, there is no good reason why banks in the United States should be limited in their issues of notes to 50 per cent. of their capital in ordinary times, and 75 per cent. in times of emergency." There is some force in this suggestion; but in making a change in the banking system of a country, it is best not to attempt too much at once. If we err at all, let us err on the side of safety. Moreover, Mr. Homer, who was selected to bring the Baltimore plan before the convention, presented statistics showing that, under the old system before the war, there had never been a time when the banks were able to keep out circulation to the extent of more than 50 per cent. of their capital, under the conditions of specie payment and free competition. Of course we do not expect any other conditions. The average of such circulation before the war was only 44 per cent. of the capital, while in Massachusetts (in 1859) it was 29 per cent., and in Louisiana only 26 per cent. In the latter State there was no restriction on bank circulation, and in the former there was practically none.

The New Orleans *Times-Democrat* and the Nashville *American* heartily endorse the Baltimore plan. The former, after reciting the details of the proposed measure, says:

"The plan will give that elasticity to the currency the lack of which has been painfully felt in all times of money stringency, and especially so in the dreadful year 1893. This elasticity is to be obtained through the 25 per cent. issue referred to in the plan as the emergency circulation; and this emergency circulation will be taxed so severely that it will never be thought of but when real necessity arises. Thus are both safety and elasticity secured by the propositions of the Baltimore plan, which, from its simplicity and the splendid endorsements of all the bankers as well as of the present comptroller of the currency and of his last predecessor, is almost certain to receive the favorable consideration of Congress."

The Boston *Advertiser* objects that the plan sacrifices the depositor to the note-holder by giving the latter a first lien on the bank's assets. The criticism is thus stated:

"It is the depositor in the national banks who is likely to find the chief cause of complaint against the proposed Baltimore scheme. It would hardly be fair to him to say, as President Curtis does, that he 'would be as well cared for' under the Baltimore plan 'as he now is,' for the reason that under the proposed system the currency issued by the bank would come in as the first lien upon the bank's capital, while the depositor would have to be satisfied with what remained after the currency was redeemed."

It is one of the a b c's of banking science that the note-holder shall have a first lien on the assets of a failed bank. That is one of the provisions of the national banking law now. If the country should get into another desperate war, so that the bonds held for banknote security should sink to forty cents on the dollar, as they did in 1864, and a national bank should fail, then section 5230 of the Revised Statutes would become operative at once. It says that "for any deficiency in the proceeds of all the bonds of an association when thus sold, to reimburse to the United States the amount expended in paying circulating notes of the association, the United States shall have a paramount lien upon all its assets," etc. This principle is affirmed in the State constitutions of New York, Indiana, Michigan, Iowa, Minnesota, Kansas, and Alabama, and in the banking laws of several other States, including Massachusetts. It would become at once operative in those States if the federal tax on State banknotes were repealed.

The only serious objection that has been raised to the Baltimore plan is that it does not provide for the retirement of the Government notes now outstanding. "It does not go far enough," say these objectors. The criticism is certainly a respectable one, and, if the Baltimore plan were offered as the last word on the subject of monetary legislation in the United States, would be a very weighty one. But, as a circular issued by Messrs. Hambleton & Co. of Baltimore since the adjournment of the convention says, "it is not claimed that the plan is perfect, but it is a long step in the direction of a sound currency." We are of the opinion that all Government notes circulating as money ought to be withdrawn. We think that they are inconsistent alike with sound principles of money and with sound principles of government. Nevertheless, we do not consider it wise to put forward a plan for withdrawing them now. Public sentiment is not ripe for it, but the Baltimore plan, if adopted by Congress, will be a long step in that direction

because it will introduce elasticity into the currency *pro tanto*, and will make the next step easier.

What we want now is to get back to sound principles, and especially to the principle that banknotes should be based upon credit and not upon Government bonds. The bond-security system is as hard as iron. It is harder, in fact, than a deposit of gold coin, dollar for dollar, would be, because it requires $114 of invested capital to get $90 of banknotes. This system does undoubtedly make notes secure, but it does this at the expense of all other qualities. The Baltimore plan will make them equally secure, while adding flexibility to the system.

One fact, easily lost sight of, should be steadily borne in mind. If a bank is not required to put up $114 in Government bonds for every $90 of notes, the $114 is not lost. It does not cease to be part and parcel of the bank's assets. It is just as available (and more so) for the redemption of banknotes as in the other case, *provided* the bank is well managed. "Ah," says some objector, "that is just the point; the bond-security system provides against bad management." But bad management of banks is now a known quantity. We have had thirty-one years' experience to guide our steps. We know just what provision is needed to make it good. We can accumulate a fund for this purpose by general contribution.

But that is not all. The comptroller's office at Washington exists in part to prevent bad banking. So long as $114 worth of bonds is lodged in the Treasury against $90 of banknotes, the comptroller can perform his duties in a perfunctory way. The Government, his master, is secure in any case. Nobody will suffer from a bank failure except the depositors, and they are smart enough to look out for themselves, or ought to be. The comptroller's office likes to take things easy. It does not differ in this respect from other human institutions. If the bond security is taken away, then the comptroller's office and the bank examiners all over the country have a special incentive to vigilance. They have a spur to prick the sides of their intent. Bank examinations will be more frequent and more thorough, and depositors be better protected than they are now.

The question has been asked why the Government should be responsible for the redemption of banknotes, as the Baltimore plan provides. Evidently in order to preserve the absolute good credit which banknotes now enjoy. This is an inestimable public advantage. If the plan contemplated a possible loss to the Government, it would be open to objection, but it first secures the Government by the proceeds of a tax on all the participating banks. This being done, it is no detriment to the Government to guarantee the notes, as it does under the present system, while it is an immense service to the people that they are under no necessity to inquire whether a banknote will be as good to-morrow as it is to-day, or as good in Texas as it is in Maine or Oregon.

## *EDUCATION IN ENGLAND.*

Not since the Forster education act came into operation in 1871 has there been such widespread interest in a school-board election as attaches to that of the London board, which will take place at the end of November. In the metropolis the election of the board is overshadowing the elections of the County Council and of the forty new district councils organized under the parish and district councils act, which are to take place about the same time; while outside London it is arousing a national interest. Already the election has been the occasion of as many manifestoes as a parliamentary general election, of numerous resolutions at the conferences of the churches, and of scores of sermons from provincial as well as metropolitan pulpits. It is needless to add that all this interest centres about a religious controversy. Party politics seldom plays much part in school-board elections. From the peculiar character of the elementary school system, most of the conflicts are waged over sectarian questions. England is consequently accustomed to such controversies over the administration of elementary education laws; but, as has been stated, heretofore there has never been a school-board election which has aroused so much national interest.

It is hardly possible to appreciate the significance of the election, and of the national issues attending it, without bearing in mind how Parliament left the religious question when the settlement of 1870 was made. At that time Parliament was not establishing an entirely new school system. It was improving and extending, some people would say patching up, a system which had then been in existence for sixty years, which had been built up partly by the Church of England, and partly by an unsectarian organization which, like the church, had received large financial aid from the Government in carrying out its educational work. It was not disposed to disregard the systems it then found in existence, nor to decree that a system of universal school boards should be created. It aimed at continuing the existing schools, and provided for the establishment of school boards only in those places where the existing schools obviously did not meet the needs of the locality. It continued its annual grants to the schools which in the past had been supported by these grants and by private subscriptions, and further provided that schools under boards should be maintained partly by similar Government grants and partly by local taxes levied by the boards. The managers of the voluntary schools, as the older schools were named, were empowered to continue whatever religious teaching they had been giving. The unsectarian schools, of course, had given no sectarian teaching. In the church schools the doctrines of the Church of England had always been taught. The church continued this teaching under the act of 1870; the only difference being that, under the operation of what is known as the conscience clause, parents were empowered to withdraw their children if they objected to their being present when the doctrines of the Church of England were being taught, and the education department in London directed arrangements in the time-tables in each school to facilitate these withdrawals.

So far as concerns the voluntary schools, this was the way in which the religious question was settled in 1870. As regards the board schools, it was left to each board to determine whether it would give Bible teaching or not. All the act stipulated was that no religious catechism or religious formulary, distinctive of any particular denomination, should be taught. There are now considerably more than 2,000 school boards. Only by 91 has Bible teaching been ruled out.

When the first London school board was organized in 1871, it at once decided in favor of Bible teaching, and drew up a rule under which the instruction should be given. "The Bible," this rule set out, "shall be read, and there shall be given such explanation and such instruction therefrom in the principles of the Christian religion and morality as are suited to the capacities of children; provided always that in such explanation and instruction the provisions of the act in sections vii. and xiv. [conscience clause and Cowper-Temple clause] be strictly observed both in letter and spirit." The Cowper-Temple clause is the one which forbids the distinctive teaching of any particular denomination. Among the members of the London School Board who took part in drawing up this rule in 1871 were the late W. H. Smith, who was afterwards leader of the House of Commons, the late Sir Charles Reed, the late Samuel Morley, both of whom were prominent members of the House of Commons, Lord Harrowby, Lord Lawrence, Dr. Angus, and Dr. Rigg.

On the London board the opposing parties are now known as the Clericals and the Progressives. Although the Clerical party, which is not in sympathy with the education acts, and is always watchful of the interests of the voluntary schools, has been gaining strength since about 1885, it was not until 1893 that any attempt was made to alter the rule adopted in 1871. The first intimation that the rule of 1871 was in danger was a letter in the *Guardian*, the foremost organ of the Church of England. It was published in November, 1892, written by one of the clerical members of the board, and set forth the complaint that some of the teachers of the board schools were neglecting to teach the doctrine of the Trinity. The very next week a conflict began among the members of the school board which, with intermissions for vacations, was continued until the 15th of March of this year. It was waged about a proposed circular to

be issued to the teachers in respect of the manner in which Bible instruction should be given. The unsectarian members of the board opposed it. Deputations of citizens attended before the board, petitioning it to leave matters as they were; nearly all the London daily newspapers, including most of the Tory papers, which are usually on the side of the Church of England, urged the board to halt. It was all to no use. On the 15th of March, by a vote of 26 to 21, the board adopted the now famous circular, and it was issued to the teachers. It is a long document, but the substance of it, so far as the present controversy is concerned, is embodied in a paragraph which sets out that the principles of the Christian religion, as understood by the board, include "a belief in God the Father, as our Creator, in God the Son, as our Redeemer, and in God the Holy Ghost, as our Sanctifier."

The Nonconformists oppose the circular on the ground that it is a reflection on the previous practice of the teachers; that it implies the imposition of religious tests for teachers, which is contrary to the spirit of modern education and likely to lower the standard of efficiency in the teaching staff; and that it endangers the spirit of the compromise of 1871, which has worked satisfactorily and commanded the confidence of the rate-payers. The teachers also object to it on the ground that it imposes a religious test. Although the board has distinctly stated that it will be left to a teacher to decide whether or not he will give Bible instruction in the spirit of the circular, the teachers insist that in reality this option does not amount to anything. They urge that "a teacher who will conform will be more useful than one who will not, and in the end the former will have his reward in better pay and quicker promotion"; and, further, "that a new kind of dissent will be started, and that the school-board Nonconformists will find themselves practically drifting out of the swim of professional advancement."

Nearly half of the 7,000 teachers employed by the London board have petitioned for the withdrawal of the circular, and their petition has become the question on which the school-board election is being fought. Since the beginning of the autumn a vigorous campaign has been conducted in behalf of candidates pledged to immediate withdrawal of the circular. The Clerical party, however, are active too; and although they are without the support of the Conservative press, so much so that the *Guardian* has declared that if the electorate returns the present majority to power, it will do so in the teeth of an almost unanimous opposition from the press, the Clericals are sanguine that the electors will endorse the circular. The electors may not actually endorse the circular, but they will probably again return a Clerical majority to the board, and for this reason: the Clerical party have always posed as the party of economy, and as a matter of fact the school-board rate has been a trifle lower since they controlled the board. The unsectarian party insist that any savings which the last two boards have effected are due to a policy of starving the schools. This may be true. Some of the schools may be understaffed, but the well-to-do London rate-payer does not send his children to the board schools. He is opposed to the progressive idea which dominates the unsectarian party. He dislikes some of the candidates who have fastened themselves on the progressive movement; and while he will not go to the trouble of thinking out the right or wrong of the Trinitarian controversy, he may very possibly give his votes for the candidates of the Clericals.

## *JAMES ANTHONY FROUDE.*

THE death of Mr. Froude, after a literary career of varied industry for almost half a century, ends a life which, in its interests, its emotions, and its activities, in more ways than one reflects the strange transition through which England has been passing during this century. He was one of the very few survivors of that extraordinary group of young men who, over fifty years ago at Oxford, illustrated in the sphere of religion the power of the all-pervading spell of the Romantic spirit in its revolt against the rationalism, the common sense, and the placid self-content of the eighteenth century, which found their shapes in the utilitarian liberalism of the day. He was born in Dartington rectory, Totness, Devonshire, April 23, 1818. His childhood was spent in typically English surroundings of the olden time. His father was archdeacon of Totness, and exercised also the functions of a civil magistrate. He was remembered in after years by his son as "a continually busy, useful man of the world, a learned and cultivated antiquary, and an accomplished artist." Of his early training Froude wrote: "Our spiritual lessons did not go beyond the catechism. We were told that our business in life was to work and to make an honorable position for ourselves. About doctrine, Evangelical or Catholic, I do not think that in my early boyhood I ever heard a single word, in church or out of it." He went to Oxford while the memory of his brother, Hurrell Froude, one of the most brilliant of the Tractarian group, was still fresh. He had already "swallowed such antidotes to Catholicism" as would be derived from a careful reading of Gibbon, and he was fortified against scepticism by Paley and Grotius; but as yet he had little notion of the Evangelical wing of the church. 'Pilgrim's Progress,' even, he never read until he was grown up. At Oxford he seemed to the friends of his brother to be "keeping the party and the Movement at arm's length." Mozley tells us that "his habits and amusements were solitary," and that "he combined in a rare degree self-confidence, imagination, and inquiry." Froude listened to Newman's sermons with deep interest, read Hume carefully, and found himself in great perplexity.

His confidence in his Oxford teachers was put to a severe strain shortly after graduation by a visit to the family of an Evangelical clergyman in Ireland, where he found Christianity to be "part of the atmosphere which we breathed." He saw there the genuine fruits of the Reformation which he had been taught at Oxford "to hate as rebellion." His reverence for the reformers revived. "Fact itself was speaking for them. . . . Modern history resumed its traditionary aspect." When he returned to Oxford in 1842, as Fellow of Exeter, he had learned "that equally good men could take different views in theology, and Newmanism had ceased to have an exclusive interest for him." Feeling unsettled in his views, he "read hard in modern history and literature," including Carlyle, Goethe, Lessing, Neander, and Schleiermacher. He approached modern science through 'The Vestiges of the Natural History of Creation.' "As I had perceived before," he says, "that Evangelicals could be as saintlike as Catholics, so now I found that men of the highest gifts could differ from both by whole diameters in the interpretation of the same phenomena." He then discovered that the Catholic revival in Oxford was but part of the general movement of reaction in Europe. At this time he was invited by Newman to contribute to the 'Lives of English Saints.' His reading for this purpose took him into a world where "the order of nature seems only to have existed to give holy men an opportunity of showing their superiority to material conditions." After writing one life he "had to retreat from his occupation." But "the excursion among the will-o'-the-wisps of the spiritual morasses" did not leave him as it found him. "I had been taught by Newman that there was no difference in kind between the saints' miracles and the miracles of the Bible." The alternative probability now forced itself upon him—"that all supernatural stories were legendary, wherever found"; and he met the issue with courage although not with composure. His distress drew from him a cry of pain, and in the mournful reflections of 'The Nemesis of Faith,' 1848, he revealed to the world his mental struggles.

The work was widely read, and received the censure of the Oxford authorities. In later years Froude referred to it as "something written not wisely, in which heterodoxy was flavored with sentimentalism." To this sorrowing Werther how like a dash of cold water must have come Carlyle's gruff comment that "he should burn his own smoke and not trouble other people's nostrils with it." The evidence of Froude's courage is to be found in his actions rather than his words. "I found myself unfitted for a clergyman's position [he was in deacon's orders], and I abandoned it. I did not leave the church. I withdrew into the position of a lay member, in which I have ever since remained. I gave up my fellowship, and I gave up my profession with the loss of my existing means of maintenance and with the sacrifice of my future prospects."

He became acquainted with Carlyle in 1849, although not intimately so until 1860. His relationship to Carlyle is the key to his intellectual life. In 1884 he wrote: "I had, . . . from the time I became acquainted with his writings, looked upon him as my own guide and master—so absolutely that I could have said: *Malim errare cum Platone quam cum aliis bene sentire;* or, in Goethe's words, which I did indeed often repeat to myself: *Mit deinem Meister zu irren ist dein Gewinn.* The practice of submission to the authority of one whom one recognizes as greater than one's self outweighs the chance of occasional mistake." After all his struggles he was to take a position toward Carlyle essentially the same as that of Newman toward the church, so per-

vading still was the spirit of the Oxford Movement in the air he breathed. Froude now turned to literature for support, and became a frequent contributor to the *Westminster Review* and to *Frazer's Magazine*, of which he later became the editor. The first two volumes of his 'History of England' appeared in 1856, and he was occupied with this work for the next sixteen years.

His first visit to the United States, in 1872, partook of the nature of a political mission. He delivered lectures to enlighten Americans on the Irish question. Later he travelled in South Africa, Australia, and the West Indies. He was deeply interested in the preservation of the empire, and lamented the apathy of the home Government in regard to the welfare of the colonies, whose value he placed in the opportunities they offered for the expansion of the British people. His narratives of these voyages abound in glowing descriptions of nature, and melancholy reflections on the state of politics in democracies. Like Carlyle, he was drawn to strong men, to the heroes; and his biographies of Luther, Bunyan, and Carlyle, of Becket, Cæsar, and Beaconsfield, are among the most successful and characteristic productions of his pen. Several volumes of essays, by the great range of their subjects and the never-failing interest imparted to them, bear testimony to the versatility of his mind. A volume of Oxford lectures on the Life and Letters of Erasmus is his latest publication, fresh from the press.

In 1892 Froude was appointed Regius Professor of Modern History at Oxford, an honor which it has been customary to bestow upon men who would adorn the position. Actual teaching or lecturing forms a relatively small part of a Regius professor's duties, which lie rather in the field of research and authorship. Froude's views of history differed widely from those of Stubbs and Freeman and his immediate predecessors, for with him the emotional and intellectual life of the individual was the dominant interest, while for them it was rather the political life of men in the mass, the life of nationalities and of institutions. Freeman, too, had for years been a relentless critic of his work, and had gone so far in one of his published lectures as to hold up Froude, in a thinly disguised description, in cutting terms, as an example of all that was objectionable in historical writing. Not unnaturally, lively protest was heard against the appointment. Yet Froude deserved the distinction better than three-quarters of his predecessors. For him the main value of history was not scientific but ethical. "It is a voice for ever sounding across the centuries the laws of right and wrong. . . . Justice and truth alone endure and live. Injustice and falsehood may be long-lived, but doomsday comes at last to them in French revolutions and other terrible ways." Another lesson is, that "we should draw no horoscopes; that we should expect little, for what we expect will not come to pass. Revolutions, reformations—those vast movements into which heroes and saints have flung themselves, in the belief that they were the dawn of the millennium—have not borne the fruit which they looked for. Millenniums are still far away." History should be true to life; it can only approximate truth to past fact. "If the drama is the grandest when the action is the least explicable by laws, because then it best resembles life, then history will be the grandest also under the same conditions." "For the mere hard purposes of history, the 'Iliad' and the 'Odyssey' are the most effective books ever written." "Wherever possible, let us not be told about this man or that. Let us hear the man himself speak, let us see him act, and let us be left to form our own opinions about him." "The supreme excellence of the Elizabethan literature is in its purely objective character; and the most perfect English history which exists is to be found, in my opinion, in the historical plays of Shakspere. . . . Shakspere's object was to exhibit as faithfully as he could the exact character of the great actors in the national drama—the circumstances which surround them, and the motives, internal and external, by which they were influenced. To know this is to know all." "No such directness of insight, no such breadth of sympathy, has since been applied to the writing of English history."

Froude considered a "constructive philosophy of history impossible as yet; for a long time to come study must be confined to analysis." He "objected to all historical theories as calculated to vitiate the observation of facts without which such speculations are not worth the paper they are written upon." "Neither history nor any other knowledge can be obtained except by scientific methods." He was under no illusions in regard to himself. Three years ago he wrote: "For the rest, I do not pretend to impartiality. . . . In every conclusion which we form, in every conviction which is forced upon us, there is still a subjective element. . . . For myself I can say that I have discriminated with such faculty as I possess. I have kept back nothing. I have consciously distorted nothing which conflicts with my own views. I have accepted what seems sufficiently proved. I have rejected what I can find no support for save in hearsay or prejudice."

Froude wrote history as he conceived it with a power rarely equalled. His pages pulse with life. But though he drew from sources of the highest value, many of them never before utilized, he lacked a sound critical method of dealing with them. In this respect his later volumes show a marked improvement over the earlier ones. Unbiassed perception seems at times to have been simply beyond his powers; the facts of his own narrative he often saw as no one else saw them. Objective description he professed to aim at, but rarely attained, for he approached his material too much in the spirit of an artist. In his pictures the shadows are too deep and the lights are too richly glowing. A sentimentalist by nature, he was deficient in sobriety and poise of judgment, and he lacked the patience for accuracy in details. He had little interest in modern social or political science, and to the reader of the present day one of the most serious deficiencies of his work is its failure to give adequate attention to the constitutional and economic aspects of the period. Yet, after all deductions, the 'History' remains an imposing contribution to our knowledge of what its author believed "the greatest achievement in English history, the 'breaking the bands of Rome' and the establishment of spiritual independence"; and even when for the student it shall have been displaced by the work of some one more largely endowed with the indispensable qualifications of an historian, it will still have an enduring position in the literature of the English people.

## CARDUCCI AT SAN MARINO.

MOUNT TITAN, September 30, 1894.

TEN years ago we were presented with the diploma of citizenship by the Regents of the Republic of San Marino: yesterday the hope, long deferred, of visiting this microscopic refuge of liberty in the Old World was fulfilled, and with Giosuè Carducci, his daughter, and the well known writer and professor of history Bertolini, after a four hours' drive from Rimini in pouring rain, we alighted at the gate of the fifteen hundred-year-old city, hungry, drenched, yet merry, climbed the steep ascent, making the old walls ring with shouts of "Viva la repubblica, viva la libertà!" curiously surprised that no *sbirri* intimated silence, no carbineer presented handcuffs. On the borders of the Italian provinces of Emilia and the Marches, overlooking the fertile, populous plain surrounding Rimini, 738.13 metres above the level of the sea, on the summit of Mount Titan, are three rocks, the *Penne*. At the foot of these is built the city; lower down, the Borgo—the entire territory not exceeding 30 kilometres in circumference, with about 9,000 inhabitants dispersed in hamlets and villages, of which the chief are Serravalle, Tre Castelli, Monte Giardino, Faitano. The government of the republic is carried on by a council of sixty citizens elected for life from all classes in equal proportions—20 nobles, 20 burghers, 20 peasants. Every six months the counsellors nominate 12 of their members, then by ballot 2 of these are selected to fill the office of *Consoli* or *Capitani Reggenti;* the duty of these Regents being to cause the laws to be executed and to preside over the meetings of the council. The ceremony of the instalment of the new Regents, who, after their six months' term of power, cannot be reëlected for three years, is performed with great solemnity, and this year the opening of the new Town Hall is an event in the annals of the republic.

Hence the invitation to Giosuè Carducci to deliver the inaugural address which is just concluded, to which no summary nor even literal translation can do justice. The fifteen centuries of history stand out clear and concise; the poet's passionate love of liberty, of justice, of work, of truth, and honesty shines forth refulgent; yet this is nothing to the keynote dominating the whole—the belief in a divine idea; the worship of the God before whom Washington bent his uncrowned head, the God who held converse with Mazzini—"that hale and healthy soul"—in the fortress of Savona, and led him thence, Italy's Ezekiel, to the capitol. "Carducci with Crispi to Canossa," say the silly tattlers; but Carducci has been long meditating a protest against the mean, debasing materialism preached by the men who, while safe in their own domains, egg on the anarchist assassins to their doom. In a reunion of friends in a garden six months since, he sa d quite simply, "I believe in God"; and went on unfolding his thoughts, hopes, and visions; denouncing at the same time the accursed lie enthroned on the Vatican which has made Italy an unbeliever in the eternal truth. Just then he received the invitation from Tonnini, the regent of San Marino who died last month; and during August and September, up in the mountains above Sondrio, he embodied his idea in the address just delivered. The author of the Hymn to Satan, who invited the Italians to bury the old God under the ruins of Roman Catholicism, who prophesied the reign of reason on the throne of extinct creeds, is guilty of no inconsistency in now proclaiming his belief in the unseen, in the divine, in the eternal. He is what Mazzini was—"a believer, not a Christian." Neither the "Semitic God" nor the God of whom the Pope poses as vicegerent on earth is

the God of the Apostle of Italian Unity or of Italy's divinest poet. But here he must speak for himself, give his own explanation of the motives that led him to avow the necessity of a "return to the lofty ideals which inspired our Italian Renaissance."

"I scorn a policy of opportunism The priests of science—I mean those who use science as a profession, a privilege, an instrument, a refuge; who prate of science even as the monks of the last century prated of faith—may believe and preach that the *canaille* need a god; even as the marquises of the eighteenth century affirmed that religion was for their valets. I say that such science is no excuse in my eyes It is a mime that trips out of books and professorial chairs on to stilts, and, while selling love-philters, furtively hands over the keys of the house to the barbarians who assail hearts and heads. I say that the bestial dissoluteness which dares openly to boast that civilization consists in corrupting and being corrupted, rages not so much among the people as among the so-called directing (governing) classes, the authors of those latter-day scandals that have given Rome the aspect of a den of thieves, of a brothel-house of souls, with Doric or Ionic columns if you please, with the Pantheon and the Colosseum for background, and with an awning of gray sophistical babble for the protection of infamy. Will God redress all this? What will the idea of God be for us Italians, and whither will it lead us? I do not assume the rôle of prophet, philosopher, or charlatan; hence I neither predict, nor preach, nor indicate—*Fata viam invenient.* Yet I do affirm that life is a battle of duty, not a pleasure trip, that otherwise there exists not liberty, nor fatherland, nor even a state Yet while I affirm God with Mazzini, not a hair of my head dreams of reconciliation with the Vatican. Long ago Macchiavelli wrote: 'Owing to the culpable example of the court, this province has lost all devotion, all religion. . . . Thus we Italians, with the church and with the priests, are constrained to become impious and to live without religion.' All this was true even after 1815. Further, I believe that a real return of Italy to her high ideals, if this be possible, would not be for the advantage of the Catholic Church, such as she now is; but I also believe profoundly and affirm that the Italian people is not of its own nature atheist or sceptical, void of virtue, void of faith. This is an insult which the Germans have hurled at us since long ago, and our base ignorance has accepted the insult as a brevet of originality, and is flattered by it Knaves! Our great men are named Dante, Columbus, Michelangelo, Galileo, Vico, Mazzini; and all of these thought and worked out what is most noble, most lofty, most worthy in the life of man and in the history of the world. But enough! let us speak of other things."

I should say that this passage is taken from the preface to the inaugural discourse—a preface intended for Italy rather than for the simple, honest citizens of S. Marino. Carducci's real speech began with an augury to the sons and children yet unborn for the durability and prosperity of the glorious, happy little republic whose fifteen centuries of life mingle with the hopes of the future.

"From the heights of Mount Titan we look down on the glorious cities in the plain—Etruscan Ravenna, Gallic Rimini, Doric Ancona. Rimini retains the bridge of Augustus, Ancona Trajan's Arch, Ravenna the ashes of the sons of Theodosius; yet we turn from these trophies of the alternate grandeur and decay of the Roman Empire to seek with loving veneration the altar of the new life of Italy in the tomb of Dante. From these elements, from the seeds wafted upwards on the wings of changeful fate, germinated on this rock this exquisite flower of liberty. . . . When the Roman world decayed, God willed that humble Latin folk should recreate that which is the soul, the primordial form of government among the Italic peoples in the hamlet and borough, the castle and the commune, free one and all. Doomed to premature decay by the tyranny of faction, by the ignominy of foreign rule, the republics of Italy vanished in their youth; in the glorious fatigues of our Renaissance, and now in the face of all our peoples united for the first time in the single, eternal name of Italy, God willed and wills that the republic of San Marino remain at once a memory, a witness, an admonition.

"God, I said, citizens; for in a good republic it is still permitted to be not ashamed of God, nay, it is proper from him, *optimus maximus*, to take initiative and auspices even as did not only the chiefs of our communes, but also our ancestors of Rome the great and of Greece the beautiful Old hatred for a pestiferous tyrannic superstition, new pride of superficial observers who rely too much on victories over external nature, have, as it were, diseducated the Latin races from the divine idea; but neither sacerdotal infamy nor sophistical arrogance can exclude God from history: God the loftiest vision to which the peoples in the strength of their youth aspire—God the sun of sublime souls and of ardent hearts—like the planetary sun through the fabled constellations, passes through the forms of all religions, sole and universal God of nations."

Carducci's discourse, which I ought to have said was entitled "La libertà perpetua di San Marino," after the exordium, compendiated with scrupulous exactness and poetic fervor the entire history of the little commune from the hour when Marino, an Italian stonecutter hailing from the Dalmatian shores, received, according to the legend, from the *patrona* Felicissima the gift of the mountain where he lived and worked and built a tiny temple dedicated to Jesus of Nazareth. Here gathered fishermen, peasants, and poor men oppressed who would not bend the knee to Cæsar, and with them Marino lived, working, praying, and singing the Psalms of David, a simple "deacon" of the Christian community, all enjoying the greatest of human treasures, "the dignity of work, the freedom of belief." The heroic resistance to oppression, the rejection of Napoleon's tempting offer of enlarged territory, the constancy with which the little republic withstood the insidious offers of the bishops of Montefeltro, of the Malatesta, of Valentino, of the Farnese, were set in high relief. The words attributed to Marino, "Relinquo vos liberos ab utroque homine" (I leave you free from the one and the other man), could not have been spoken by Marino—the Roman conception of Christianity in the fourth century could not have realized the barbaric idea of the double feudalism of Empire and of Church; but those words ring out the truth of the tenth and eleventh centuries, when the first (unknown) biographer of Marino recorded his life and deeds. The city grew up really free "from the one and the other," from Emperor and Pope, from lord and bishop. Alone she held her ground as a republic, without the favor or permission of Cæsar or of Peter, by the natural course of events, the hereditary tradition of her people. So she maintained the ancient liberty forfeited elsewhere, her people living, praying, and working round the tomb of her good founder. Hence that which Aristotle called *isonomia* and deemed necessary in a perfect republic, that which the French Revolution sanctioned in the formula "equality of all before the law," grew up in San Marino, a spontaneous emanation of the will of simple men.

The last, most glorious record of the republic bears date of July 31, 1849:

"When a self-styled great republic crushed without conquering the heroic republic of Joseph Mazzini, then this little republic of San Marino protected in Garibaldi the supreme efforts of Italic virtue militant. Hither came the hero, preceded by Francesco Nullo, the brave of braves, and by Ugo Bassi, the martyr monk. Ancient and modern Italy knocked at thy gates, O good republic. 'Two armies pursue and surround me,' said the hero. 'My soldiers are exhausted with hunger and fatigue. Give me bread and a little repose for them. Here we will lay down our arms; here the war for Italian independence shall cease.' And you and your fathers, face to face with the on-pressing enemy, gave bread and rest and consolation to the hunted, vanquished brothers; gave the viaticum to the fugitives, and sped them on their way; and the shadow of the republic saved the hero to preside over Italy's happier destinies. Blessed be thou for all time, San Marino, by all Italian hearts which live and shall live for liberty and the fatherland. And you, O citizens, inscribe on the gate of your city the date of July 31, 1849, and on one side the words of Garibaldi to his soldiers on that day, 'Return to your homes, but remember that Italy must not remain in servitude and shame,' and on the other the words he addressed to you when brighter days had dawned: 'Ever shall I remember the generous hospitality of San Marino in that hour of supreme misfortune for me and for Italy.'

"O republic imbued with the noble spirit of history even in thy day of small things! as in the twilight of ancient Rome thou wast chosen to preserve the ashes of Italian liberty scattered to the winds, so in the resurrection of Rome to other destinies thou wert again chosen to save the new fortunes of Italy. All honor to thee, ancient, virtuous, generous, trusting republic; honor to thee! And mayst thou live eternal with the life and glory of Italy."

The people, gathered in their beautiful new town hall, who had listened with wrapt attention to the discourse, which lasted an hour, burst into wild applause as the poet's clarion voice rang out the final words, and tears rolled down the cheeks of the Regent Belluzzi, the friend of Mazzini and Garibaldi, who now, in his eighty-seventh year, as the closing act of his term of power, had to declare the new Govment building formally opened—touched to the heart by Carducci's glowing tribute to his beloved and well-served republic. A gem, indeed, is the new palace, "designed, built, and decorated as in the times of our fathers"—that is, in the style of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries—so that, looking up to it from the piazza, you can fancy yourself in Florence gazing at the Bargello or the Palazzo Vecchio. From the belfry tower the underlying panorama baffles description. The hills and mountains, streams and rivers that surround and cross the widespread plain have each a record of their own. There is Tassona, where Garibaldi made his last stand against the Austrians before seeking refuge in San Marino. Down there Cesenatico, where his hopes of reaching Venice were baffled, where Anita, who refused his entreaties to remain with the hospitable Sammarinese, died in his arms; and while we are gazing and listening comes up to be presented an old, old veteran, Nicola Zani by name, who, at the risk of his own life, after Anita's death, guided Garibaldi through forests and by steep paths across the mountains into safety. But the summons comes to "attend the banquet," a simple genial feast, where the chief toasts are for the old Regents, Carducci, and the sovereigns of United Italy. Telegrams are sent by the Regents to Crispi and the King, and promptly Umberto I. answers back:

"I thank your Excellencies, and the Queen thanks you, for the sentiments you express in the name of the most serene Republic of San Marino inaugurating the new palace of the Government. I am glad that the busts of my august consort and myself attest to the Republic my sincere affection, which I inherit from the King my father. Joining in your joy to-day, I indulge in fervent hopes for the prosperity of the people whose records are pure, century-old glories of Italy."

After the banquet there is a grand representation at the theatre, where Angelo Masini and Lena Bordato bring down the house with applause; then a brilliant *veglione*, and the lads and lasses dance merrily till six in the morning of the 1st of October, that day of days in 1860 when Garibaldi telegraphed from the Volturno, "Victory along all the line." At eleven the old Regents and the new assemble in the church erected on the old site where Marino built his little *sacello* temple, and where his bones repose. The militia are there in their simple, beautiful uniform, and Consolo, the great violinist, intones his new grand hymn composed for the occasion. After the short mass, all repair to the Government Building, where Belluzzi the noble, Marcucci the peasant, Regents take their seats for the last time on the dais. Our host, Prof. Marino Fattori, delivers an eloquent, erudite address, expounding his theme, "Bonæ leges boni mores, boni mores bonæ leges," to which all present listen attentively—Carducci with frank appreciation. Then the new Regents, the noble Regent for the city and the peasant (this time a schoolmaster) for the Borgo, take the oath. Next the old Regents proceed to take off their white and pale blue collars, insignia of office, and place them on the necks of the new, deposit in a coffer the huge keys of the city gates of the Borgo, the prison, and the treasury, and hand the coffer to their successors, who now take their seats on the dais, whence the old Regents descend and become simple citizens once more. The ceremony is ended; the military bands play the march of San Marino and Garibaldi's hymn, while the old and new Regents, the con-

suls, and dignitaries, officers, priests, and people march in a pouring rain, halt at the old palace while the band plays, and then disperse to their several homes and their various occupations.

The consular body put on a fine appearance —the French consul in splendid array; the Austrian consul in a simple uniform; the Italian consul wearing among other decorations a medal given him by Garibaldi for military valor during the siege of Rome; Prof. Malagola, consul of Bologna, a talented writer, as serious and active in the interests of this tiny republic as though he represented the United States of America. In honor of the occasion the republic has printed 100,000 beautiful postcards and postage stamps of one lira, half a lira, and twenty-five centesimi, which, by formal arrangement, are to pass current for ten days only.

And now, alas, we must bid farewell to this peaceful, prosperous, hard-working, happy community, where $2,000 covers all expenses of state and commune, where *dazii* (imposts) are unknown, "stone, corn, and wine" supplying the wants of the good inhabitants, who can yet boast splendid elementary schools, a gymnasium, a lyceum, and numerous youths who hold professorships in the educational institutions of the great fatherland, as they call our Italy. "Viva la repubblica! Viva la libertà!" May San Marino live for ever, "a memory, a witness, an admonition." J. W. M.

## SOME CONTINENTAL LIBRARIES.

VENICE, September, 1894.

THE older libraries of the Continent remind one of some prehistoric tool of which the use has been forgotten. The American scholar, wandering among the shelves courting burial under the dust of ages, gloats over the MS. treasures, the folioed archives, the work of early printers and engravers, and makes sad comparison with the meagre collections of his own land. He is apt to forget that, except for a few erudites like himself, these hoards might as well be buried with that of the Nibelungs. A sealed book in more senses than one they are to the mass of even intelligent people. A knowledge of cursives and uncials, an acquaintance with parchment and purple dyes, is needed to make them either attractive or significant.

Is there, perhaps, a younger generation of libraries growing up alongside of these hoary ancestors, a generation alive to its own work, not resting on old achievements? It is this question which I have set myself to investigate, as circumstances permit. The statistics of public libraries on the Continent may be had in German in Gräsel's edition of Petzholdt's 'Grundzüge der Bibliothekslehre,' or in Reyer's 'Entwickelung und Organisation der Volksbibliotheken,' published early this year at Leipzig. The subject is attracting increased attention in Germany and in Italy, and the profession in both countries has followed our example in establishing schools or courses in library science for the training of those who wish and are qualified to enter upon the librarian's career. The Italian school is in Milan, the most modern of Italian cities, under the auspices of the Biblioteca Nazionale of Brera, while in Germany a course in library science is given at the University of Göttingen. Of neither of these can I as yet speak from personal knowledge, though I hope to be able to do so later. The chief librarian at Göttingen, Prof. Karl Dziatzko, well and favorably known to librarians through his work on cataloguing, is in charge of the German course, and writes me as follows in regard to it:

"I give every week a few hours of lecture, in which I endeavor above all to stimulate to independent work in the subject under discussion; I give besides exercises in which the students take part. Moreover, I allow some of the members who share in the bibliographical exercises to learn the practical service of the library in all departments. As a rule, the course lasts a year, but can of course be finished sooner with a less solid foundation. . . . My lectures begin about the last of October. I shall give two hours per week on the history of printing and of books since the Reformation. The cost for the entire winter term is ten marks. I give also, gratis, an hour's exercise per week in the reading of Latin MSS."

An eminent American librarian expressed to me not long ago a doubt if the deliberate teaching of bibliography and kindred branches could ever be of more than superficial value; years of work in a good collection under scholarly superiors seeming to him a better kind of training and one more likely to evolve genuine scholarship. It was a discouraging opinion, since it would necessarily follow that librarians like himself must continue to be hampered by assistants needing years of experimental education in order to make them valuable. The Germans seem to be of a different mind, judging from the work outlined by Prof. Dziatzko; and if their previous success in undertaking and carrying on difficult pieces of work be a criterion, we may expect them to send out not the perfected librarian, but students knowing the rudiments of bibliography and furnished with guides and landmarks for future study, their interest and ambition already aroused to the work of investigation in their chosen field. It is not to be denied that, because of the larger and richer collections here and the greater number of learned librarians to serve as instructors, such courses have a much greater chance of success than with us in the United States.

Finding, when in Bayreuth, from my bit of a guide-book, that there was a public library in the city, I betook myself to it on the one day and during the two hours in the week when it was reported open for the use of the 80,000 inhabitants. Experience had taught me that, as regards books, supply excites demand, and I did not therefore expect to find myself at the end of a queue of citizens reaching out through the courtyard into the street, on account of the restricted time for drawing books. On the contrary, I was scarcely surprised to find myself and one other person, a man reading a newspaper, the only visitors. My arrival seemed to excite the curiosity of the other visitor as well as of the librarian; it was easy to see that they wondered what on earth had brought me there. Nothing could have exceeded the courtesy shown me, however, when I stated that I should like to see the library and to draw a book. With the ordinary town-library at home, to show it means to explain its system of working, to give the figures of its circulation, to tell what it is doing, etc.; here it means to show any treasures the shelves may contain. The librarian seemed a little troubled that he could produce no MSS., illuminated or otherwise, except a small vellum-bound prayer-book in Arabic, used, or at least owned, by the last Catholic Margrave of Bayreuth. There was also a Lucas Kranach portrait, which he took from its box and dusted before exhibiting it; and these to him seemed to constitute the sole claim of the library to rank and respect. He had not even a Wagner manuscript, though the printed works stood on the shelves, with numerous pamphlets—and this was really a pity. One thing, however, had always been kept in mind—possibly, there may be a law in regard to it: the local journals had been carefully bound each year, and that much of local history secured.

I learned that about two hundred volumes were purchased yearly, and that about the same number of persons drew books, although, as the librarian was quick to remind me, a "book" sometimes consisting of several volumes, the circulation was really larger than appeared from his records. Books were allowed out for four weeks at a time, and even, in case the reader was engaged in scholarly researches, as long as a year, provided, of course, no one else called for them. A whole set, such as Shakspere's plays, might go out at once, at the librarian's discretion. One could easily see the convenience of this arrangement for certain students, who like to retire with their booty to some convenient hole, there to enjoy it in quiet; but for others, who prefer to mouse about among the shelves, choosing their favorite nutriment, and dropping at once into a chair to devour it, the absence of reading-room and reference-room must be a great drawback.

When it came to the question of lending me a book, there was not the slightest hesitation, although Bayreuth was full of strangers. I signed my name to a printed receipt, the facts of the transaction were placed upon a sort of day-book under the headings, Date, Place (of book), Title, Borrower, Date of Return, and the formalities were over. The question of returning the book raised a difficulty, since I should have left the city before the next day of opening. At first the librarian evidently thought he might call for it at my lodgings, but he was rector in a gymnasium and probably had no time to spare, and he finally asked me to bring or send it to his house. This I promised to do, and carried out my promise in a drizzling rain, though the walk was a long one, rather than cause a moment's anxiety to one who had shown such gratifying confidence in my honesty. At parting he offered me a printed catalogue of the library, and when I, seeing a posted notice of the price, suggested payment, he waved it away, saying, with a humorous twinkle in his eye, "*Bitte—mit Collegen!*" and I enjoyed the joke of a woman's presuming to be a librarian quite as much as he.

The public library at Nürnberg was open, according to the local guide-book, for two hours on three days in the week, but this proved to be for sight-seers who wished to see the archives and the library treasures and curios. To the citizens it was open from eight A. M. to five P. M. on these days, though this we had to discover for ourselves. It occupies, as so many German libraries seem to do, an old monastery building rendered useless for its original purpose by the Reformation. The walls in several of the rooms show traces of frescoes, though whitewash has almost succeeded in effacing them. If, however, these were no better than the ones that are left, nothing has been lost to the art-world, except possibly from the historic point of view. The building stands next the Rathhaus, and encloses a square court-yard as full of quaint carved surprises as most Nürnberg structures of ancient date. On the ground floor, in the dampness and mouldiness of which, strange to say, the library's choicest MSS. are kept, we were shown about in the usual perfunctory way, and in return emitted the usual perfunctory Ohs! and Ahs! of the sight-seer. Convinced

that the citizens must have something to read besides these musty folios, we declined to be dismissed when the tour was finished, and asked for the *public* library. "The place where books are given out?" "Yes, yes, that is what we want." "That is up stairs, then," replied the attendant, and we followed him across the court-yard, realizing from his demeanor that we had asked an almost unheard-of thing. The librarian with one assistant was busy with his records, while a student was poring over some maps in the same room. The attendant went before us to prefer our request, and we were most hospitably treated, and informed that we might see the library throughout and draw books also during our week's stay. Here, however, as in Bayreuth, the idea of a woman being interested in libraries seemed to afford polite amusement to the library officials, which we thought was perhaps a fair return for our obligation.

There was a tiny reading-room in this old library in which one might be inspired to all sorts of mediæval dreams if one had time to sit in it, and plenty of imagination. The ceilings are groined, and the walls frescoed with monks and saints, while the windows are of thick circular pieces of colored glass set in iron. We asked how many books were added each year, and were told pensively, "Not many —we have only 1,500 marks for books." About four hundred borrowers used the library, the guide added. There was, as in Bayreuth, no formality in regard to taking the books wanted, beyond the signing of a receipt and the giving of our address. No limit was set to the number of books, nor time prescribed for returning them, though it was known that we were merely tourists at a hotel and that our stay was to be brief. Lest this recital of privileges should be misleading, I must say that we were accompanied by a professional letter of introduction, yet such is the apparent confidence of the Germans in one's honesty and good intentions that I think we might have obtained the same privileges without any voucher for our character.

When the time came to return the books, we had not quite finished one of them, yet the following day was that of our departure and a day when the library was not open. What could be done? We laid the matter before the librarian, who at once proved to us that nothing could be easier than the solution of this problem, by directing that the book be returned by means of a *Dienstmann* (messenger) or through the hotel porter after our departure. After this and the Bayreuth experiences, I began to ask myself if the iron-clad rules of many of our libraries in regard to non-residents might not be modified to advantage in the direction of a little more confidence in human nature. The value to the tourist even of studying or reading the history or literature appropriate to his place of sojourn may be easily recognized by the librarian who turns tourist for the nonce, and finds himself on the outside of the barrier erected by general consent between books and the people.

MARY W. PLUMMER.

# Correspondence.

## DETAIL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The use of this verb and substantive, in the senses, 'to select as an officer or soldier for a division, brigade, regiment, or battalion,' and 'a selecting of officers or soldiers from the rosters,' evidently began in the United States. These definitions appear in 'Webster's Dictionary,' 1828, and I know of no other examples so early. Webster, however, cites *Law of Massachusetts* as his authority for the sense of the verb. Will some correspondent of the *Nation* kindly send me *at once* a dated quotation for the word from this source (my postal address is Dr. Murray, Oxford, England)? The sense does not seem to have been much known in England before the American civil war. It is much to be regretted that American dictionaries are so lamentably deficient in dealing with the history of words and senses of American origin, and that they leave it to Englishmen to do this work.

J. A. H. MURRAY.

OXFORD, October 8, 1894.

## ROMAIC AND GREEK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The paper of M. Gennadios in the October *Forum* is essentially identical with many predecessors. Its doctrine is just what every Greek who can obtain a hearing in the Occident feels it his patriotic duty to preach. Mr. Alden's letter in your issue of yesterday is also fairly representative of what nearly every Philhellene feels, at a certain stage in his contact with the modern land, folk, and speech. Silence would probably be better strategy than any retort. A fairly uniform pronunciation of classic Greek, not very remote from the best attainable, has been secured in America. The natural force of conservatism will long be its best protector. But "Die Wahrheit ist auch gut Ding!"

Modern Romaic, as actually spoken by the Greek people, and as it may be read in their popular songs, comic papers, etc., is a phonetically debased patois, or group of patois, bearing about the same relation to classic Greek that the Neapolitan dialect does to literary Latin. That is, the words are mostly traceable to Hellenic roots; the spirit of the speech is modern. It is as analytical as, and hardly more highly inflected than, Plattdeutsch. It has no important literature.

It is a great pity Koraes and his friends did not introduce a rationally phonetic spelling, like that of Italian. Romaic has the same five vowel sounds as the latter; but the dead lumber of seven vowels, seven (or ten) "diphthongs," two breathings, three accents, etc., are part of a pedantic attempt to back this patois off towards Xenophontic Greek. The newspaper Greek, which we are told to talk, has quite an Hellenic appearance to the eye. It is sufficiently artificial to be a foreign speech to the Athenian himself. It is not the tongue in which he makes love, or quarrels, or chats with his wife, children, and friends. I once asked a Greek gentleman how one ought to say, "I cannot leave the room." He answered carefully, "Δὲν δύναμαι νὰ ἐξέλθω ἐκ τοῦ δωματίου." I laughed, and queried, "Yes—very elegant! And how do *you* really say it? "Well, *we* say: 'Δὲν ἠμπορῶ νὰ φύγω ἀπὸ τὴν κάμαραν.'" We must choose a mild example to be understood at all; but "Then imborò naffígo apotinggámeran" is, surely, a less close survival than is, *e. g.*, "Non posso uscire dalla camera." The evolution of "then" from οὖν is described by the modern Greek as οὖν = οὐδέν = δέν = then; *i. e.*, A = A+B = B = b'! A typical equation.

But even this elegant journalistic Greek has no trace of optative, infinitive, or ἄν; no true future or perfect, no dative (save in very "high style"). It is an easy language to acquire, but not a pleasant one, for those who really know their Platonic Greek.

To the amazement of many of us, the conviction has been uttered recently from the walls of Alma Mater herself, that we must eventually decide to make this modern patois our stepping-stone to the classical speech! That Prof. Goodwin, in particular, can feel any interest in a Greek which lacks all the elements just mentioned, seems strange. The essential question, however, is one which M. Gennadios keeps quite in the background. The thing really worth fighting over is the problem of Greek pronunciation. All unprejudiced scholars who have studied inscriptions, with their numberless variations in spelling from one city, generation, or even stone, to the next, know the ancients had a rational, and approximately phonetic, orthography. Now—to pass over such niceties as a fricative β and δ, the use of υ in the value of our *v* and *f*, the treatment of rough and smooth breathings as alike meaningless—the Romaic method would require us to pronounce *three* vowels and *four* diphthongs all alike *ee* (viz, η ι υ ει υι οι η). The indicative, subjunctive, and optative of any regular verb become identical, *e. g.*, λύεις λύῃς λύοις are all *lee-ees*. ἡμεῖς and ὑμεῖς are uttered precisely alike in each case. Or, again, ἧς (Latin *sis*), ἶς (*vis*), ὗς (*sus*), εἰς (*in*), οἷς (*quibus*), ἧς (*cujus*), and a dozen words besides, all become *ees!* Etc., *ad infinitum*.

The language of Sophocles and of Plato is still full of throbbing life and beauty for any who have the perception and the persistency needed to attain to its enjoyment. It is still, I say, alive; but through Romaic phonetics lies the road to death, indeed.

All this pedantry in Greece has been a misfortune to speech and people. It has substituted an artificial and unreal thing for a truly national and natural development. Real Romaic contains much interesting material for the professional philologist—*e. g.*, the mixed aorist form (like εἶπα) is found both in Homer and Herodotus and in Romaic. Such things are sometimes wonderful survivals, sometimes chance revivals. One remarkable power of distinction has been developed, not enjoyed by classic Greek or any well-known modern speech. The distinction between imperfect and aorist, *e. g.*, ἔτρωγον (I was eating, used to eat, etc.) and ἔφαγον (I ate then) can be made in the *future also*—θὰ τρώγω, θὰ φάγω. What a pity this interesting modern speech should wish to masquerade in borrowed plumes.

Perhaps you will permit me, having already encroached on your space too far, to refer to an article published a decade ago (*Atlantic Monthly*, September, 1885, pp. 399 ff., "Ancient and Modern Greek") for a fuller, though necessarily untechnical, discussion of these questions.

WM. C. LAWTON.

OCTOBER 12, 1894.

# Notes.

MACMILLAN & Co. have undertaken to publish a series of works edited by a well-known Jewish scholar, and embraced under the general title of "The Jewish Library." No topics are yet announced. They have also in course of publication 'The Souvenirs of the Prince de Joinville.'

Fleming H. Revell Co. are on the point of bringing out 'Before He is Twenty; Phases of the Boy Question Considered,' by Mrs. Frances

Hodgson Burnett, Mrs. Burton Harrison, Mrs. Lyman Abbott, and other writers.

A reprint of Alexander S. Withers's 'Chronicles of Border Warfare,' a history of the white settlement of northwestern Virginia, first published in 1831, is announced by Robert Clarke Co., Cincinnati. Mr. Reuben G. Thwaites, secretary of the Wisconsin Historical Society, will edit this limited edition, which will not be stereotyped.

A. C. McClurg & Co. have in preparation 'England in the 19th Century,' by Mrs. Elizabeth W. Latimer, and 'Woman in Epigram,' compiled by Frederick W. Morton.

J. B. Lippincott's fall publications will embrace Masson's 'Napoleon at Home' and 'Napoleon and the Women of his Court,' and Waliszewski's 'Around a Throne (Catherine II. of Russia)'; 'Henry of Navarre and the Religious Wars,' by Edward T. Blair; 'Lives of the Astronomers,' by Robert S. Ball; 'Pen and Pencil Sketches,' by Henry Stacy Marks; 'Books and Plays,' by Allan Monkhouse; 'The Autobiography of a Boy,' by G. S. Street; William Hazlitt's 'Liber Amoris'; Mme. de Staël's 'Corinne'; the Translations of Thomas Carlyle, in three volumes; the Works of Sterne in six; and 'Early English Ballads,' chosen by R. Brimley Johnson, in four volumes.

Burrows Bros. Co., Cleveland, will issue a 'Narrative of Events in France from the Landing of Napoleon, March 1, 1815, to the Restoration of Louis XVIII.,' by Helen Maria Williams; and a new edition, with an index, of Martha Walker Freer's 'Life of Marguerite of Navarre.'

'The Gospel of Buddha, according to Old Records,' told by Paul Carus, is to be brought out by the Open Court Publishing Co., Chicago, and B. Westermann & Co., New York.

Ginn & Co. will have ready next month 'An Introduction to the Verse of Terence,' by Herman W. Hayley of Harvard; and in December 'A German Scientific Reader,' by Prof. G. Theodore Dippold of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

The *Bookman* for October makes several interesting announcements. The late Walter Pater, it appears, has left behind him a considerable number of unpublished essays, which will be prepared for the press by his friend, Mr. C. L. Shadwell, the translator of Dante. The first volume to be issued will be a series of Greek studies, to be followed by another of the same general character as 'Imaginary Portraits.' Pater's unfinished 'Gaston de Latour' will also be republished. Mr. Aubrey Beardsley, we are told, is not content with his successes in one branch of art—though they would seem to have been such as to suffice a more ambitious man who was also more self-critical—and is trying his hand at writing. Mr. John Lane will shortly publish a volume of his with a long title which begins, 'The Story of Venus and Tannhäuser.' Other forthcoming books are A. H. Millar's 'Fife: Pictorial and Historical,' a comprehensive county history, copiously illustrated (Messrs. Westwood of Cupar), and the *édition de luxe* of 'The Faerie Queen,' to be published by Mr. George Allen and illustrated by Mr. Walter Crane. This edition will come out in eighteen monthly parts, large post quarto, and one thousand copies will be printed. The text will follow as closely as is practicable the quartos of 1590 and 1596.

We have received from J. B. Lippincott Co. a new edition of Thiers's 'History of the Consulate and the Empire of France under Napoleon,' in twelve volumes, and the first two volumes out of five of the same author's 'History of the French Revolution.' This revival we owe, of course, to the present rubbing up of the Napoleonic legend. Both issues are uniform in typography and binding, which are of the very best, and both are illustrated; and the larger work has an index of 76 pages. We can and need say no more to commend them to the attention of librarians and book-lovers; but we may hereafter improve the occasion to speak a little to their contents.

Other reprints of the week have been, first, Mr. Justin McCarthy's 'History of Our Own Times,' extended to date by Mr. G. Mercer Adam, who gives four chapters to events since Mr. Gladstone entered upon his second ministry in 1880, and a fresh literary survey, from which Edward FitzGerald is conspicuously absent. Mr. Adam's piecing is not a match for the original cloth in any aspect, but the two volumes, which are issued by Lovell, Coryell & Co., have of course gained in value for reference, especially as the index has been made anew and numerous portraits have been inserted. From T. Y. Crowell & Co. we have Sir Walter Scott's Poetical Works in two volumes, with double-columned page, not to be remarked for beauty; and a two-volume edition of Boswell's Life of Johnson, more attractive typographically, and neatly bound, as is the Scott. The altogether charming Dent-Macmillan Shakspere goes on with "As You Like It" and "The Taming of the Shrew." Lastly, we will mention a reissue of Dr. Holmes's poem 'The Last Leaf,' in the form illustrated by George Wharton Edwards and F. Hopkinson Smith (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The suggestion is obvious; but the publishers are able to prefix a facsimile of a letter of the genial author written July 12, 1894, relating to this edition, and speaking of himself as "one of the very last of the leaves which still cling to the bough of life that budded in the spring of the nineteenth century." "It was," he says, "with a smile on my lips that I wrote" the verses with which the melancholy Lincoln nursed his bruised affections.

Under the title of 'Studies in Folk-song and Popular Poetry' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), Mr. Alfred M. Williams has printed a number of essays, some of which had already appeared as magazine or newspaper articles. "Studies" is a misnomer. The papers are intelligent and appreciative, well-written, usually well-informed; they show rather wide literary sympathies and some critical power; but they are not monographs or investigations. They range in subject from "English and Scottish Popular Ballads" to "Folk-songs of the Civil War"—nor could any range be less confined, for what the author calls (by another misnomer) "the folk-songs" of the war have little in common with genuine folk-song. The chapter on sailors' "shanties" is entertaining, but does not come to much. Those on Breton ballads, songs of Poitou, Hungary, etc., consist in large part of translated specimens. The selections are made with uniform good taste, but they are rendered with very various degrees of felicity. The sketch of William Thom, the weaver-poet, is delicately written and full of melancholy interest. As a whole, the book is good reading for a leisure hour and will win the author new friends.

Baedeker's 'Canada' (New York: Scribners) is a companion of his 'United States,' which met with such instant favor. It has been edited by the same skilful compiler, Mr. J. F. Muirhead, who has again drawn for assistance on the best talent. It is introduced by chapters on the Constitution of Canada by Dr. Boudinot, on geography and geology by Dr. Dawson, and on sports and pastimes by Messrs. Fuller and Chambers. With these are coupled the chief dates in Canadian history and a bibliography. The maps and plans are abundant, and include New York and vicinity, the Saguenay River, the Rocky Mountains Park of Canada, the coast of British Columbia and Alaska, the chief cities, etc. Newfoundland, which comes within the scope of this guide-book, is mapped only in connection with the continent. The text is free from flattery, and is not primarily concerned with patriotism or national vanity. On both sides of the line the book will be welcomed and trusted.

The monograph on Thomas Gainsborough by Walter Armstrong, which makes up the September number of the *Portfolio* (Macmillan), is a satisfactory piece of work and conveys a good idea of the character and art of the peppery rival of cool Sir Joshua. Gainsborough had little literary culture and few friendships with literary men, and has, therefore, not been embalmed in English literature as has Reynolds, whose name is a household word; but he was an artist to the finger-ends, and his achievement seems to us of a finer and rarer kind than Reynolds's own. How lovely and distinguished his best work is, is well shown by several of the illustrations, which are excellent, and convey as much as black and white can of the works of a colorist.

A correspondent in Chicago writes to us, under date of October 15: "In your last issue your reviewer speculates upon the reason for the title of 'Lives of Twelve Bad Men.' Does it not, obviously, refer back to 'Lives of Twelve Good Men,' by Dean Burgon, a book containing short histories of a dozen Oxford worthies, which was published in 1888?"

The article of greatest popular interest in the *Geographical Journal* for October is Mr. J. Theodore Bent's account of his recent expedition to the Hadramut in southern Arabia. This is a singular valley running for a hundred miles nearly parallel to the coast, and on the average about that distance from it, and inhabited by intensely fanatical Bedouins and Arabs. Though known from remotest antiquity as the centre of the trade in frankincense and myrrh, no European has succeeded in reaching it till last year, Mr. Bent's party being the second. The name means in the Himyaritic language 'valley of death,' which "in Hebrew form corresponds exactly to that of Hazarmaveth of the tenth chapter of Genesis." It is a fact, interesting especially to Biblical students, that the most sacred places in the valley are the primitive tombs of the legendary prophets Saleh and Hud (or Eber, a synonymous term), names which will be found in Genesis in close connection with that of the valley. The appearance of the valley from the arid plateau is very remarkable. It contains some fine and lofty palaces, rich in carving, and ruins of great antiquity, somewhat similar to those found in South Africa, and exhibiting a few Himyaritic inscriptions. The jealousy of some of the tribes, however, prevented any thorough exploration, which Mr. Bent reserves for a second expedition. Dr. Gregory describes the physical geography of British East Africa, and extracts are given from the journal of Captain Larsen kept during the voyage of the Norwegian whaler *Jason* to the Antarctic regions last winter. The unusual absence of ice enabled him to trace for a considerable distance south the hitherto unexplored coast of Graham Land. When farthest south less cold, fog, and snow were encountered than farther north.

A rather dry account of Corsica, compact with information, scientific and historical, is contributed by Mr. R. Richardson to the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for October. The island is suffering at present from the repeal in 1888 of the commercial treaty between France and Italy. This has closed its sole market, Italy, as the French do not use the Corsican pine for shipbuilding, nor do they endeavor to develop the considerable mineral wealth of Corsica. Since at least half of the island is covered with forests, the author suggests that it would be greatly to the advantage of the Corsicans if this portion should be turned into a game preserve. There is an admirable map, showing the forests, the ore-beds, the roads, and even the paths.

Mr. E. Durand-Gréville has an interesting essay on "Les grains et les orages" (squalls and thunder-storms) in a recent number of the *Annales du Bureau Central Météorologique de France*, in which he shows the essential connection of these two classes of disturbances, when occurring in fully developed form. His work confirms the conclusions of various earlier students, and extends them to fuller statement and illustration, particularly in connection with a thunder-storm squall that swept over northwestern Europe on April 27, 1890. Its path and progress and the peculiar inflexion of the isobaric lines at the place of its occurrence are well illustrated.

Supplementary to the list of geographical lantern slides prepared for use in the Cambridge public schools by Prof. W. M. Davis, a standard list of cloud photographs and lantern slides has been made up from the collections in the Harvard geographical laboratory by Mr. R. DeC. Ward, assistant in meteorology. There are twenty-eight numbers in the list, which is published, with explanatory notes, in the *American Meteorological Journal* for July. The prints or slides may be obtained of E. E. Howell, 612 Seventeenth Street, Washington, who also acts as agent for the geographical slides.

We read in the *Bollettino* of the National Central Library of Florence, for September 15, of the steps being taken abroad to carry out the proposal made at Chicago last year of a society for the autotype reproduction of "non-tourist" manuscripts—*i. e.*, such MSS. as cannot be loaned out of the library. The proposer, Otto Hartwig, director of the University Library at Halle, has set in motion W. N. du Rieu, director of the University Library at Leyden, by designating this library as the seat of the proposed organization. Leading librarians have been consulted as to the practical details of operation and maintenance, and an agreement is likely to be reached in the course of the present year.

—Macmillan & Co. have just published, in two neat volumes, a cheap but well-printed edition of Chaucer's 'Canterbury Tales,' prepared by Mr. A. W. Pollard. The text follows the Ellesmere MS. in the main, departing from it only under compulsion. The notes, which are at the bottom of the page, have no pretensions to originality or research. They aim to convey such information, in the way of glosses and the clearing up of allusions, as is absolutely necessary to the everyday reader, and in this they are tolerably successful. By a strange error of editorial judgment, these purely practical notes are encumbered with a considerable number of various readings. If variants are in place at all in an edition of this kind—which we doubt, except so far as they are necessary to record departures from the manuscript chosen as the basis of the text—they should, in mercy to the reader, be kept by themselves. The preliminary matter is confined to a rambling "Introduction" of about thirty pages, which is pleasantly enough written, but in no way distinguished. The second volume has a brief glossary, which omits references. Altogether, the edition is not one to be greeted with much enthusiasm, so far as the editor's work is concerned; but publishers and printer have done their part well, and the volumes are undeniably handy.

—The good example which the Bishop of Oxford, Dr. Stubbs (then Regius Professor of Modern History at Oxford), set as long ago as 1870, in the publication of a convenient collection of original documents for the use of historical students, is at last being followed by other English scholars. Mr. S. R. Gardiner has recently produced a volume of 'Constitutional Documents of the Puritan Revolution, 1628-1660'; and now Mr. Prothero of King's College, Cambridge, has supplied us with a companion volume for the preceding period, in his 'Select Statutes and Other Constitutional Documents Illustrative of the Reigns of Elizabeth and James I.' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan). It is a careful and scholarly piece of work, including a considerable number of official papers very necessary for an understanding of the period, but hitherto unprinted; and it is preceded by a long, judicious, and dignified introduction. Such a book will be very useful to students of every kind, and it will be especially handy for the purposes of teaching. It is the last thought, however, that somewhat diminishes our satisfaction. The one thing lacking in the book—as in Dr. Stubbs's 'Select Charters'—is an account of the sources from which the documents and excerpts are drawn, though most of them are easily accessible in a good library. Such an account would not only have enabled readers the better to appreciate the significance of the passages set before them, but would have suggested to at least a few of them that it was not so very difficult to go to the sources for themselves. German historians may have made too much of their "Quellen" and "Litteratur"; English historians, partly under the influence of the belles-lettristic spirit, partly, as in this case, from a certain schoolmasterly temper, have certainly made too little of them. The main thing, it may be answered, is that students should understand the period itself, and a few documents carefully considered may do more to this end than hundreds hastily turned over. This is true, and we would by no means imply that the German method is in all respects the best. And yet it does seem a pity in various ways that men should be able to study history for a couple of years at a great university and distinguish themselves in the examinations, without its ever being suggested to them to go to the library shelves and take down the *Statutes of the Realm* or the *Fœdera*. We can hardly be surprised at the little original work that has hitherto come out of the History Schools in Oxford and Cambridge, excellent as their services to England have been in other ways.

—M. A. Rebière publishes as a separate brochure a part of his forthcoming book on 'Mathematics and Mathematicians,' under the title 'Les Femmes dans la Science' (Paris: Librairie Nony). By "science" he means, however, only mathematical science. He gives an interesting account, not quite too French, of Hypatia, Madame du Châtelet, Agnesi, Sophie Germain, Mrs. Somerville, and, greatest of them all, Kovalevsky. In regard to Sophie Germain, he quotes this sentence from Navier apropos of one of her works: "I appreciate as it deserves a memoir so remarkable that few men can read it, and that only one woman could have written it." He suggests that an epigraph prefixed to one of Poinsot's books, "Sophiæ germana mathesis," contained an allusion to the fair mathematician. In this connection we may call attention to the fact that the second instalment of Kovalevsky's 'Souvenirs d'Enfance,' which is now appearing in the *Revue de Paris*, is a human document of very unusual interest. The central figure of the picture of life on a Russian estate, so far, is not the mathematician herself, but her sister—a remarkable character, whose development is depicted with great dramatic force.

—The extent to which therapeutic experiments in hypnotic suggestion are exciting the attention of physicians and awakening the interest of the general public, may be inferred from the fact that during the past year more than a hundred books and brochures, especially devoted to the discussion of this subject, have been published. One of the most valuable of these is the small volume just issued by Bong in Berlin, entitled 'Die Bedeutung der hypnotischen Suggestion als Heilmittel.' The author, Dr. J. Grossmann, editor of the *Zeitschrift für Hypnotismus*, prints communications from thirty of the most eminent professors and physicians of Europe, giving the results of their experience in the application of hypnotic suggestion to the healing of disease. Thus Van Ceden and Van Reuterghem of Amsterdam report that from May 5, 1887, to June 30, 1893, in the institution under their charge, 1,098 patients were subjected to this treatment; of these 28.28 per cent. were entirely cured, 23.69 per cent. permanently improved, 21.02 per cent. slightly bettered, 17.81 per cent. unaffected, and in 9.18 per cent. of the cases the results are unknown. Dr. Wetterstrand of Stockholm has used this method of medical treatment in 7,000, and Dr. Bernheim of Nancy in 12,000 cases, and both express themselves strongly in favor of it. Indeed, Dr. Bernheim does not hesitate to declare that the study of hypnotic suggestion should be made obligatory in all medical schools, and that nowadays a physician who ignores the psychical element in disease, and has no knowledge of the part it plays in pathogeny and therapeutics, is no better than a horse-doctor, and should confine himself to veterinary practice. Another important point brought out by Dr. Krafft-Ebing of Vienna is the influence of "autosuggestion" in the production of disease. The number of ailments and morbid conditions of this kind that have their origin in the nervous system and are indicated by pains, paralysis, and other symptoms of hysterical, hypochondriac, and neurasthenic affections, is astonishing. Although not merely imaginary complaints, they cease with the removal of the "autosuggestive cause," which may be effected by any change of scene banishing it from the thoughts or by heterosuggestion (*Fremdsuggestion*) on the part of a physician, who may impart it verbally or in the disguise of a dose of medicine. In obstinate cases, in which the autosuggestion is firmly intrenched in mental imbecility, superstition, morbid appetites and passions, inveterate habits, or abnormities of character, recourse must be had to hypnotism. That the

great majority of mankind are capable of being hypnotized is shown by the experiments of Dr. Freiherr von Schrenk-Notzing of Munich on 8,705 persons of different nationalities, of whom only 6 per cent. proved to be entirely unsusceptible.

## SKEAT'S CHAUCER.—I.

*The Complete Works of Geoffrey Chaucer.* Edited from numerous manuscripts, by the Rev. Walter W. Skeat, Litt.D., LL.D., etc. Oxford: At the Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1894. Vols. I.–IV.

THE appearance of Chaucer's complete works in an edition prepared by so distinguished a scholar as Prof. Skeat may, without exaggeration, be called an event of much consequence in the annals of English literature. Chaucer has now been popular, with one or two intervals of comparative neglect, for quite five hundred years, and his popularity (we are not speaking of mere bookshelf reputation) is steadily growing; yet there has been no issue of his complete works since 1721. All later editions omit the Boethius and the 'Astrolabe.' Apart from the mere question of absolute completeness, however, Prof. Skeat's volumes mark a date in our literary history. Chaucer's poems have been printed over and over again in this century, but in editions for which even their publishers would scarcely claim more than a stop-gap importance. The widely circulated Aldine edition is handy in form, and contains Sir Harris Nicolas's indispensable "Life"; but it has no notes, and its text is often grotesquely bad. 'Bell's Chaucer' was patched up afresh some years ago, and has maintained itself by dint of being inexpensive and annotated; it too has a poor text, and its notes are not first-rate. The Riverside edition is by its plan restricted to very brief notes, almost exclusively glossarial. Volumes of selections intended for educational purposes are beside the question. The present edition, then, is the first which undertakes to furnish a critical text, founded on serious study of the manuscripts, and to provide all necessary literary and philological apparatus.

It would be superfluous to descant on Prof. Skeat's qualifications for this task. His command of Middle English, his long experience in editing manuscripts, his learning and acuteness, his stupendous industry, and, finally, the nature and extent of his special Chaucerian scholarship, are known wherever our language is studied. The announcement of such a work from such a hand roused very particular expectancy, and its steady progress is matter for congratulation. The four volumes thus far published contain all Chaucer's writings. The fifth volume will contain notes on the 'Canterbury Tales,' together with "all necessary helps for the study of Chaucer, such as remarks on the pronunciation, grammar, and scansion"; the sixth and last volume will furnish the glossary and the index to the whole set. In the present notice we shall confine ourselves to the first three volumes, deferring, for obvious reasons, our observations on the fourth, which contains the text of the Canterbury Tales with an introduction on the manuscripts, until the appearance of the fifth volume.

The annalistic "Life of Chaucer," which stands at the head of the edition, is, in its kind, admirable. Written concisely and with great care, it gives, within the compass of sixty pages, everything known about the poet, with full foot-note references to documents and authorities. For Chaucer's birth Mr. Skeat allows 1330 and 1340 as possible termini, but opines that shortly before 1340 "fits best with *all* the facts"—a highly probable conclusion. He sticks to his belief that Chaucer met Petrarch in Italy in 1373, refusing to admit the ambiguous and nugatory character of the evidence; but he does not much fortify his case by arguing that Chaucer could hardly have got a copy of Petrarch's 'Griselda' unless the author gave it to him or helped him to it. His further comments on this transaction (vol. iii., pp. 454, 455) are not in his best style. The Cecilia Chaumpayne affair is too curtly dismissed, but not without a hint that the "little Lowys" for whom the 'Astrolabe' was composed may have been an illegitimate child. Prof. Lounsbury's interesting discussion is not even referred to. The evidence about Thomas Chaucer is well summed up, and we are glad to see that Mr. Skeat admits its cogency. "There is a high probability," he says, that Thomas was the poet's son. We have never understood how scholars could refuse credit to Gascoigne's express testimony, supported as it is by the heraldic argument.

In marked contrast to most previous biographers, Mr. Skeat refuses to dilate on the romantic story of disappointed love and unhappy marriage which has been extracted from the poet's writings by ingenious critics. A well-digested list of the personal allusions in Chaucer happily replaces the long-familiar string of surmises and assumptions. In this reserve we detect the influence of the lively protest in Prof. Lounsbury's recent 'Studies.' There is only one hypothesis of the usual sort that Mr. Skeat "feels justified in making." The death of the poet's wife, he believes, was "a serious loss to him in one respect at least. Most of his early works are reasonably free from coarseness; whereas such tales as those of the Miller," etc., "can hardly be defended." If this conjecture is not a very important contribution to knowledge, it is at least harmless. One other little departure from his reserve in this kind of biography must be noticed. Chaucer, Mr. Skeat tells us, "complains feelingly of the somewhat severe pressure of his official duties." The delightful passage in the 'Hous of Fame' here referred to contains not a word to which any such turn can fairly be given. The poet simply tells us that, when his work is done and his reckonings all made, he goes home to study, instead of taking rest and recreation. There is no suggestion of complaint. This bit of overstrained interpretation is repeated in the introduction to the 'Hous of Fame' in vol. iii.

In his utterances about the chronology of Chaucer's writings, we find Mr. Skeat holding fast to the prevalent opinion that by 1391 "the Canterbury Tales had ceased to make much progress," or, in other words, that the last nine years of the poet's life were a time of comparative barrenness. We could wish he had stated more fully the considerations which led him to subscribe to this opinion. At least he might have made clearer the significant fact that it rests mainly on a biographical convention as to the course of any poet's life and the rise and decadence of any poet's powers. It is time for somebody to overhaul the chronological table of Chaucer's works from top to bottom. Though the evidence is as scanty as possible, the guesses and "combinations" of philologists are fast hardening into dogma, with the usual result. One recent and peculiarly absurd fancy Mr. Skeat registers himself against, and that is Dr. Koeppel's belief that the 'Saint Cecile' was written after the 'Troilus'!

Besides the Life, volume i. contains the 'Romaunt of the Rose' and the Minor Poems, with introductions and notes. Mr. Skeat pronounces unequivocally for the first 1,705 verses of the 'Romaunt' as genuine, and rejects all the rest. Unhappily we cannot be sure that this is his present view. The introduction is dated, parenthetically, 1891—three years before publication. In these three years the 'Romaunt' controversy has not been quiet, and Mr. Skeat has been in the thick of the fight. His note on v. 5810, apparently written some time after his introduction, indicates that he was then giving way in his rejection of vv. 5811–7698. It is a great pity that the ordinary device resorted to to keep introductions up to date—pagination in Roman numerals—was neglected in this volume. This oversight is not repeated in vols. i. and ii., in which, therefore, we seem to have a better chance of getting information of the same date as the imprint.

Neither preface nor notes make any mention of Prof. Lounsbury's elaborate attempt to prove Chaucer the author of the whole of the English 'Romaunt.' This is a serious omission, for which, however, Mr. Skeat has already suffered abundant penalty. Taken to task by an English reviewer, he accounted for his omission in a public letter which was brought to Prof. Lounsbury's notice, and which really demanded a rejoinder. In this reply Mr. Skeat was not only accused of being illogical—a rather common *quid pro quo* among scholars—but, along with all English-speaking persons who reject Mr. Lounsbury's theory, was consigned to the limbo of—those who either lack the literary sense or are suffering from "its partial paralysis." If inability to believe in the Chaucerian authorship of fragment B of the 'Romaunt' were really enough to send one packing thither, this limbo would indeed be, so far as Middle English scholars are concerned, "to few unknown"; for we know of nobody capable of weighing the linguistic evidence who accepts Mr. Lounsbury's extreme views. The present edition includes all three fragments, but prints the second and third in smaller type. The text has been industriously revised throughout, and the commentary is new and useful.

The rest of volume i. is occupied by the Minor Poems, with a long introduction and very full notes. At this point the editor was confronted with the question how to use his own previously published material. Mr. Skeat's Clarendon Press edition of the Minor Poems—including the 'Hous of Fame'—came out in 1888, and met with well-deserved praise from every quarter. It was less elementary than his selections from the 'Canterbury Tales' in the same series, and, in fact, needed but slight modifications to make it into an acceptable library edition. Accordingly, in the present volume, and in the part of volume iii. allotted to the 'Hous of Fame,' we are presented with a revision of the 'Minor Poems' of 1888. This is right and proper. The trouble is that the revision has not been quite thorough. Indeed, the attempt to use the 1888 volume as copy for the printer has resulted in two or three inconsistencies for which bibliographers will not be grateful. Of 'An Amorous Complaint' Mr. Skeat remarks, in a sentence taken word for word from his former work, that "this piece, so far as he knows, has never before been printed." Farther down on the same page he speaks of "first printing the text in 1888," and on the next page he tells what plan he adopted "in reprinting the text in the present volume." Here the confusion corrects itself, and is therefore merely disfiguring without being decep-

tive; but with regard to the 'Balade of Compleynt,' a similar transference from the older work commits the editor to an uncancelled statement that the poem "has not been printed before," when, thanks to his own efforts, it has, in fact, been public property ever since 1888. Again, the discussion of Lydgate's maddening "Dant in English" was in place in section 3 of the introduction to the 1888 volume; in the present edition it should have been carried over to volume iii., in which the 'Hous of Fame' is printed.

These criticisms concern what may be called externals. We pass on to examine how far the interval between 1888 and 1894 has been utilized in those processes of minute correction and improvement which are possible only when a prodromus exists. Here much has been done, but much has been passed over, sometimes deliberately—the editor maintaining his old position—sometimes, we fear, hastily. In the comments that follow we shall not try to distinguish between these categories, contenting ourselves with indicating some points in which we had hoped for improvement, or at least for modification, and in which we find no change, or not change enough.

Ten Brink in effect retracted the doctrine ascribed to him in the note on ii, 38. *Heritage* can hardly be in the genitive (ii, 71), nor does the passage demand any twist so extraordinary. In 'Book of the Duchesse,' v. 23, no emendation is needed. In the note to the same poem, v. 37, the "long, early, and hopeless love theory" is treated with more favor than the "Life" had led us to expect. We are surprised to find Mr. Skeat apparently still taking "that is doon" as meaning "my passion is over"—a sense which the context refutes. The note on v. 78 still presents us with an incredible subjunctive. The injudicious insertion of *look* in v. 206 is still insisted on, as well as the unnecessary change of *for such* to *at whiche* in the next line. In the note on v. 332 Warton's remark that "there is reason to believe that Chaucer copied [certain] imageries from the romance of Guigemar" is retained, apparently with approval; yet nobody has ever pointed out in what this "reason" consists. In the note to v. 368, Sarrazin's edition of 'Octavian' should have been mentioned. The distorted interpretation of 'Book of the Duchesse,' vv. 1199–1201, is retained. It is due to a failure to recognize the interjectional *with sorwe*. The punctuation in the text is quite wrong. Mr. Skeat feels the inadequacy of his attempt at explanation, suggesting, after all, an emendation, but none is necessary. In the note to 'Parlement of Foules,' v. 364, the explanation of "farwel, feldefare" (repeated in the note to 'Troilus,' iii, 861), is unlikely, though given with that confidence which Prof. Skeat has some right to feel, but which may often mislead his disciples. In v. 411 the remark about *this is* and *this* is incomplete in its references, and erroneous in its statement that neither *this* nor *is* has an ictus in the present line. The particularly unhappy explanation of v. 510 is retained. In v. 556 "his large golee" hardly means "his tedious gabble"; both context and humor are against it. In 'Former Age,' *forpampered* is rather "spoilt by pampering" than "exceedingly pampered." In the 'Envoy to Scogan,' v. 15, it is really too bad to explain *goddes* as *goddesse—i. e.*, Venus. In v. 7 of the same poem "error" must mean abnormality, not "ignorance, false opinion."

We observe that Mr. Skeat is still sure that Lydgate meant the 'Hous of Fame' by "Dant in English." For our part we cannot interpret Lydgate either in this phrase or in the context. Mr. Skeat's explanation does not carry conviction. In connection with 'Chaucer's Dreme' (p. 44), Brandl's allegorical interpretation is not mentioned, though it has met with some favor. The remark that "'The Dreme of a Lover' is the same poem, I suppose, as 'The Temple of Glas'" should not have survived, in that form, in a volume dated 1894. The statement (p. 63) that the familiarity with the 'Roman de la Rose' shown by Chaucer in the 'Book of the Duchesse' "is such as to prove that he had already been employed in translating it," should not stand without a caveat. We regret that Mr. Skeat maintains his opinion about the genuineness of the "envoy" of 'Flee from the Press.' "There is no reason at all for considering it spurious," he says (p. 553). Two reasons are discernible: (1) it exists in but a single manuscript; (2) it is poor and spoils a beautiful poem. It is curious, by the way, that no editor of Chaucer has yet noted that 'Flee from the Press' occurs in Tottel's Miscellany, among the "sonnets and songs of incertain authors."

## 'TRILBY' AND OTHER NOVELS.

*Lord Ormont and his Aminta.* By George Meredith. Charles Scribner's Sons.

*Trilby.* By George Du Maurier. Harper & Bros.

*The Manxman.* By Hall Caine. D. Appleton & Co.

*Highland Cousins.* By William Black. Harper & Bros.

*Vignettes of Manhattan.* By Brander Matthews. Harper & Bros.

THE story and the exposition are as easily separable in 'Lord Ormont and his Aminta' as in any of Mr. Meredith's novels. Such a method has advantages; the many who take their fiction lightly can get, in an idle hour, an assured outline sharply accented with dramatic situations, can smile, sigh, forget, and go about their business; the few who take their fiction seriously have matter for solemn consideration and endless perplexity. Wrathful discontent may fill the souls of those who clamor for a fusion of parts into a symmetrical whole, who prefer a smooth highroad to a blazed trail; but let such eschew Mr. Meredith—they cannot walk together. He cannot help himself. His work is the product of two independent sets of faculties, or else of one human set and that useful adjunct which theosophists call an astral. An astral is like an oracle: plain speaking would ruin its reputation. It demands a special cult, and only the elect may interpret. In considering Mr. Meredith's disquisitions we cling to the hypothesis of an astral, for by frankly admitting incompetence to wrestle with superhuman powers our opinions may not be branded as quite below a decent standard of intelligence.

The story of Lord Ormont and his Aminta is very pretty and interesting, pitched in a romantic key as its name indicates, with a central situation and at least two characters, Lord Ormont and his sister, Lady Charlotte, unavailable for a chronicler of this moment of the collapse of caste, yet consistent with the ascribed period, and done with succinctness, clearness, and force. The drama is old, older than the lines,

> "Crabbed age and youth
> Cannot live together";

and the outcome is probably inevitable, if the sweet shepherd be high and the damsel or dame inviting in ways as unmistakable as the tuneful lay. Things that are inevitable are not always right or just or admirable, and he is a wise man and a good artist who in fiction lets his doubtful case rest on the facts and feeling, attempting no argumentative justification. When Aminta and her high-minded young lover go off together, the venture appears natural, and plausible palliation is readily imagined; but when we are counselled to observe an imperative urgency for such a proceeding other than human desire, and resting on a personal interpretation of divine law, then we reflect that Aminta had no case against Lord Ormont presentable even in a Sioux City divorce court, and we refuse to admit that black is white.

Here we arrive at Mr. Meredith's exposition, which, according to his privileged interpreters, is a thing for wonder and reverence. To approach it in a plain, blunt way, we may say that it is not elucidatory; the thought which sufficient grim patience will finally extract is hidden in artificial form and eccentric phraseology; the pronouns avoid their nouns as carefully as the last part of a German compound verb shuns the first; floundering sentences laden with unusual words of Greek extraction alternate with interjections in crude vernacular. There is no fluency, no grace, no lucidity—nothing but an occasional outburst of epigram to redeem page after page from chaos; and yet a small and precious group is positive in declaring that Mr. Meredith will pass into an English classic—for his style, of course, since it is style that lives. We have some English prose classics, and a hasty mental retrospect over two centuries suggests that a schoolgirl could parse every page, and that perception of the thought and of the lucidity and exactness of expression is simultaneous. The tests are slight, perhaps mean, but not wholly worthless for basing prophecy. English judges by establishing precedent frequently achieve fame; if Mr. Meredith is to live as a great master of English style, it will be (*pace* high-priests) for the same reason.

Picture the consternation among the savants of unborn ages falling upon a volume of Mr. Meredith's novel and Mr. Du Maurier's 'Trilby' simultaneously! If one be a specimen of later nineteenth-century English, what under heaven is, or was, the other? Grammarians will burn their books and there shall be no rules laid down for the barbarous dead language without an interminable string of exceptions. As tough bits for construing, the authors, we believe, will prove about equally seductive, and those works now regarded as classics appear in comparison as primers. Mr. Meredith's English is as positively and indisputably his own as are his eyes and hair, and Mr. Du Maurier's English (when it isn't French) is that tongue, far from undefiled, which is babbled by the million, stamped with the flitting fashion of the hour, fluently and brilliantly up to date. For a thinly disguised personal memoir, which we take this book to be as surely as if the author had frankly owned it, no language could be more vivid, no manner more attractive. The style, compared with that of 'Peter Ibbetson,' falls short in delicacy, finish, and repose; but then that was a deliberately planned tragedy done with becoming gravity, whereas the really important and interesting matter in 'Trilby' makes no demand for serious and dignified expression.

The love story on which the sketches of persons, scenes, and events are strung is effusively sentimental and unimpressive. Trilby's devoted love for Little Billee is a graceful assumption not made credible; and indeed the

vivacious grisette, wherever she is asserted to differ from and soar above any Mimi or Nanon or Lisette of the Latin Quarter in fact or fiction, is herself a fiction, a fantasy, a dream. When an author makes good in action his assertions about a character, he has created something; there is no smug-self-complacency in beholding his work and exclaiming, Well done! It would be hard for Mr. Du Maurier to make good his ecstatic chaunts to Trilby, and, perhaps, vaguely conscious of an impossibility, he has not concerned himself about the matter at all. His beautiful pictures of her, especially the portrait head, are quite convincing as to her physical loveliness, but there are certain beauties of character and conduct of which a charming face and figure unfortunately give no assurance. Many can yield to that charm to the extent of saying, "Poor Trilby!" but few can heartily cry, "Virtuous, heroic, sublime Trilby!" It is odd, and we think an evidence of the small pains bestowed on the realization of the character, that the author permits her, with her own hand, to repudiate his encouraging adjectives, and decline to be regarded as a *Naturkind*, knowing not good from evil. In the fit of shame born of Little Billee's horror at finding her posing for the nude in an atelier, she writes a letter which, among other curious information, contains the names of the men with whom she has had temporary liaisons, and the comment: "I knew how wrong it was all along—there is no excuse for me—none." Be it observed, too, that she writes this letter to a man (clean-minded and honest, but still a man), and one cannot feel that that is a thing to be admired as a genuine first step towards the strait gate and the narrow way. It may be remarked here, parenthetically, that the dislike, amounting to horror, felt by Taffy, the Laird, and Little Billee, of Trilby's posing for the "altogether," doesn't jibe with the author's authoritative declaration that to all artists (except those whom he thinks very little of) "nothing is so chaste as nudity." If this be true, why was not Trilby's exhibition of her body regarded as a practical lesson in the encouragement of high thought and fine feeling, salutary both for herself and the staring mob of heathen?

When Trilby, intimidated by her lover's respectable relatives, runs away from friends and lovers, there is a suspicion that she has gone in chase of a similar respectability; but her reappearance, singing like a thousand nightingales under the magic influence of Svengali, removes her from the commonplace, quite from the actual, clean into fairyland. Frankly acknowledged as a creature outside of human experience, she is well used as a splendid central figure for thrilling dramatic scenes. Would that we had been spared her lingering death, with all the display of her catholic taste in men implied by the perpetual fondling of her dear, clean, living Englishmen, and lamentation over her equally dear, dirty, dead Polish Jew. A sigh, scarce a tear, may be given to Little Billee taking her demise so much to heart. Still, in moments of anguish, he could not hope to have for ever the support of Taffy's strong arm and the solace of his bed; so, having achieved fame and loved and lost, it was perhaps well that he should depart and be at peace.

Though, in reviewing 'Trilby,' apology for particularizing defects in the presentation of the title character is superfluous, we offer one, for it limits the opportunity to dwell upon the pleasure given by all the rest. It may be objected that no group of people ever is or was so adorable as most of the company in which we walk, but the first test is that Mr. Du Maurier makes them appear so. He also makes Svengali appear the most loathsome of men, justifying by the wretch's behavior an amazing torrent of vituperative description. Long ago, how he must have hated a Svengali, and how he must have loved a Taffy and a Laird and all that gay, kind, happy company who call to mind our Thackeray and Mürger and Dumas and Béranger, yet make each a place in the heart distinctively his own. For we return to the impression that the author has narrated things which he himself saw and of which he was a part, and when he was not, as he says he now is, a "respectable old Briton of the upper middle class," but a genial and even frolicsome young Briton emancipated from class by his sympathies and genius. And by casting back over a long line of years, between memory and imagination, he has written chapters of real life glorified by the most tender and enchanting romance—told us of a dead past all radiant, and glowing now with the purple light of a vanished youth.

Certain ancient axioms enshrine such highly concentrated, frozen truth that struggle to discredit them is vain and profitless. It is with reluctance that we number among these "A woman's face is her fortune," because we are heartily in sympathy with every movement which tends to indicate for women roads to fortune more immediately in their own control. Unless there be a conspiracy among the accredited delineators of contemporary life, the gentlemen novelists, to stifle either by ridicule or neglect movements dangerous to masculine supremacy, we are compelled to believe that the women of to-day, in divers mass-meetings assembled, are but frantically beating their heads against stone walls, and that the important issues of life are still decided for them by nature, as it was in the beginning. That the small fry should indite innumerable histories turning on the look in a girl's eyes or the shape of her nose, is a trifle, signifying nothing; but from novelists, arrived, for various reasons, at eminence and in many directions abreast with the times, a recognition of the influence of a girl's mind on her destiny may not unreasonably be expected. It is true that Mr. Meredith, Mr. Du Maurier, and Mr. Caine in 'The Manxman,' do labor to ascribe to their heroines some glimmer of intelligence, some graces and virtues not immediately perceptible to the naked eye; but the effort is perfunctory—everything turns on an accident of line and color. Perhaps Mr. Caine's novel would have missed the emotional effects of dramatic contrast had he endowed Kate Cregeen with attractions less obvious than those of a handsome animal; yet, with Philip Christian's intellectual refinement and fundamental goodness of nature always in evidence, the feeling is that the temptation offered was not enough, and that his final expiation of sin was an exaggeration of the requirements of honor and morality. Such would surely be the judgment if Mr. Caine had undertaken to solve an abstract question of conduct; but a modification comes with the reflection that he is not generalizing or typifying. Christian's character, his surroundings, his circumstances, are all exceptional. His insistent mental rectitude demanded first of all, for peace, that he should stand well with himself, and his spirituality that he should strive to be acceptable in the sight of God. He had a horror of false appearances, of disloyalty, of lies; and when, after the first betrayal of his friend Quilliam's trust, he saw abysses of infamy gaping before him, he was not able to make an escape at the cost of Quilliam's despair. So he kept on doing abominable things, always a prey to the most poignant self-accusation, till, at last, there was nothing left but death or public confession, and open assumption of all the consequences of his own and Kate Cregeen's sins. His choice of the latter course was heroic, and fortunately the Isle of Man appears to remain as a proper scene for a display of dramatic passion which elsewhere would seem theatrical and improbably sensational.

The conception of Christian's character is grand and tragic, and the permanent shadow of doom serves only to concentrate interest on the motive, not diminishing the naturalness of the movement or hampering the vitality of the minor figures. The plan of the book is very wide—as wide as the life of its locality—drawn with consummate art and perfected by scrupulous care in detail. In a work that implies so much deliberate arrangement, the absence of artificiality and of strained invention is most noticeable. If there be such an inexplicable force as inspiration capable of possessing a man and abiding with him until the work which he has to do is done, we are willing to believe that Mr. Caine wrote 'The Manxman' under its influence.

Mr. Black makes no sort of concessions to the woman movement. The Barbara Maclean whom he celebrates in 'Highland Cousins' has marvellous Highland eyes and wondrous crinkly hair. Most of her instincts are wrong, most of her impulses are vulgar; nevertheless, she inspires passion in the ascetic breast of a handsome, scholarly, and very dull young man, whom, when piqued by the frigidity of another young man, she reluctantly marries. Eventually she dies in jail, whither the law, insensible to the charm of eyes and hair, has removed her for stealing gauds from a draper's shop. We have no certain information of her death, but are led to infer it by an illustration of the bereaved husband standing with an appropriate air of dejection beside a tombstone, and by his second marriage as subsequently chronicled. A considerable fraction of the average human life is needed for the writing of a book, even a worthless one, and we cannot pretend to arrive at Mr. Black's reasons for devoting that fraction largely to the doings of a monument of inanity and ignorance. We prefer to think that he really meant to write a book in glorification of golf; but since the game, cheerful and invigorating though it is, could not be made to run through four hundred pages, he fell into despondency between "holes," and wrote without rhyme or reason. In his day Mr. Black has written up many games and musical instruments at the moments of their vogue, but we recall no description in which he is so spirited as in this of the once national, now almost universal, game of golf. Golf brings out character mostly of a bad sort, such as meanness, spite, vainglory, and a marked proficiency in blasphemy. If Mr. Black had permitted the village minister to play with the councillor, what awful revelations might have been made! But we are thankful for his game, whoe'er the players, and deplore its unhappy juncture with a romance so meaningless, chill, and dreary.

In 'Vignettes of Manhattan' Mr. Matthews renders twelve impressions of New York with admirable clearness and much grace. From the collection a vivid picture may be drawn of the great city under summer and winter skies, of its unrest and immense variety of in-

terest, and of the horrible detachment of the individual from the life swarming about him. Some of the impressions include a complete episode, others give only a hint of an incident, as it were, a conjecture from a face seen at a window, a figure noted on a crossing. Occasionally there is a discordance between what, for lack of a better expression, may be called the human note and the sentiment of the scene. A suggestion more harmonious than that of relentless jealousy might have been elicited from the gayety and suavity of "A Private View." The violent death of Clay Magruder jars on the stillness of "A Midsummer Night," and the only relief to shocked sensibilities lies in the reflection that upper corridors of burning hotels do not fall in before smoke has penetrated the rooms opening upon them. Slight defects in art do not, however, seriously impair the good effect of the whole, and may easily be forgotten before the distinguished excellence of such a bit as "A Thanksgiving-Day Dinner." There the agreement of scene, sentiment, and incident is absolute, while a dozen pages include two telling sketches of character and a whole tragic history, with the reason of it.

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*Life and Letters of Erasmus:* Lectures delivered at Oxford 1893-94, by J. A. Froude. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894.

JUST twenty-four years ago, Mr. Froude delivered before a popular audience at Newcastle three lectures upon "The Times of Erasmus and Luther," which were afterward printed in the first volume of his 'Short Studies on Great Subjects.' Now, as Regius Professor of Modern History, he comes back to the same topic, and reads to the students of Oxford twenty lectures upon the life and letters of the great scholar of the North. One would expect that the difference in his audience would have made some difference in the method of his work: that in lectures addressed to the highest body of students in the land we should find something of the method, if not of the machinery, of scholarship. We should fancy that the man holding the highest position in the English academic world would wish to leave upon his student audience some impress different from that which he would hope to make upon the "intelligent public."

Of such distinction, however, we find little trace. Mr. Froude's style is here, as always, lively to the point of gayety. It bristles with pithy generalities which, upon occasion, take the place of matter more to the point. He has the literary sense which enables him to select the dramatic moments in his subject and to put them together in telling fashion. These lectures are interesting reading, and ought to have been attractive to Oxford students as an evening's entertainment; but one cannot help wondering what must be the mental comments of the higher student body which finds its highest university authorities dealing out such pabulum as this. We are not informed as to the actual attendance upon these lectures; it would be safe to assume that the casual visitor and the Oxford young person formed the bulk of the audience, for it has long been an open scandal of the English universities that their great lights cannot get a hearing from the students. Professors have complained, doubtless with good reason, that this neglect was because their instruction was not aimed at the examination test, which seems likely to work woe upon English scholarship. Students have replied that the professors' lectures were not worth their serious attention; and the students' contention, if we may judge from the present volume and from the specimens with which this country has been regaled, has very much to be said for it.

In fact, the chief interest of these lectures is as an indication of the standard which the highest English academic authority sets for the instruction to be given by its chiefest ornaments. Mr. Froude says that if you want to understand both a man and his time, you cannot do better than to study his letters; and so, from beginning to end, he makes not a reference to anything but the letters of Erasmus. Unquestionably, to write of a man without using his letters would be the rankest folly, but to use nothing else is hardly wiser. To accept Erasmus's written estimate of himself is too much even for Mr. Froude, but he helps himself out with "probably" and "perhaps," instead of seeking in other sources for evidence which might serve to correct the impression of the letters.

According to Mr. Froude, the keynote of Erasmus's character is independence, and on the whole we are inclined to agree with him. If we apply this test to the supreme trial of the great scholar's life, his attitude towards the Lutheran reform is more easily explained on this theory than on any other. He desired above all else to keep himself from entanglements. All his life he refused to identify himself with any organization, even with any country. As he was a citizen of the world, equally at home—or rather equally not at home—in England, France, Switzerland, or Holland, so he would not commit himself to any party. His restless genius would not keep him contented in any one place, nor would it allow him to rest happy in any one set of ideas. All parties wanted him, and it precisely suited the independence as well as the vanity of the scholar to keep himself wanted by all parties.

This thread is maintained by Mr. Froude with admirable clearness and consistency. His treatment of the letters tends towards this result. Such portions of them have been selected as would bear on his main line of thought, and the translation has been skilfully managed; it is seldom an actual translation, but rather a free version in highly idiomatic English. As regards Mr. Froude's second proposition, that one best studies an age through the eyes of one independent man of letters, that is perhaps less true than he would have us believe. Certainly in Erasmus's case the very complicated politics of his times gets little attention from him excepting as it bears upon his personal affairs. He was as little a politician as he was an organizer of reform.

One would have fancied that an academic audience would have been glad to hear something of the great mass of literature which has gathered about the name of Erasmus—the editions, the commentaries, the biographies; but of all this not a word. Such an accompaniment would ill suit with the tone of cheerful entertainment which runs through these pages. Entertaining they are; and if, as we believe, the general impression of the character and position of a great man here given is the true one, we may, as general readers, be content.

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*Essays in Historical Chemistry.* By T. E. Thorpe, Professor of Chemistry in the Royal College of Science, South Kensington. Macmillan & Co. 1894.

IN this volume Prof. Thorpe has collected ten addresses and lectures which he has delivered at various times, and to audiences of very different type, during the past eighteen or twenty years, and three articles which have appeared in as many different periodicals. Making no pretension to be a history of chemistry, even during the period covered by its narratives, the book presents a series of biographical sketches which are "put together with the object of showing how the labors of some of the greatest masters of chemical science have contributed to its development." The essays are arranged in historical sequence, beginning with a lecture on Robert Boyle, continuing with sketches of Priestley, Scheele, Cavendish, Lavoisier, Faraday, Graham, Wöhler, Dumas, Kopp, and Mendeleeff, and concluding with an address on the "Rise and Development of Synthetical Chemistry."

The great variety of occasion for which these essays were originally prepared has left its mark upon them; the discussion of details of chemical accomplishment which forms the principal part of the longer essays on Graham and Kopp being in striking contrast with the more popular treatment which renders most of the others so readable. The chemist will not quarrel with the essayist on this account, however, but will rather be grateful to him for so full and adequate a summary of the labors of these eminent investigators. In reading these admirable and scholarly essays one is unavoidably impressed with their resemblance, in ease and clearness, to the felicitous biographical sketches which Hofmann gave us from time to time as memorials of the scientific worthies of the Continent. Prof. Thorpe has in most instances well preserved the human interest in his treatment. The men appear not merely as chemists and investigators, but also as citizens of the world. The estimate of their work is, on the whole, discriminating and just.

In the "Honorable Robert Boyle, seventh son of the Great Earl of Cork," born in 1626, the year of Bacon's death, the "sceptical, inquiring, reforming spirit" of the age found its expression in the domain of natural science. Under the title of the 'Sceptical Chymist: or Chemico-Physical Doubts and Paradoxes touching the Experiments, whereby vulgar Spagyrists are wont to endeavour to evince their Salt, Sulphur, and Mercury to be the true Principles of Things,' Boyle published anonymously in 1661 a book which attracted immediate and eager attention not only in England, but on the Continent, where no less than ten Latin editions of it appeared. "In its revolt against mere authority, in its disdain of old-world notions, and in its ill-concealed contempt for the schoolmen, it so exactly caught and expressed the spirit of the time that it instantly arrested the attention of the learned world, and . . . of that infinitely larger public of thinking men who felt a growing impatience of the dogmas of the schools." Boyle, with his disciples Hooke and Mayow, founded the first school of scientific chemistry, and was a member of the so-called "Invisible College, an assembly of learned and curious gentlemen who applied themselves to the study of experimental science," out of which grew the Royal Society of London, incorporated by Charles II. in 1663. "The growth of the new philosophy excited the jealousy and anger of those who affected to see in the ascendancy of the Baconian method the subversion of everything that was orderly and of good repute. . . . Bishops anathematised; Hobbes . . . thundered; Butler lampooned." But in spite of rough usage the Society continued to grow and prosper, and science even became fashionable.

Prof. Thorpe closes his summary of the 'Sceptical Chymist' by saying: "I have pur-

posely quoted very largely from it, for I wished to show you, in Boyle's own words, how wonderfully near much of the philosophy of the seventeenth century is to that which we are too apt to regard as the outcome of the nineteenth. It is impossible to exaggerate the importance of Boyle's labors. . . . The work exhibits in an eminent degree Boyle's character as an investigator," his strength and his weakness. "But to say that Boyle is only inferior to Bacon and Newton is to assign him one of the first niches in the Walhalla of the heroes of science." "The 'Sceptical Chymist' sealed the fate of the doctrine of the *tria prima*, and before the close of the century the Paracelsians were as much out of date as a Phlogistian would be to-day."

Priestley, theologian and chemist, the "Father of Pneumatic Chemistry," the keen and forcible controversialist, is a notable figure in the history of chemistry. Indefatigable and successful in his experimental work, he failed to see the important bearing of his chief discovery.

"The discovery of oxygen was the deathblow to Phlogiston. Here was the thing which had been groped for for years and which many men had even stumbled over in the searching, but had never grasped."

"The knowledge which Priestley . . . imparted to the French chemists was used by them with crushing effect against his favorite theory. . . . Priestley, however, never surrendered. . . . When age compelled him to leave his laboratory, he continued to serve the old cause in his study, and almost his last publication was his 'Doctrine of Phlogiston Established.' His own life, indeed, affords an exemplification of the truth of his own words, that 'we may take a maxim so strongly for granted that the plainest evidence of sense will not entirely change, and often hardly modify, our persuations; the more ingenious a man is, the more effectually he is entangled in his errors, his ingenuity only helping him to deceive himself by evading the force of truth.'"

"That he was content to rest in the faith of Stahl's great generalization . . . is the more remarkable when we recall the absolute sincerity of the man, his extraordinary receptivity, and, as he says of himself, his proneness 'to embrace what is generally called the heterodox side of almost every question.'"

Of Scheele, Prof. Thorpe says:

"An obscure apothecary, living . . . in a small town on the shore of a Scandinavian lake, hampered by poverty and harassed by debt, hypochondriacal, and, at times, the victim of the most depressing melancholy, he yet succeeded, by the sheer force of his genius as an experimentalist, and under the influence of a passion which defied difficulty and triumphed over despair, in changing the entire aspect of a science. No man ever served chemistry . . . with more interested devotion than Scheele. 'Diese edel Wissenschaft,' he wrote to his friend Gahn, 'ist mein Auge.' . . . When every legitimate deduction has been made, Scheele's work . . . stamps him as the greatest chemical discoverer of his age."

"Cavendish, a scion of a great house, was cold, retiring, reticent, passively selfish, a confirmed misogynist, a hater of noise and bustle. It was said of him that he probably uttered fewer words in the course of his fourscore years than any man who ever lived so long—not even excepting the monks of La Trappe. . . . Mr. Cavendish rarely did violence to his love of solitude by asking any one to his house. If a friend chanced to dine with him, he was invariably treated to a leg of mutton, and nothing else. We are told that on one occasion, three or four guests being expected, he was asked what was to be got for dinner. He replied with the customary formula, 'A leg of mutton.' 'But,' said the servant, 'that will not be enough for five.' 'Then get two legs,' was his answer."

These few extracts will serve to show something of the quality of these essays, which many besides chemists will find very interesting and enjoyable reading.

*Chinese Characteristics.* By Arthur H. Smith. Fleming H. Revell Co.

About four years ago this book was published at Shanghai and was widely read throughout the English-speaking part of the world east of the Ganges. A few copies reached the United States, one of which we read; and, probably like all other present or former residents of the Far East, we were struck with the singular penetration, learning, and sympathy of the author. The book was generally accepted by students in the Far East as not only one of the ablest analyses and portrayals of the Chinese character, but on the whole one of the most truthful and judicial. In its first dress it was cheaply published, but now, in its second edition, not only has it been revised and enriched with illustrations, but it exhibits a handsome, wide-margined page, with good print and binding, and a well-made index, thus becoming worthy of a high place of honor in the Chinese library.

Twenty-two years' residence among the people, with command of their language, has enabled Mr. Smith to see the Chinese as they are. While pitilessly telling the truth, there is nothing of the cynic about him. On the contrary, every page shows the author's kindness of heart and willingness to set forth the facts in both the light and the shade. Even in treating as he does with philosophical power of the religions of China, he shows how great these conservative forces are in holding Chinese society together and in keeping up a fair standard of morals. He points out the entire freedom of the Chinese classical works from anything which could debase the minds of the readers. There is not a single sentence in the whole of the sacred books and their annotations that may not be read aloud in any Christian family. He quotes with approval Dr. Legge's remark that "on the last three of the four things which Confucius delighted to teach —letters, ethics, devotion of soul, and truthfulness—his utterances are in harmony both with the law and the Gospel."

Mr. Smith opens his discussions by treating of the Chinese "face," which term not only refers to the physiognomy, but is a compound noun of multitude with more meanings than the foreigner is able to describe or comprehend. The Chinese have a strongly dramatic instinct, and the theatre may be almost said to be the only national amusement. Upon very slight provocation any Chinese regards himself in the light of an actor in a drama. The Chinese does not care much about losing his life, but he does like to save his face—that is, the appearance of things; and it may be he will give his face in exchange for his soul. A Chinese district magistrate was allowed to be beheaded in his robes of office, because, though caring little for his head, he was thus able to save his face.

Chapters on the amazingly minute economy and unintermitting industry of the Chinese follow. In the matter of politeness in daily intercourse the vast populations of the Chinese Empire are our superiors, as the most bigoted critic of the Chinese is forced to admit. Nevertheless, this excellence is not purchased without loss. The Chinese have an amazing disregard of time and of accuracy, and withal a positive talent for misunderstanding and for indirection—the latter often exhibiting itself in various literary methods which show an almost incredible amount of pedantry. Indeed, one may almost declare that the underlying causes of the present war between Japan and China have arisen as much out of peccadilloes of pen, ink, and paper as from overt acts, diplomatic or military. The Chinaman is intellectually turbid. There seems to be in him, comparatively, an absence of nerves, and the author, after giving many amusing and striking illustrations of this characteristic, asks: "Which is the best adapted to survive the struggles of the twentieth century, the 'nervous' European, or the tireless, all-pervading, and phlegmatic Chinese?" The author discusses the contempt of the Chinamen for foreigners, and that absence of public spirit which seems so astonishing, and which may yet cause them the loss of their nationality. Yet in this matter it is possible that the Chinese have, with their multiplication, degenerated. The Book of Odes, one of the most ancient of their classics, contains this prayer uttered by the husbandman: "May it rain first on our public fields and afterwards extend to our private ones."

Though almost totally indifferent to comfort and convenience, the Chinese are patient and persevering, and have a physical vitality which, in both the individual and the mass, is one of the wonders of the world. The people are content and cheerful, preëminent in filial piety, and markedly benevolent after a fashion, but have little or no sympathy with individual suffering. Social typhoons occasionally arise, which keep society from utter stagnation; but, though the social machinery often creaks and sometimes under extreme pressure bends, it seldom actually breaks beneath the strain; for, as the author says, "the Chinese body politic is provided with little sacs of lubricating fluid, distilled, a drop at a time, exactly when and where they are most needed." Most of the Chinese quarrels are reviling matches, in which low language and high words are the chief features. With mutual responsibility and respect for law there is also mutual suspicion, and sincerity is usually conspicuous by its absence. The author closes his highly informing and suggestive book with a chapter on the real condition of China and her present needs: "The manifold needs of China we find, then, to be a single imperative need. It will be met permanently, completely, only by Christian civilization."

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*Diary of Anna Green Winslow*, a Boston School-Girl of 1771. Edited by Alice Morse Earle. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1894. 12mo, pp. 121.

This entertaining little book is the journal of a little girl who could not have been over eleven years old at the date of the earliest entries. She was the daughter of Joseph and Anna (Green) Winslow of Boston, and her father had been Commissary-General of the British forces in Nova Scotia. His little daughter had been sent to Boston for her education, in charge of relatives, and this Diary was written for the information of the home circle. It begins and ends abruptly, but the zeal of the very competent editor, Mrs. Earle, has supplemented the text with many entertaining notes. It is the family tradition that Anna died of consumption at Marshfield in 1779, aged less than twenty years. Her portrait remains, and an engraving of it is here given.

This is not a book for quotation: the events recorded are such as would interest a bright child and her loving relatives. But it is well worth careful perusal as an involuntary revelation of life in Boston a century ago, and especially as showing the course and tendency of domestic life. It is a valuable addition to the library of authorities from which the future

Macaulay will prepare his picture of colonial days. That library now numbers less than a dozen of such diaries, but we may well hope that every publication of a family manuscript will encourage another.

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*Witnesses to the Unseen*, and Other Essays. By Wilfred Ward, author of 'William George Ward and the Oxford Movement,' 'William George Ward and the Catholic Revival.' Macmillan & Co.

MR. WARD makes a needless concession to the "indolent reviewers" in an introduction in which he explains the purpose of each one of the six essays in this collection. The interest and value of his books on his father's part in the "Oxford Movement" and the "Catholic Revival" establish his right to our attention as often as he chooses to address us. He inherits a good deal of his father's dialectical ability. Students of the modern Roman Catholic mind in its most subtle manifestations would do well to consider him. Prominent as was his father in that "insolent faction," as Newman called it, which was eager for the definition of papal infallibility, he has for the Cardinal the warmest admiration, and in two of these essays makes him the special subject of treatment, and prominent in a third, while in another, "The Wish to Believe," we have the expression of a mind which has nourished itself on Newman's 'Grammar of Assent.' The principal object of that fascinating work was to show how credibility might be converted into plausibility and plausibility into certainty in theological matters. Here we have a similar process—the endeavor to justify "the wish to believe" as a factor in the production of a rational belief. Unquestionably the wish to obtain some rational and bracing view of universal relations is legitimate; it is the inspiration of the most serious studies. But the wish to believe in any particular theological nostrum is not a circumstance favorable to the discovery of the truth concerning it.

In the first essay, the "Witnesses to the Unseen" are Kant and Newman and Tennyson; for have we not Kant's "Practical Reason" in spite of his "Critical," and Newman's conviction that "a thousand difficulties do not make one doubt," and Tennyson's "Voice within the breast" triumphant over "the reason's colder part"? Now, Heine's account of Kant's conjuring of God and Immortality with the Categorical Imperative—"old Lampe must have a God"—hints at a very general impression of the sentimental aspect of his doctrine of the Practical Reason. Mr. Ward thinks that Huxley, when he said he could compile a primer of infidelity from Newman's writings, paid an unconscious tribute to their worth. But what Huxley had in mind was not the scepticism which Newman endeavored to refute, but that which is inherent in the substance of his own thought and feeling. As for Tennyson's emotional reactions from the visions of his pessimistic fancy, they will be of little service to those who are seeking some rational escape from rational difficulties. "The Clothes of Religion" pokes some admirable fun at Spencer's "Infinite and Eternal Energy" and Harrison's "Religion of Humanity"; but what would become of Mr. Ward if Mr. Harrison should bring his caustic wit to bear on his position? The paper "New Wine in Old Bottles" has a very special interest at the present time in view of the Pope's recent letter on the subject of Biblical Interpretation. We are told how much better the Roman Catholics would have managed with a book like 'Lux Mundi':

"A Catholic book on similar lines would be necessarily tentative, and would be liable to many hierarchical grades of revision and reconsideration. It might be condemned as dangerous or inopportune, yet much of it might be ultimately adopted as true. It might be approved by an ecclesiastical superior (as in a recent case in France) and then censured by a more authoritative tribunal. And yet such a double fact need not prevent much of the substance of the book from being finally declared consistent with Catholic doctrine."

Certainly not—when it should become evident that the Church was kicking against the pricks. Soon or late we shall probably have the whole body of modern science approved by the infallible Pope. But Peter's cock-crowing will not have hastened the rising of the sun, nor will it be necessary to apprise us that the sun is up. The Pope's recent letter simply gives Roman Catholic scholarship to understand that it is expected to bring the Bible and the dogma of the Church into perfect harmony, and it knew that well enough already. Infallibility is very much like Dr. Holmes's "Katydid"—

"It says an undisputed thing
In such a solemn way."

The essay on "Some Aspects of Newman's Influence" has a personal and human touch that makes it the best one of the set. That reviewing Dr. Edwin Abbott's 'Philomythus' should have included his 'Cardinal Newman's Anglican Career' in its attack. If this had meant a harder battle, the victory would have been better worth the fight. The general impression left by Mr. Ward's book is that he is in the same boat with the rest of us; that, for all the authority of Rome, her ultimate appeal is to right reason. We have advanced somewhat when the Romanist says, "Come and let us reason together." It is not long since Cardinal Manning told us that to seek rational confirmation of authoritative truth is to take the highroad to infidelity.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, Sir E. The Light of Asia. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75 cents.
Arnold, Sir E. Wandering Words. Longmans, Green, & Co. $5.
Atkinson, Rev. J. C. Memorials of Old Whitby. Macmillan. $2.50.
Banks, Rev. L. A. The Honeycombs of Life. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $2.
Baring-Gould, S. Kitty Alone. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Barnett, Samuel and Henrietta. Practicable Socialism. 2d ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Battershall, F. Mists: A Novel. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Bates, Fanny B. Between the Lights: Thoughts for the Quiet Hour. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.25.
Bishop, Mrs. Isabella B. Among the Tibetans. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.
Bonar, J. Catalogue of the Library of Adam Smith. Macmillan. $2.25.
Bradford, A. H. The Sistine Madonna: A Christmas Meditation. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. 35 cents.
Brown, Anna R. The Victory of Our Faith. T. Y. Crowell & Co.
Bruce, Rev. A. B. St. Paul's Conception of Christianity. Scribners. $2.
Brush, Mary E. Q. Sarah Dakota. Hunt & Eaton. $1.
Bulley, Miss A. A., and Whitley, Miss M. Women's Work. London: Methuen & Co.
Champernowne, H. The Boss: An Essay on the Art of Governing American Cities. George H. Richmond & Co.
Champney, Elizabeth W. Witch Winnie at Shinnecock. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Child, T. Wimples and Crisping-Pins: Studies in the Coiffure and Ornaments of Women. Harpers. $2.
Clark, R. Golf: A Royal Ancient Game. Macmillan. $3.50.
Clifford, Mrs. W. K. A Flash of Summer. Appletons.
Crawford, F. M. Love in Idleness: A Tale of Bar Harbor. Macmillan. $2.
Daudet, A. Tartarin on the Alps. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75 cents.
Davenport, Frances G. Classified List of Printed Original Materials for English Manorial and Agrarian History. Boston: Ginn & Co. 75 cents.
De Chanal, Gen. The American Army in the War of Secession. Leavenworth, Kans.: Geo. A. Spooner.
Dessar, Dr. L. A. Home Treatment for Catarrh and Colds. Home Series Publishing Co.
Fenn, G. M. First in the Field: A Story of New South Wales. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Foss, S. W. Back Country Poems. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Foster, Mary J. C. The Kindergarten of the Church. Hunt & Eaton. $1.
Freer, Dr. P. C. Descriptive Inorganic General Chemistry. Revised ed. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
Gould, N. Harry Dale's Jockey. Geo. Routledge & Sons. 50 cents.
Guiney, Louise I. A Little English Gallery. Harpers. $1.
Hamilton, Prof. D. J. Text-book of Pathology. Systematic and Practical. 2 vols. Macmillan. $10.
Harland, Marion. The Royal Road; or, Taking Him at His Word. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.50.
Hempl, Prof. G. Chaucer's Pronunciation and the Spelling of the Ellesmere MS. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Herbert, A. Windfall and Waterdrift. Putnams. 75 cents.
Heyse, P. At the Ghost Hour. 4 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Hinton, R. J. John Brown and his Men. Funk & Wagnalls.
Hodder, E. John MacGregor ("Rob Roy"). London: Hodder Bros.
Holley, Marietta. Samantha among the Colored Folks. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Holmes, Dr. O. W. The Last Leaf: A Poem. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Hopkins, Prof. W. J. Preparatory Physics. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Irving, W. The Sketch-Book of Geoffrey Crayon, Gent. (Van Tassel Edition.) Putnams. $6.
Jacobs, J. Studies in Biblical Archæology. Macmillan. $1.
Johnson, C. The Farmer's Boy. Appletons. $2.50.
Keith, Alyn Y. A Hilltop Summer. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Kelley, J. P. The Law of Service: A Study in Christian Altruism. Putnams. $1.
Kiersted, W. Prevailing Theories and Practices relating to Sewage Disposal. John Wiley & Sons. $1.25.
Kingsley, H. Austin Elliott. Scribners. $1.
Lano, Pierre de. The Empress Eugénie. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Lang, Andrew. The Yellow Fairy Book. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Larned, J. N. History for Ready Reference. Vol. III. Greece to Nibelungen Lied. Springfield, Mass.: C. A. Nichols Co.
Leighton, R. Olaf the Glorious. Scribners. $1.50.
Liddon, Rev. H. P. Life of Edward Bouverie Pusey. Vol. III. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.50.
*Littell's Living Age*. Vol. 202. Boston: Littell & Co.
Lubbock, Sir J. The Use of Life. Macmillan. $1.25.
Mabie, H. W. My Study Fire. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Mack, Anna E. Because I Love You: Poems of Love. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Masson, Frederic. Napoleon, Lover and Husband. Merriam Co. $2.
McCarthy, Justin. History of Our Own Times. 2 vols. New ed. Lovell, Coryell & Co.
McLean, Alison. Quiet Stories from an Old Woman's Garden. F. Warne & Co. $1.25.
Meissner, C. Latin Phrase-Book. Macmillan. $1.10.
Merriman, Effie W. Mollie Miller. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Miller, Emily H. Home Talks about the Word. Hunt & Eaton. $1.
Murray-Aaron, Dr. E. The Butterfly Hunters in the Caribbees. Scribners. $2.
Old English Songs from Various Sources. Illustrated. Macmillan. $2.
Oliphant, Mrs. House in Bloomsbury. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Pailleron, E. Le Monde où l'on s'ennuie. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 25 cents.
Palmer, L. Where Honor Leads. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Patterson, J. The Medea of Euripides translated into English Verse. Louisville, Ky.: John P. Morton & Co. $1.00.
Peckham, Mary C. Windfalls, and Other Poems. Buffalo: Charles Wells Moulton.
Raymond, Rev. B. P. Christianity and the Christ. Hunt & Eaton. 85 cents.
Rhys, Ernest. A London Rose, and Other Rhymes. London: Mathews & Lane: New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Riley, J. W. Armazindy. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co. $1.25.
Roberts, C. G. D. The Raid from Beausêjour. Hunt & Eaton. $1.
Robertson, J. L. History of English Literature for Secondary Schools. Harpers. $1.25.
Sala, G. A. London up to Date. Macmillan. $1.25.
Schmidt, E. Vorgeschichte Nordamerikas im Gebiet der Vereinigten Staaten. Brunswick: F. Vieweg; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Smith, Benjamin E. The Century Cyclopedia of Names. The Century Co. $15.
Stables, Dr. G. To Greenland and the Pole. Scribners. $1.50.
Stevens, B. F. Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773—1783. Vol. XXI. London: B. F. Stevens.
Stratmeyer, Edward. Richard Dare's Venture. The Merriam Co.
Stretton, Hesba. Half Brothers. Cassell. 50 cents.
Stretton, Hesba. The Highway of Sorrow. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Strong, G. S. Early Landmarks of Syracuse. Syracuse, N. Y.: *Times* Publishing Co.
Strutt, J. W. The Theory of Sound. 2d ed., revised. Vol. I. Macmillan. $4.
Sunday Reading for the Young. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1.25.
Taber, C. A. M. The Cause of Warm and Frigid Periods. Boston: G. H. Ellis.
The Second Book of the Rhymers' Club. London: Mathews & Lane; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
The Woman's Book: Dealing Practically with the Modern Conditions of Home-Life, Self-Support, Education, Opportunities, and Every-Day Problems. 2 vols. Scribners.
Thomas, Miss Edith M. In Sunshine Land. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Une Mère: Conte de Hans Christian Andersen en 22 langues. St. Petersburg: S. M. Nicolaieff; London: Th. Wohlleben.
Verne, J. The Castle of the Carpathians. The Merriam Co.
Verne, J. The Special Correspondent. Lovell, Coryell & Co.
Walpole, H. Memoirs of the Reign of King George the Third. 4 vols. London: Laurence & Bullen; New York: Putnams. $18.
Warden, Gertrude. The Secret of a Letter. International News Co. 50 cents.
Woods, Margaret L. The Vagabonds. Macmillan. $1.50.
Wundt, Prof. W. Lectures on Human and Animal Psychology. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $4.
Yeats, W. B. The Land of Heart's Desire: Poetry. Chicago: Stone & Kimball.

# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 1, 1894.*

## The Week.

THE registration figures are ominous for Tammany, considered either in bulk or in detail. It is not for the purpose of voting the Tammany ticket that nearly as many voters have registered their names this year as registered them in the last Presidential contest. Whatever tide there is in motion is not Tammany but anti-Tammany; and it is safe to infer that when 42,523 more voters take the trouble to register this year than registered last year, the greater part of these are against Tammany. An analysis by districts confirms this inference, for in the down-town districts, which are the Tammany strongholds, there is a uniform falling off from last year's total, aggregating a decrease of nearly 12,000. All the increase is, in fact, in anti-Tammany districts. It is with good reason, therefore, that the "arithmetic men" are figuring out a plurality for Col. Strong ranging from 40,000 to 60,000. Tammany's arithmetic men are putting forth an estimate, evidently agreed upon before the figuring began, of 30,000 plurality for Grant, but they can reach it only by giving to Tammany 30,000 more votes than it ever polled in the city. The highest Tammany vote ever given for a mayoralty candidate, with Democratic opposition, was that cast for Grant in 1890, and that was only 116,000. Nobody believes that Tammany is as strong to-day as it was then. It will lose in fraudulent votes alone, which have been kept off the registration list this year, at least 15,000 votes. To win, Grant must have at least 135,000 votes; and where these are to come from, no Tammany arithmetic man is able to guess.

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Even the liquor-dealers are in revolt against Tammany. Their association, which is said to represent about 9,000 liquor-dealers, met last week and refused to endorse either Hill or Grant. Resolutions approving both these candidates were introduced, but the opposition to them was so great that they were not put to a vote, and the meeting adjourned without action. One of the members thus explained the situation:

"We have been hounded and hounded, but they have gone too far. Tammany Hall has lost its grip on us for ever. We have been blackmailed and persecuted beyond endurance. It is Tammany alone that has compelled us to violate the law. For years and years we were obstructed in our efforts to secure all-night licenses, and finally two years ago we gave them an ultimatum. They yielded, and the Legislature passed a law giving the Excise Board the right to grant all-night licenses. But what is the result? Over two hundred applications have been made, but not one has been granted. The excuse is insultingly ridiculous. The commissioners say if they give it to one they will have to give it to all. Such baby talk! We hold Mayor Gilroy and the Tammany chiefs responsible. We know the commissioners are only obeying orders. During a year we are subject to constant assessments. We have to join the Tammany Hall general committee and pay $5 for the honor; we have to join the Tammany club of the district and pay a $10 initiation and $1 a month dues, buy five chowder tickets a year at $5 apiece, and contribute $50 or $100 to the campaign fund. Besides that, many of us have to take the captaincy of election districts and spend our money to carry them."

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It is a wonder that the liquor-dealers have not reached this conclusion before. Tammany has systematically favored laws against Sunday and night-selling in order that these might be used as a basis for the blackmailing which has become so heavy a burden. The figures which are given above coincide with those brought out by the Lexow committee, and are not at all exaggerated. Tammany, through the police and its district leaders, has been using the excise laws in the same way that it has used the laws against gambling and disreputable houses. The more restrictive the law, the more it has been "worth" to Tammany for blood money. The liquor-dealers are not the only persons who ought to be getting their eyes open on this subject. The moral and religious people of the city ought to begin to realize that legalized Sunday liquor-selling, between specified hours, through side doors it may be, is the surest way to stop one form of police blackmailing and demoralization. The selling will go on in spite of all attempts to prevent it, and, if it be regulated within reasonable bounds, not only will it be no more objectionable than it is at present, but it will not be a basis for blackmail for the benefit of rascally politics.

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We may safely challenge John Fiske, Henry Adams, and all other living American historians, and even Stubbs and Creighton, who have written much of mediæval Europe, for a parallel in tale or history to the figure cut by Mr. Coudert at the Hill meeting last week. What could induce a moral being, with an immortal soul, to put himself in such a position, it is impossible to conceive. He was there recommending people to elect as Governor a man whom he has, with all the solemnity within his reach, been denouncing within a year as a liar, a cheat, and a thief. Not one word has he ever uttered in retraction or modification of these charges. He goes right on, bouffe fashion, and says, "Here is your man; hurrah for Hill, progress, and reform!" Now, a few days ago Mr. Coudert expressed his fear that if Hill were not elected, the Democratic party would be thrown into a condition of "suspended animation for an indefinite period of years." There may be two opinions about this, but there cannot be two opinions about Mr. Coudert's "animation" as a reformer having been "suspended" during the rest of his mortal existence. Nobody will ever again pay the slightest attention to one word he writes or speaks on behalf of good government or any other political improvements. We regret this extremely. The loss of all moral influence by any one of the few intellectual men we have among us who take an active part in politics, is a serious loss for the country. Mr. Coudert was born for better things. Even Hill must now say that "he has no use for him."

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Mr. Goff has had John C. Sheehan, the police commissioner, in the witness-chair, and has got a great deal of information out of him which is of value. He showed that Sheehan, who is a brother of "Blue-Eyed Billy of Buffalo," came to this city a complete stranger to it in July, 1886, and found himself almost immediately secretary of the Aqueduct Commission at a salary of $4,000 a year. This was a snug berth for a man to get who had left his native city under a cloud, because it was discovered after he retired from a public office there that his accounts were short $5,900. From his $4,000 position he stepped in February, 1892, into a police commissionership at a salary of $5,000, and has succeeded in holding it till the present time. In addition to this he is a partner in a law firm which is counsel to the Excise Board; and from this firm, though he has never had a case in court, he draws $4,000 or $5,000 a year. He is also the senior partner in a firm of contractors who have contracts for about half a million dollars for public improvements in Long Island City. In these contracts a brother of Inspector Williams is also interested, and Sheehan was able to remember, after he had been prodded by Mr. Goff, that he talked with a man who went to Tom Platt to get this brother appointed police commissioner in place of Mr. MacLean. Later he admitted, as directly as a Sheehan can admit anything, that it was Croker, and not the Police Department, that closed the pool-rooms last year, the orders coming from Croker through Jimmy Martin. Sheehan admitted that he had heard many times that the pool-room operators were paying money to the police for "protection" against the law, and said that in order to test the matter he sent for some of the operators and they denied that they had paid money for such a purpose! That was the beginning and end of his efforts to enforce the law. What Croker's motive was, was not touched upon. The point made clear was, that Croker was absolute boss of the Police Board, and was able to shut off a supply of blackmail revenue to the police by simply telling Martin and Sheehan that it must be done.

It does seem extraordinary that a convention called to frame a new Constitution, which contained a large number of the most eminent lawyers in the State, should submit to the people a proposition as to the legislative department of the Government which is, at best, obscure and doubtful. The convention meant to provide that, if a change is decreed by the people, the Senate after the year 1895 shall consist of 50 members and the Assembly of 150, while the old body of 32 and 128 respectively shall hold office during 1895. It would have been perfectly simple to make an explicit statement of this intention, so clear that nobody could mistake its meaning. What was actually done was to provide that, if the article is ratified by the people, the Legislature after January 1, 1895, should have a Senate of 50 members and an Assembly of 150, without the explanatory clause that, until such a body could be elected in November of next year, the old number of each branch should be maintained. The result is that one lawyer now says that, if the apportionment amendment is adopted, there can be no legal Legislature in 1895, because the constitutional authority by which it was chosen will have been abrogated, while another legal authority holds that there will be vitality enough left in the old Constitution to maintain the Legislature; and plain voters do not know what to think—except that they had better vote against the article, and thus avoid all uncertainty.

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The difficulty of interesting the people in amendments of the Constitution is freshly illustrated by the official returns of the Georgia election of last month. There were cast for the State ticket 218,055 votes, but on the three amendments submitted the totals ranged only from 104,908 to 115,606. In other words, only one voter in two cared enough about either of the three propositions to say whether he favored or opposed it. The amendment proposing a necessary increase in the number of Supreme Court justices was defeated by a majority of 2,952 votes, because its opponents rallied all their forces, while many voters who had nothing against it and would admit that the change was a desirable one, neglected to record themselves either way. The official count, by the way, shows that the Democrats really held their strength very well as compared with 1892. The total vote in the Presidential election was 223,956, of which the Democrats had 129,386, the Republicans 48,305, and the Populists 42,939, or 91,244 for the combined opposition. This year the Populist ticket, supported by the Republicans, polled from 92,641 to 96,888 votes for the different candidates, and the Democratic from 121,049 to 125,295—practically the same division as in 1892.

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The poll-tax scandal is again attracting attention in Pennsylvania. The Constitution of that State makes the payment of such a tax within two years one of the requirements for the qualification of a voter, but it was found long ago that a great many men would rather go without voting than pay it. Then the campaign committees began to pay such taxes, and the practice has now reached such dimensions that the two party machines in Philadelphia have this year purchased 95,000 poll-tax receipts. This is obviously a form of bribery, which is forbidden by the spirit of the law, but some amendment of the statute seems required in order to stop it. Some people think that the best way of overcoming the evil would be to abolish the poll-tax requirement, as most other States have done. Theoretically there is a good deal to be said in favor of such a qualification for the suffrage, but practically it seems to work more harm than good wherever it is retained.

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There is no doubt that the extent of the financial depression has been exaggerated by Republican organs. Nobody can go about much in the agricultural districts of New York and New England without being struck by the evidences of general content. The farmers show no signs of distress, their buildings are in good condition, and the large number of bicycles to be found in many small villages furnishes conclusive evidence that there is ready money to spend. The *Vermont Farmers' Advocate*, a non-partisan journal published at Burlington, confirms the impression which a carriage tour in that region makes upon the stranger. The editor of the *Advocate* recently took a long drive through Orleans and Essex Counties, and found indications of prosperity everywhere—"new barns going up, old ones repaired, houses well painted, horses, vehicles, implements, cattle, all bearing the evidences of comfort and plenty; rich crops waving in the fields, the small villages neat and tidy, the larger ones bustling with trade." Indeed, he discovered "absolutely nothing to indicate the existence or the recent passage of anything like 'hard times,'" and he makes this encouraging summary of the general situation in Vermont, New Hampshire, and Maine:

> "We do not ignore the fact that the nation has been financially disturbed by 'tariff tinkering,' whatever may be the ultimate results thereof, but we do say that in northern New England, at least, times are as good and the people as contented as they have been at any time in the past twenty years. The farmers as a whole are lessening their indebtedness, where they have any, and those who are out of debt with money to loan (and these are not few) complain that there is but little call for money, and this little only at unusually low rates."

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The Galveston *Daily News* furnishes a very apt illustration of the sort of ideas that are floating about, touching the silver question and the currency question in general. A gentleman of fair intelligence in that city asked the editor in good faith to inform him whether the phrase "sixteen to one" meant that the weight of the silver dollar should be sixteen times as much as that of the gold dollar, or whether it meant that the Government ought to coin sixteen silver dollars for every gold dollar from bullion of American mines. This query seems very droll, yet if we were to assume that the gentleman who propounded it was a very ignorant person, we should make a serious mistake; for, as another correspondent of the Galveston *News* says: "You can stand on the corner of any street in the Strand and ask the first 100 men of all grades of intelligence who pass to explain what free silver means, and 90 will tell you honestly that they know nothing about it." This is perfectly true, and it is as true of New York as it is of Galveston.

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The more one examines the contract-labor act, as interpreted by the Supreme Court, the more monstrous its provisions seem, and the plainer becomes the duty of Congress in the coming session to make modifications in it. For instance, a poor man, say a mechanic, might very well in Europe make a contract with an employer and come over here under it in complete ignorance of our laws. He might on his arrival here slip through the custom-house without being detected as a contract laborer. He might settle down, hire or buy a house within the year allowed to the secretary to find him out and follow him up. What is his status during that period? The Supreme Court has actually decided, in the Fong Yue Ting case, that the provisions of Article V. of amendments, United States Constitution, "No person shall be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law," do not apply to an alien immigrant who has not acquired a domicile, because, so far as *he* is concerned, any examination into his right to come here by such executive officer as Congress may select (without appeal to the courts) is "due process of law." This means, of course, that Congress can, as regards this class of persons, make anything it pleases—drumhead court-martial, for instance—"due process of law," or, in fact, deprive them wholly of the protection of the Constitution, the law, and the courts. If this hostility to them were confined to the wharf while they were landing, and lasted only until they could be sent back, there might be some excuse for it. But to allow human beings to live in the country for a whole year under such a régime seems shocking. Moreover, the law really creates a class hitherto unknown to American institutions—of outlaws and pariahs who hold their liberty and property at the mercy of a single boss. The ancient and undoubted principle of Anglo-Saxon liberty which Lord Mansfield applied in the Somerset case, was that the Constitution covers not individuals or classes of individuals, but *the soil*—that you cannot land in the country without getting under the shelter of the Constitution. A mere "nigger" landing in England in 1771 at

once became entitled to the habeas corpus and that "due process of law" enjoyed by the rest of the community. But we have a class of white men among us to-day to whom the habeas corpus is mere "gas," and who are ruled arbitrarily by a single officer of the Government. Surely this state of things must be abhorrent to Congressmen.

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In our article last week on Mr. Morton's coachman, as we are reminded by a correspondent, the second reference to the Supreme Court was really not a quotation from Nishimura Ekiu agt. the United States, but a syllabus or paraphrase of the doctrine laid down in Fong Yue Ting's case, 149 United States Reports, which through inadvertence crept into our article as if a continuance of the previous textual citation. It is simply a confirmation of Nishimura Ekiu, and is equally shocking to those who care for the great principles of American liberty. It decides among other things that the deportation of a resident alien from this country, breaking up his home and it may be ruining his business, is "not a punishment for crime," nor yet "banishment," but simply a "method of enforcing his return to his own country." "He has not, therefore," it says, "been deprived of life, liberty, and property without due process of law; and the provisions of the Constitution securing the right of trial by jury, and prohibiting unreasonable searches and seizures, and cruel and unusual punishments, have no application." The sole reason why these provisions of the Constitution have no application to him is simply that Congress has thought fit to suspend them in his case, and place his liberty and property in the hands of Stump or some other Treasury subordinate. He has, however, the consolation of knowing that his ruin is not "a punishment for crime." The whole decision reminds us of the Irishman who was very anxious to ride in a Sedan chair, and was put by certain wags into one that had neither seat nor bottom, in which he was obliged to keep up with the bearers on foot. Being asked how he liked it, he declared that "if it wasn't for the name o' the thing, he'd as lief walk."

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Stronger condemnation of the legislation under which this decision was made, and therefore of the proceedings in Howard's case, has seldom been heard from the bench than was uttered by Chief Justice Fuller and Justices Brewer and Field, dissenting, in this Fong Yue Ting case. "It contains within it," as Chief Justice Fuller remarked, "the germs of the assertion of an unlimited and arbitrary power, in general incompatible with the immutable principles of justice, inconsistent with the nature of our Government, and in conflict with the written constitution by which the Government was created and those principles secured." That the Democratic Administration of Mr. Cleveland, of all men in the world, should have resorted to the use of these odious weapons for the annoyance of a political opponent, in the midst of a canvass, through the persecution of a poor foreigner, is something which is saved from being amazing only by being inexplicable. When last heard from, Stump had taken 107 typewritten pages of "testimony" in the case, and there is a long report from "the special board of inquiry," and a separate letter from Dr. Senner—and all this about a man whom a United States Court has solemnly declared to be, under the law, exempt from Stump's jurisdiction.

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We see nothing in the recent action of Germany against American cattle to become hysterical over. The trade in meats between the United States and Germany has never been large or of much importance in value of goods exported. From 1870 to 1878 no cattle were exported. The trade opened in the latter year with 1,171 head, valued at $87,648. In 1879 a small increase was shown; 1,330 head, valued at $116,860. Then the "trade" disappeared from record, and, after small spasmodic shipments, broke out in 1890 with a total of 3,977 head, valued at $335,540. Since that time the exports have been:

| | Head. | |
|---|---|---|
| 1891 | 5,223 | $427,565 |
| 1892 | 4,643 | 448,480 |
| 1893 | 419 | 41,800 |
| 1894 | 3,069 | 285,792 |

As the entire export of cattle in 1894 was 359,011 head, valued at $33,455,092, the prohibition by Germany will produce small effects. Nor has the trade in fresh beef between the two countries been of more importance. The first shipment was made in 1886—9,398 pounds. Nothing followed till 1893, when an experimental shipment of 10,017,142 pounds was made, and after that nothing; for the following year showed only 1,066 pounds, valued at $80. Before crying out, it would be well to measure the extent of the pinch.

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Lord Rosebery's long-heralded attack on the House of Lords was delivered on Saturday evening, but there is no reason for believing that it will either greatly affright the Tories or greatly delight the Radicals. What the latter really want is a Cromwellian prime minister, with root-and-branch methods for every occasion; but they must be convinced now, if they were not before, that their present leader is too much at ease in Zion to attempt any such rôle. He favors "the principle of a second chamber," which they abhor, and has no fiercer threat to make than that the Commons will pass a resolution affirming that they are the "dominant partner." All this will seem like the merest paltering, to Labouchere and his fellow-radicals, who really forced Rosebery to say something, but whose demands can be satisfied only by an immediate dissolution, and an appeal to the country on the issue of taking away from the Lords control over general legislation as completely as control over money bills has already been taken from them. The Conservatives, on the other hand, will be willing to discuss "the principle of a second chamber" at any length, until home rule is shoved still further into the background or entirely forgotten. A prompt appeal to the country on the rejection of the bill they had reason to dread, but vague and future threats to do something not specified they will laugh at. Lord Salisbury is quite ready for an academic debate with Rosebery about second chambers, and in dialectic of that sort will prove himself far the better man. It is thus a fair conclusion that the premier's half-hearted attack on the Lords, with his "I-would-an-I-dared" air throughout it, will not aid his party or his own political fortune.

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The excitement in Europe over the approaching death of the Czar is due to the fact that the army, which in Russia stands for public opinion, is known to be strongly in favor of war, and that little or nothing is known of the character of the Tsesarevitch, or about his state of mind, except that he does not want to be Czar. The Nihilists, if they have accomplished nothing else, have succeeded in making the head of the state terribly uncomfortable, so that everybody naturally shrinks from the place. It cannot be occupied without endless precautions which make life a kind of slavery. Then, also, the growing complexity of modern society, the multiplication of interests, of dangers, necessities, and tribulations are making the life of an autocrat—that is, of a man who tries to be the Government—almost unbearable. The Czar is the only sovereign of our day who insists on being an old-fashioned monarch, and the effort has probably had much to do with killing him, though helped, it is said, by champagne. But one thing he did successfully: he kept the peace, in spite of endless pressure from the generals who wanted promotion and decorations. Russia wants the Balkan Peninsula and Constantinople, France wants Alsace-Lorraine and Egypt—two standing dangers to peace—and the world is wondering what will happen when the best friend of peace is gone. The worry of the situation is increased in England by great uncertainty as to the powers of the fleet. All the experts are trying to extract lessons from the naval fight between the Chinese and Japanese, but the only thing which appears clearly is the terrible effect of modern guns on modern ironclads, and the extraordinary capacity of ironclads for instantaneous sinking. Nothing seems to go to the bottom of the sea with the alacrity of a "battle-ship," and as a rule the crew go down with her.

*McKINLEY'S CAMPAIGN.*

Mr. McKinley is filling a large space in the newspapers at the present time, but the common remark of Republican politicians is that "he is not in it." This is a comprehensive phrase, implying that the Governor of Ohio is struggling for the Presidential nomination of his party, but that he has not the ghost of a chance. Why he has no chance is easy to see. When the Republican party returned to power in 1888 and found itself in possession of a majority of both houses of Congress as well as the Executive, the Wool-Growers' Association of Ohio went to Washington and demanded an increase of the duties on wool. They said to the Republican leaders in substance: "This victory means more tariff, and if you don't give it to us, we turn against you and carry the State of Ohio against you." Under the influence of this threat McKinley, the immediate representative of the wool-growers, was appointed chairman of the committee on ways and means. It became noised about at once that the duties on wool were to be increased. So the woollen manufacturers went to Washington and said, "If you raise the duties on wool, you must raise the duties on woollens also." "All right," said McKinley, "just tell us what you want." It had been their custom on former occasions, when they had Mr. Morrill of Vermont to deal with, to ask for considerably more than they expected to get, because it was his habit to cut down their claims about 25 per cent. So they did the same thing with McKinley, and to their surprise he gave them all that they asked. Then the other protected classes, seeing the door open, rushed in pell-mell—not that they needed any more protection, but because they saw a chance to get it. They were doing well enough already, but who could resist this glaring invitation to take some more? The tariff then existing was a Republican measure. Not only so, but it was higher by 20 per cent. than the Tariff Commission of 1883 had recommended.

The spectacle presented by this swinish multitude rushing to Congress to get their profits raised chilled the Republican party long before the elections of 1890 came on. They had not expected an increase of the tariff. They had not desired it. They had expected and desired to prevent a reduction by the Democrats; but there was a wing of the party who would have been pleased with a lowering of the duties in accordance with the recommendations of the Tariff Commission. A still larger number found their business injured instead of benefited by the increase of duties on the raw materials of their industry.

To all these, to the moderate men of both parties and of no party, the McKinley tariff came as a surprise and a bitter disappointment. It went into operation at the beginning of October, 1890. One month later the elections for Congress took place, and the Republican party was buried under an avalanche. No such misfortune had ever overtaken it. In a House of 332 members it elected only 88. It carried only three States east of the Missouri River — Maine, Vermont, and Pennsylvania—and the losses west of that boundary were heavy. No party ever received a more sobering lesson, and this was emphasized in the succeeding Presidential election.

That this was chiefly, if not wholly, due to McKinleyism, is the fixed opinion of nine out of ten Republicans throughout the country, and it is a correct opinion. It is for this reason that they are telling each other now, when they hear of McKinley's special train and his run of sixty miles per hour to New Orleans, that "he is not in it." Whatever blunder the party may be guilty of in 1896, it will not be that of inviting the battles of 1890 and 1892 over again. They will never raise the issue of the McKinley tariff as it would be raised if McKinley were the candidate two years hence. Nor will they make the tariff issue prominent in any way in the near future. They shirked McKinleyism as much as possible in their last national convention. The masses of the party had lost what little faith they had ever had in it. Consequently it was not mentioned in the platform, and McKinley himself received only 182 votes out of 904, or one-fifth of the whole. He will never get so many again.

The Republican party will assuredly be stronger in 1896 and in succeeding years if it takes ground against reopening the tariff issue. Another general overhauling, either down or up, is not now admissible. It is far better to let the industries of the country adjust themselves to the new conditions. It is quite possible that the next tariff change may be made like that of 1857—with the consent of both parties and of all sections. In 1846 occurred the first radical change of tariff policy. In that year was passed what the protectionists styled "a free-trade tariff"—a measure which substantially stripped duties on imports of their high protective character. The protectionists had been voluble in their prophecies of ruin to the nation if such a measure should be passed. The low-tariff men declared that they only wanted a chance to apply the test of experience to their theory. A full opportunity was given for the application of this test. That the "free-trade tariff" worked well, even Mr. Blaine was constrained to admit in his 'Twenty Years of Congress.' After pointing out that the Whig victory of 1848 was not decisive enough to warrant any attempt to change the tariff if there had been a desire, he confesses that there was no desire. He proceeds:

> "The tariff of 1846 was yielding abundant revenue, and the business of the country was in a flourishing condition at the time Gen. Taylor's administration was organized. Money became very abundant after the year 1849; large enterprises were undertaken, speculation was prevalent, and for a considerable period the prosperity of the country was general and apparently genuine. After 1852 the Democrats had almost undisputed control of the Government, and had gradually become a free-trade party. The principles embodied in the tariff of 1846 seemed for the time to be so entirely vindicated and approved that resistance to it ceased, not only among the people, but among the protective economists, and even among the manufacturers to a large extent. So general was this acquiescence that in 1856 a protective tariff was not suggested or even hinted by any one of the three parties which presented Presidential candidates. It was not surprising, therefore, that with a plethoric condition of the National Treasury for two or three consecutive years the Democratic Congress, in the closing session of Pierce's Administration, enacted what has since been known as the tariff of 1857. By this law the duties were placed lower than they had been at any time since the war of 1812. The act was well received by the people, and was indeed concurred in by a considerable portion of the Republican party."

The low-tariff tendencies of the Republican party in its early history could not be more strikingly illustrated than by the fact that, after ten years of the "free-trade tariff," still lower duties were voted for by both Senators from Massachusetts, Charles Sumner and Henry Wilson, as well as by Republican Senators from other manufacturing States like New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New York. It was during the discussion of this measure in 1857 that Senator Wilson made this defence of the policy of freeing raw materials, speaking particularly of wool:

> "The manufacturers, Mr. Chairman, make no war upon the wool-growers. They assume that the reduction of the duty on wool, or the repeal of the duty altogether, will infuse vigor into that drooping interest, stimulate home production, and diminish the importation of foreign woollen manufactures, and afford a steady and increasing demand for American wool. . . . The experience of England, France, and Belgium demonstrates the wisdom of that policy which makes the raw material duty free. Let us profit by their example."

After an interval of nearly forty years we now have again a tariff law which makes changes in the direction of lower duties. The test of experience will be applied to it for two years before another Presidential election is held. It remains to be seen whether history will repeat itself. If it does, we shall see the Republicans discovering that the earlier position of their party was the wise one, and that its leaders in 1856, who did not even mention the tariff in the first national platform of the organization, were safer guides than those who made McKinleyism its ruling principle in 1890 and 1892, with such disastrous results.

*TAMMANY FINANCIERING.*

In its administration of the city's finances Tammany Hall is able to make one strong prima-facie appeal to the sympathies of taxpayers. The tax-rate for the current year, $1.79 per $100, is the lowest for many years. Since 1886, the year in which the municipal debt reached its lowest figure, the decrease in the tax-rate has been almost continuous. It was $2.29 per $100 of the assessed valuation in that year—a figure exceeded but once in thirteen years. An analysis of the annual reports of the comptroller, the city's financial offi-

cer, shows, however, that the low tax-rate has been reached by a system alike discreditable to the city authorities and cumulative of burdens for the future. It is quite generally supposed that the low tax-rate has been accomplished by the simple and non-delusive device of increasing the valuations of real estate for taxable purposes by fifty millions or so every year, and by this means alone. If such were the case, there would be no particular occasion for criticism of Tammany's methods, for fifty millions a year does not begin to represent the average yearly increase of the wealth of New York city expressed in houses and lands. Since 1886 the annual increase in new buildings alone has been over $60,000,000. A tax-rate decreased by so simple a method as this would delude nobody; and since it would involve only an inoffensive jugglery of the figures, it would furnish no grounds for criticism of the perpetrators.

But there are other facts involved in the process by which the tax-rate has been reduced, facts of much significance, which are never published in connection with the tax-rate, and of which the taxpayers of the city are kept in ignorance by our Tammany authorities as much as they can be. The method by which the tax-rate has been steadily reduced could be graphically shown by a table giving by each year in succession since 1876 the annual tax-rate, the net bonded debt, the gross valuation for purposes of taxation, the annual levy, the annual State tax, the interest on city bonds, the annual appropriations from the sinking-fund in reduction of taxation, and the annual budget for purely administrative purposes. But such a table would take up a great deal of space, and the facts involved can just as clearly be shown by a comparison of the figures of 1886 with those of 1894. As stated in the comptroller's reports the facts are as follows:

| | |
|---|---|
| Assessed valuation, 1886 | $1,420,968,286 |
| Assessed valuation, 1894 | 2,003,332,037 |
| Increase | $582,363,751 |
| Net bonded debt, 1886 | $90,395,633 |
| Net bonded debt, 1894 (July 31) | 122,778,073 |
| Increase | $32,382,440 |
| Total appropriations, 1886 | $33,802,320 |
| Total appropriations, 1894 | 38,664,257 |
| Increase | $4,861,937 |
| State tax, 1886 | $4,199,606 |
| State tax, 1894 | 4,112,266 |
| Decrease | $87,340 |
| Interest on city debt, 1886 | $7,456,184 |
| Interest on city debt, 1894 | 5,134,199 |
| Decrease | $2,321,985 |
| Appropriated from general fund, 1886 | $2,250,000 |
| Appropriated from general fund, 1894 | 3,600,000 |
| Increase | $1,350,000 |
| Expenditures for general city purposes, 1886 | $22,146,530 |
| Expenditures for general city purposes, 1894 | 29,417,791 |
| Increase | $7,271,261 |
| Tax-rate, 1886 | $2.29 |
| Tax-rate, 1894 | 1.79 |
| Decrease | .50 |

It is apparent from these statistics that not only has the taxable valuation been increased so as to make a larger revenue possible from a lower rate of taxation, but that over $30,000,000 of indebtedness that ought to have been met by general taxation has been added to the burdens of posterity; and this in face of the fact that there has been a large increase in the city's revenues from its own properties and franchises, and a very large decrease in the expenditures necessary for State taxes and interest on the city debt. This last has undoubtedly been the result of the economies practised previous to 1886 and since the Tweed régime, by which the net bonded debt of the city was reduced from $120,000,000 in 1876 to $90,000,000 in 1886. The credit of the municipality grew under this process until the rate of interest necessary to be paid to float city bonds at par declined from an average of 6 per cent. in 1876 to an average of less than 3 per cent. during the last ten years. Now, however, the net bonded debt of the city is larger than ever before—even in Tweed times—as the result of Tammany financiering, and the margin below the constitutional limit available for an emergency or for any large undertaking, as, for instance, the construction of a rapid-transit railroad, is smaller than at any former time in over ten years.

Thus it will be seen that the Tammany process of reducing the annual tax-rate is exceedingly simple. It consists in adding a few millions annually to the bonded debt, in increasing the tax assessment from fifty to seventy millions annually, in grabbing a larger amount every year from the general fund, and in paying for present purchases with future promises. It is only necessary to carry the process a little further in order to bring the tax-rate still lower. Indeed, it is not absolutely necessary to have any taxes at all next year, or perhaps for two years. There is still a margin of over $70,000,000 under the constitutional limit of indebtedness. If Tammany chooses to wipe out taxes altogether for a year or two, it will only be necessary to issue three times as many bonds during the next two years as it did last year, and the thing is done.

### *MIND AND LABOR.*

Karl Marx, who may be called the founder of the socialist school of political economy, practically denies to capital all necessary share in production, and claims for labor the ownership of the entire product. He is of opinion that the world could get on without capital or capitalists by the simple process of handing over to the State instruments or raw material of labor. Consumption would go on as at present, each person purchasing his commodities with notes received for his labor, minus something to be retained for public expenses. But there would be no capital or capitalists. The State would keep everybody employed. In fact, the collectivist creed now assigns no part in the work of the world to mere intellect, or, one may say, to any labor but manual labor, from which it naturally follows that the collectivists do not propose to allow in their system any highly paid persons or any permission to bequeath savings. They consider that the equal payment for labor —that is, so much per hour—will secure for the community all the service that any man is capable of rendering.

These theories of the right of labor to the whole product, and of the uselessness, or worse, of capital and capitalists, have made great progress among the working classes since Marx's book appeared, and the defence of the political economists has been on the whole feeble. A large number of the younger ones has been driven by them into repudiation of Adam Smith, Mill, and Ricardo, and into taking refuge in "ethical economics." There is no doubt that if they had any chance of being embodied in practice, they would be a serious menace to our civilization, and their diffusion among the working-classes is already productive of great social unrest and more or less class hatred. We do not think better service in the way of combating them can be done than by circulating Mr. Mallock's little book on 'Labor and the Popular Welfare,' published about the beginning of the year. He shows the part which "Ability," as he calls it, has had in the industrial progress of the world during the present century. He discards the misleading term "capitalist," which to the workingman too often means simply a person who puts large sums of money into a business, and who, by hook or by crook, gets large profits out of it. "Ability," in short, means *mind*, and what he undertakes to show is the enormous additions which mind as distinguished from manual labor has made to the wealth of the world. His discovery has excited a good deal of attention, and the Duke of Argyll has claimed the credit of having made it first in his 'Unseen Foundations of Society,' while a writer in the London *Spectator* claims it for a Scotch writer, Mr. Phillips, in a book entitled 'The Function of Labor in the Production of Wealth,' published in 1890.

We cannot undertake to settle these rival claims, but the greater amount of attention given to Mr. Mallock's exposition seems to indicate that it is the most cogent, detailed, and best fortified. Its importance, no matter with whom it originates, can hardly be overrated.

His process is a simple one enough. He makes all production the result of "human exertion," and human exertion he divides into "labor" and "ability." Labor is manual labor. All other exertion is ability. "Labor is a kind of exertion on the part of the individual which begins and ends with each separate task it is employed upon; while Ability is a kind of exertion on the part of the individual which is capable of affecting simultaneously the labor of an

indefinite number of individuals." He illustrates this by an anecdote in the history of the steam engine. After Watt had invented it, there was one difficulty which in the opinion even of Smeaton was likely to make it, for all practical purposes, a failure. He could not make cylinders of any useful size sufficiently true to keep the pistons steam-tight. He set to work to train men for the purpose, from their youth up, and in process of time did secure a band of workmen of extraordinary skill, but they too were unsuccessful. "Henry Maudslay, by introducing the slide-rest, did at a single stroke for all the mechanics in the country what Watts, after years of effort, was unable to do for any of them. The power of one man thus descended on a thousand workshops, and sat on each of the laborers like the fire of an industrial Pentecost."

Ability is in short not only the inventor, but the man who applies the invention through machinery to human use. It is the man who imagines its possibilities and gives it form and substance, and who gives or raises the money necessary for its working—that is, inspires others with his own confidence. Above all, it is the man who not only produces but knows how to produce what people will want; for the producer who produces what people do not want is simply a waster of the world's resources. It is, too, the man who has that rare power of calculation which enables him to direct large numbers of men at one employment, keep their accounts, and so regulate their activity that they shall never produce more than the public needs, or less than it needs, so that the work can be made permanent.

In truth, Mr. Mallock might have summed up his description of Ability by defining it as the power of finding a market. It is this power of finding a market which makes production of any kind a success—the power of divining human wants that have never openly shown themselves, and supplying them. Nearly all socialistic discussions are defective in paying little or no attention to this question of markets. They talk as if the work of industry lay wholly in producing. In truth it lies just as much in selling. It is by selling that the manufacturer is made able to keep his factories open. He must not simply produce good things, he must get the public to want them, or his toil becomes child's-play. Why coöperative societies of production have so often failed lies in the fact that they rarely have any one in charge of them who has the selling capacity. Undertaker, superintendent, capitalist, captain of industry even, does not describe the successful seller—the man who searches out markets at home and abroad, and supplies exactly the articles they call for.

Mr. Mallock's process of proof is in substance very simple, though of course it will bear indefinite expansion. In 1800 the income of Great Britain from a population of ten millions was £140,000,000, or about £14 per head. It was not possible that Labor produced all this itself, but for the sake of argument he assumes that it was all made by Labor and by nothing else. Well, the total revenue of Great Britain to-day is £35 per head, or £35,000,000 for each ten millions of population. That is, for each million of population there is nearly double what income there was then. Now Labor as Labor could not add to this income in this ratio. What the laborer, left to himself, does one year he does the next. Now where does the difference between the £140,000 produced by each 10,000,000 in 1800, and the £350,000,000 produced by them now come from? The national income now is £1,300,000,000. Left to labor alone, at the same rate of increase, it would now be only £500,000,000. Who contributes the other £800,000,000? "Ability and capital," says Mr. Mallock, and it would be hard to gainsay him.

It must be borne in mind that this enormous increase of population, with its corresponding increase of income, would not have been possible without an incalculable amount of inventing, adapting, contriving, organizing, administering, calculating, all of which is head-work, and head-work which we are fully justified in believing could not be had for any salary whatever, or for any inducement except fame and fortune. For nothing else can we get the highest exertions of which the human mind is capable in the field of production. The men capable of these extraordinary feats cannot be hired at monthly wages. And we must remember that fully half of their ability was displayed not so much in supplying people's wants, as in discovering what these wants are.

## THE WAR IN THE EAST.

TOKYO, September 29, 1894.

THE war with China has been on the point of breaking out more than once during the last twenty years. In the year 1873 some Coreans, shipwrecked on the coast of Japan, were sent home in charge of Japanese officials. The Corean Government received the sailors, but insulted the officials who had come to express friendship for Corea. Japan then addressed an inquiry to the Chinese Government whether Corea was a dependency of China or not, as in the former case the Japanese Government would demand reparation, not from Corea, but from China. The Chinese authorities, however, on this occasion repudiated all responsibility for the acts of Corea, thus in effect acknowledging the independence of the little kingdom. In the treaty of Kanghoa between Japan and Corea signed in 1876, the independence of Corea was fully recognized, and in the same spirit treaties were concluded with the nations of the West.

In refusing to be held to damages done by Coreans to citizens of other nations, it was not the purpose of the Chinese Government to entirely withdraw its authority over that kingdom. Here, indeed, we have a good example of the mysteries of Oriental diplomacy. The Chinese minister at Seul had apparently unlimited powers over Corean affairs. No sooner had the Japanese claims been granted than China guided the policy of Corea mainly to thwart all influence on the part of the Japanese. Various outbreaks against the latter occurred, until finally, at the Chemulpo convention of 1882, Japan demanded and secured the right of stationing troops in Corea to protect the Japanese who were living in that country. This was the first step whereby Japan placed herself on a footing of equality with China on Corean territory.

Corea is a country where official corruption has reached a degree of perfection that even Turkey might envy. Officials seldom receive fixed salaries, but depend upon bribes and petty extortions. So thoroughly ingrained is the habit of bribery in the whole official system that few men, except of the most ordinary ability, can be found to fill places where no opportunity for extortion exists. With the opening of the country to foreign trade the expenses of the Government increased, and in consequence the people were fleeced more unmercifully than even under the old régime. Formerly the revenue was farmed out to local officials for the period of three years, but recently, with the advent of the Ming dynasty, the period was cut down to a year. The result was that the officials could not distribute the burden of taxes over any length of time, but were forced to get out of the people whatever profits they could during the single year of their tenure. The rapacity of the Government finally reached a point where the people could endure it no longer. In the year 1884 a revolution to overthrow the Ming plunderers, introduce reforms, and generally favor the progressive methods of Japan, as against the stereotyped methods of China, was attempted. At the time of this insurrection, both Japan and China despatched troops to Corea. On this occasion, as on so many others, Japan saw China completely in the ascendant. The disturbance was quelled by the efforts of the Chinese, and these efforts Japan saw were also directed against herself. The victorious Coreans again destroyed the Japanese Legation in Seul (they had previously burned it in 1882), drove the inmates from the place, and killed several Japanese. Again Japan treated Corea with lenity. She demanded an apology and a small indemnity, besides the rebuilding of the legation. A more important result, however, was the treaty made the following year with China. It was agreed between the Governments of China and Japan that both Powers should simultaneously withdraw their troops from Corean soil, but, if occasion arose for landing fresh troops, each country should give notice to the other. This convention left a strong feeling of resentment among the Japanese.

In the spring of the present year another of the periodical uprisings occurred in Corea. This party of revolutionists, known as the Togaku-To (literally Eastern Learning Party), was composed mainly of peasants who were driven to extremity by the insolent exactions of the officials. The Corean Government despatched a body of troops against the insurgents, but the latter won victory after victory, until it soon became evident that Seul and the Government were threatened. The Japanese universally sympathized with the Togaku-To. In the uprising of that party they saw much the same dumb struggle against an intolerable state of things that they themselves underwent thirty years ago. At this time diplomatic proceedings between China and Japan began to complicate matters. China despatched 2,500 soldiers to Corea to assist the Government to crush the Togaku-To—not,

however, giving notice to Japan until the troops were under way. At this news the Japanese Government and people were roused, and immediately the cabinet ordered a much larger number of Japanese soldiers to proceed to Corea. As soon as the troops of both countries arrived, the Togaku-To was crushed, or rather it fell to pieces before the array of foreign forces.

The important question, however, still remained. What was to be done with Corea? The Japanese Government invited China, in an entirely cordial manner, to coöperate with it in effecting certain reforms within the kingdom, and submitted a plan of reform to the authorities at Seul, which they discussed in apparent amiability and in a spirit of mutual faith. After a few weeks the Corean Government suddenly announced to the Japanese representative, Mr. Otori, that the reforms were not agreeable to it, and that it could not carry them into effect. The hand of China was clearly perceptible in this negotiation. She wished to gain time, but instead she succeeded only in giving the Japanese Government a definite purpose. Japan despatched war vessels to guard the coast of Corea; and almost immediately afterward occurred the *Kowshing* affair, followed a little later by a declaration of war.

The Japanese have felt the shoe pinching them for over two decades. They know and feel, as an American cannot, that their country is not respected as the other great Powers are. In the days of Sir Harry Parkes they were made to feel their inferiority in the most brutal fashion. The spirit that actuated that arbitrary diplomat may still be seen in the English press of Yokohama and in the prevailing tone of the foreign community of the open ports. These newspapers, with the single exception of the *Japan Mail*, indulge in every species of sneer at the war and its motive. There can be no doubt that a strong Jingo sentiment animates the Japanese; but the main motive of the war is not this, but rather what I have tried to explain—a deep feeling of resentment against China for her high-handed career in Corea during the last twenty years.

Perhaps the best example of the spirit that animates the most intelligent class of the Japanese people is to be seen in the columns of the *Jiji Shimpo*, one of the leading newspapers of Japan, especially popular among the business and professional classes. Mr. Fukuzawa, its editor, is known throughout the country for his ability, his patriotism, and his success. There is no position in the power of the Government which he could not have occupied, had he been disposed to accept it. Yet he has steadily refused to identify himself with the Government, or any political party, preferring the part of a free lance. Some weeks ago Mr. Fukuzawa contributed the sum of 10,000 yen to the volunteer war fund—a large amount for him, representing probably a year's income, and he took the occasion to explain his motives to his countrymen. He begins by saying that, while travelling abroad years ago, he was much struck with the vast influence of the English-speaking people and the respect they everywhere commanded. He saw then that if Japan was ever to become a powerful nation, it must strive to deliver itself from its Oriental conservatism, and must adopt the principles of Occidental civilization. In many ways, he confesses, his prayer has been fulfilled. It has been a constant source of satisfaction to him to see his country advancing in all those ways that tend to a better state of civilization. But Japan must not merely advance herself, she must be a leader of civilization in the Orient, and especially in Corea. In this effort her attempts have been constantly obstructed by China; and he therefore hopes that Japan will prosecute the war to its extremity, and crush her unwieldy and bigoted antagonist. Though a scholar who has never engaged in the business of money-making, he gladly makes this contribution to assist his country at this critical moment, so that he may enjoy the boundless pleasure of seeing his country respected throughout the world, and become a worthy member of the nations of it.

The same sentiment pervades the whole Japanese nation. For the first time in many years, political bickerings and strifes are forgotten. There is not a dissenting voice raised even among those who have most bitterly attacked the Government, and no one who is interested in the welfare of Japan can see this union of all classes and parties without taking a more hopeful view of the future of the country. The same enthusiasm extends to the soldiers. Those who are drawn off for service in Corea regard themselves as fortunate, and are envied by those who still remain behind.

Much speculation is going on in certain quarters as to the probable issue of this war; many profess to think that, while the Japanese might succeed at the beginning, they would be unable to cope with China in a long-continued conflict. In truth, however, to any one familiar with the conditions of both armies, there can be little question as to the final result of the war. Japan has been training her army for over twenty years. On no department of the Government has she spent time and money more seriously or carefully. In all the details of military art she has striven to attain perfection. The commissariat department of the Japanese army is as good, probably, as that of any European army. The corps of military engineers are highly praised for their efficiency, and the medical and hospital service has been developed from the best foreign models. In all these respects the Chinese army is so defective as to be a laughing-stock in times of peace. Moreover, the administration of the Japanese army has always been fairly free from charges of corruption, while that of the Chinese army is said on all sides to be hopelessly corrupt. All the other tests tell the same story. No one, even the most anti-Japanese newspaper, can say that the Japanese soldiers lack courage; they are brave, loyal, and amenable to discipline. The Chinese soldiers seem to lack courage without having any compensating qualities. They refuse to obey their officers in the discharge of ordinary duties, and in time of danger they resort to mutiny. Other qualities are equally in favor of the Japanese. The conduct of the Chinese soldiers in Corea has been characterized by such cruelty, dishonesty, and depredation that they have completely alienated the sympathy of the Coreans in the districts which the army has occupied. The Japanese soldiers, on the contrary, have been under the strictest discipline, and upon the single occasion where two soldiers committed a very slight theft they were sentenced to the heaviest punishment allowed by military law. A foreigner living in Corea writes that "he has yet to hear of any complaint against the Japanese troops." He quotes a Corean as saying: "The Japanese pay for everything, down to the water-carrier for bringing water."

Not to make this letter too long, I will close by abbreviating a notification issued by the Minister of War, Count Oyama, to the army in general, and particularly to the soldiers at present in Corea:

"Belligerent operations being properly confined to the military and naval forces actually engaged, and there being no reason whatever for enmity between individuals because their country is at war, the common principles of humanity dictate that succor and rescue should be extended even to those of the enemy's forces who are disabled by either wounds or disease. In obedience to these principles, civilized nations in time of peace enter into conventions to mutually assist disabled persons in time of war without distinction of friend or foe. This humane union is called the Geneva Convention, or more commonly the Red Cross Association. Japan became a party to it in June, 1886, and her soldiers have been already instructed to treat with kindness and helpfulness such of their enemies as have been disabled. China, not having joined any such convention, may permit her soldiers to subject diseased or wounded Japanese to merciless treatment. . . . Japanese soldiers must not forget that, however cruel and vindictive the foe may show himself, he must nevertheless be treated in accordance with the acknowledged rules of civilization, his disabled succored, and his captured kindly and considerately protected. . . . We cannot too much admire the course pursued by a certain Western country which, in handing over an enemy's general, complied with all the rites and ceremonies suitable to the rank of the captive. Japanese soldiers . . . should not be more anxious to display courage than charity."

I have reason to know that all the humane observances enjoined in this notification will be fully carried out in the Japanese army; and with so much courage, justice, and mercy on the side of Japan, who can doubt the issue of the struggle? G. D.

## GENERAL THIÉBAULT'S MEMOIRS.

PARIS, October 8, 1894.

THE great results which Gen. Bonaparte had obtained in Italy, in his first campaign, which will be ever memorable and will be studied by the strategists of all time, had completely been lost during his Egyptian campaign. His absence was considered a national misfortune. The Government of the Directory had fallen into contempt. The third volume of the Memoirs of Gen. Thiébault, which has just appeared, opens at this period. There are men who conform their acts to their opinions, others who form their opinions from their acts. Thiébault seems to have belonged to this second class. Nobody can be more severe than he is towards the Directory of 1799. Italy had to be almost entirely evacuated by the French, who remained only at Genoa; Suvaroff, after his victory on the Trebbia, was prevented only by Moreau from taking Genoa. The Directory ordered Joubert to offer battle to Suvaroff (who had joined his troops with those of the Austrians), thinking it could order a victory as it did a representation at the Opéra. Joubert was killed at the very beginning of the battle, which ended in a complete defeat for the French. After this defeat at Novi, the French, thanks to Moreau, could still keep Genoa, but they had to evacuate all the rest of Italy. Suvaroff entered Switzerland, but there he met Masséna, who conducted a most extraordinary campaign in the mountains, and succeeded in defeating three armies, and in forcing Suvaroff, Hotze, and Korsakoff to retreat. Masséna alone had retrieved the fortune of France, but Italy was lost.

On the 14th of October, 1799, Thiébault was in the Palais Royal. He saw great crowds forming; a man rushed by him, crying, "Gen. Bonaparte has just landed at Fréjus." Paris was in a fever at once; all houses were illu-

minated in the evening; in all theatres shouts of "Vive Bonaparte!" were heard.

"It was not," says Thiébault, "the return of a general which was greeted: it was, under the uniform of a general, the return of a chief —of a chief who seemed necessary to the army, to politics, and to the Government. There remained in France only the semblance of a government, and the Constitution had ceased to constitute anything. . . . There was surely in the Directory some talent, character, and patriotism; but five chiefs in place of one, instead of multiplying forces, divided and annulled them. What could the Directors—men without fortune, without family, without a future, without any consistency, notwithstanding their uniforms and the palaces in which they lodged—do against military chiefs who had become famous in so many battles? Could the conquerors of so many kings remain out side of this Directory, or be represented in it by a Moulin? Moulin giving orders to Kléber, Pichegru, Saint-Cyr, Desaix, Moreau, Jourdan, Masséna, Bonaparte—burlesque!"

As for Bonaparte, the popular belief attributed all the recent defeats to his absence; it seemed as if victory had gone with him, and could return only with him. In a military point of view, Bonaparte was in fault; he had left Egypt and his army without orders, and he had taken with him several of his generals and officers. Sieyès once said to him afterwards, in a moment of anger, that the Directory might have court-martialled him and had him shot. But a revolution was "in the air," and Bonaparte was the expected saviour.

Bonaparte arrived on the 16th of October. Gen. Thiébault called on him on the 18th, tendering congratulations on his happy return. He was well received, and Bonaparte bade him come again. A few days afterwards, on the 26th of October (4th Brumaire), Bonaparte had him at breakfast with Mme. Bonaparte. After breakfast came several people, and Bonaparte spoke with great acrimony of the Directory. "What can generals hope for, with a government of lawyers? If you wish the lieutenants to be devoted, give them a chief capable of appreciating, of directing, of supporting them." "At this word *lieutenants*," says Thiébault, "I thought I heard Cæsar; the ground seemed to me dangerous, and I took my leave." He was already gone when Bonaparte opened the door and said to him, "Go and give your address to Berthier." Thiébault did not doubt from this moment that a *coup d'état* was preparing; he did not go to Berthier, but waited for events.

Why did he go to Saint-Cloud on the morning of the 18th Brumaire? He does not tell us; he says merely: "It was only there that I could determine my future conduct." He adds that the many people who were there looked much at one another, but did not speak. Bonaparte appeared for a moment: "Go and bring me the chief of Battalion X." An aide-de-camp returned with this chief. "By whose order," asked Bonaparte, "did you displace such a post?" The officer answered, and very properly. "Napoleon, in a tone of the greatest anger, said: 'Nobody gives orders here but myself. Arrest this man and put him in prison.'" The officer was immediately and roughly carried away. Thiébault was shocked. "Is it to be witnesses of such things that we are here?" Nobody spoke. "As such acts do not suit me, I am going back to Paris." And he left, "having," said he, "prepared for my future an interminable series of tribulations and denials of justice, instead of favors of all sorts, and the brilliant future of which destiny had made me for a moment the arbiter."

Thiébault's indignation was not so great that, a few days afterwards, he did not go to the Luxembourg the day of the first public reception given by Bonaparte, now First Consul. Napoleon saw him, looked at him with a stern countenance, and passed by him saying, "It seems that you know well the roads of Italy." "General Consul, I thought it my duty to submit to you a memoir on the subject." Napoleon answered nothing, took a pinch of snuff, and went on. Thiébault's own account shows that he was quite disposed to enter into Napoleon's views. His visits to him, his presence at Saint-Cloud when the *coup d'état* against the Five Hundred took place, are not easily reconcilable with his abrupt departure; his presentation of a memoir on the roads of Italy and a new plan of campaign to the First Consul shows equally well that he had not remained under the first impression which he received at Saint-Cloud. That Napoleon did not take him into his favor seems somewhat natural. Thiébault may have been a very good soldier; he was somewhat illogical and inconsiderate. The Memoirs show him often to have been wanting in judgment.

Masséna took Thiébault with him to Italy and placed him on his staff; he became, in fact, Masséna's secretary, and wrote all his military correspondence. Melas, the Austrian general, opened the campaign with 135,000 men and some Sardinian troops; an English fleet was before Genoa. The incidents of the siege of Genoa were told in detail by Thiébault in a 'Journal of the Military and Administrative Operations of the Siege and Blockade of Genoa,' which appeared in 1801, and was translated into English and published in London in 1809. Masséna's long resistance at Genoa, by keeping the Austrians occupied, allowed Napoleon to make his famous campaign which ended in the victory at Marengo. The siege is one of the memorable events of the time. Masséna held the Austrians before Genoa for fifty-eight days, fighting every day and night; he kept the 50,000 inhabitants of the town quiet, though they had to suffer with the soldiers all the horrors of famine. Masséna's hair turned white. He began negotiations with the Austrians and English on the 1st of June, and procured for his troops the most honorable capitulation. He was allowed to evacuate Genoa and preserve entire liberty of movement. He had seen 20,000 men perish during the siege; nothing daunted, he resolved with the 16,000 men which he had still under his command in Italy to continue the campaign.

Meanwhile Napoleon gained the battle of Marengo, and peace was signed. The first meeting of Masséna and Napoleon took place at Milan; the only witness of it was Gen. Berthier. Thiébault, who accompanied Masséna, remained in another room with Murat, Junot and Duroc, and the officers on duty. When Masséna reappeared, he said: "Gentlemen, the First Consul returns to Paris, and I command the army." Bonaparte left the next day, and Masséna entered on his functions at once; he kept Thiébault with him. We need not enter into details about Thiébault's occupations in Milan; his time was divided between Masséna and an Italian lady, of whom he speaks *ad nauseam*. Such affairs interest nobody except the parties in question. The merit of his Memoirs, which in some parts is real, is greatly diminished by a number of adventures and anecdotes which are far from edifying, and which are often simply vulgar and sometimes very coarse.

After three months, which for Thiébault changed Milan into a Capua, Masséna was replaced by Brune; and Thiébault, faithful to Masséna, returned to France, taking with him the 'Journal of the Siege of Genoa.' As soon as he arrived in Paris, he went to the Tuileries to the audience of Napoleon. The First Consul spoke to Mortier at some length; when he reached Thiébault he said brusquely: "You are General Thiébault?" "In order to be, General Consul, I need your confirmation." "You can count upon it. Good-day, General Thiébault." The confirmation came three days afterwards. Thiébault was only thirty-one years old. He remained some time in Paris, waiting for orders; he dined twice with Bonaparte, went to the balls at the Opéra, and to the parties of Mme. de Montesson, the morganatic wife of the Duc d'Orléans (the father of Philippe Égalité), the aunt of Mme. de Genlis and of Gen. de Valence.

Thiébault was sent to the south of France and afterwards to Spain. We find nothing of much interest in his account of his journeys in the peninsula—great ignorance and great horror of Spanish posadas and of Spanish manners, garrison adventures which were not worth repeating, which still give the reader an idea of what were the elements of the "grande armée." We speak often of the epopee of the Empire. Thiébault shows us, perhaps better than he thought, the vulgar side of the heroic epopee. The petty jealousies of the chiefs fill a large place in his account, and some of the most famous generals of the time are very severely handled. He did not remain long in Spain; he returned to Paris, but felt himself under a cloud. He had acquired the reputation of being one of the enemies of the First Consul, "while," he says, "I was only my own enemy." In 1807, Napoleon made the Concordat which reconciled republican France (for France was still nominally a Republic) with the Papacy. The Concordat evidently gave satisfaction to the people; but Thiébault says: "I do not inquire into the necessity or the timeliness of this return to the Catholic Church; what is certain is that, at the time, the enemies of the First Consul and of the Revolution were delighted with it, that their friends and the army as a whole were thrown into consternation by it. As for the First Consul, he had in this circumstance, if he could have doubted his power, proof that it was immense; for who but himself would not have failed in such an attempt?"

At the reopening of Notre Dame, there was a great ceremony. All the generals then residing at Paris were invited to it, but no places had been reserved for them. When Masséna, Ney, Lefebvre (the *Lefebvre* of "Mme. Sans-Gêne") arrived, they found no chairs. A master of ceremonies arrived, and said that he did not know what to do, as there was no more room anywhere. "Go to the devil," said Masséna, and, seizing and shaking the chair of a priest on which his hand rested, he made him get off, and took his place. This example was immediately followed. One of the generals, Pommereul, commented to Napoleon on the Concordat; the First Consul merely answered, "I will not allow the priests to go beyond their part as priests." To which Pommereul answered, "It is not easy to limit people who speak only in your ear." Thiébault's testimony about the impression made by the Concordat in the army is corroborated by many of his contemporaries. He says that Moreau would not go to Notre Dame, and that he showed himself publicly during the whole service in the garden of the Tuileries. His example, however, was not followed by sixty other generals then in Paris.

## VELASQUEZ IN MADRID.—I.

LONDON, September, 1894.

As a rule, one visits a great national gallery to see a fine collection of pictures; but to the Prado one goes to study Velasquez—a fact which it is wise to accept frankly since it gives the Spanish gallery its chief interest for the present generation, upon whom none other of the old masters has had such vital and vigorous influence.

The very strength of the existing belief in Velasquez might suggest it to be but a passing fad. The cautious critic may pause to ask if we alone can be right, so many of our forefathers wrong. In his own time, of course, Velasquez was looked upon as a giant among painters, and this in Italy no less than at home. But then in Spain Murillo was his principal contemporary, Carducho, Caxesi, and Nardi—who now knows their names?—his fellow court painters, while in Italy Guido and Guercino were reigning favorites; and after the death of Philip IV. he was readily and speedily forgotten. It is as true, however, that, during the long years which followed, his most important work was hidden from the public in the Escorial and other royal palaces, and that as soon as it was removed to the Prado his personality reasserted itself; the recognition of Englishmen like Wilkie, Frenchmen like Gautier, gradually developing into the modern enthusiasm. Besides, the same gallery offers every chance for comparative study. In it hang masterpieces by Titian, Tintoretto, and Veronese—not a few chosen by Velasquez himself—and many of Rubens's and Vandyke's finest portraits; in it, Van Eyck, Dürer, and Holbein recall other standards. Murillo, Ribera, Zurbaran, and Goya represent the highest achievement of the Spanish school, had there been no Velasquez. A reputation based upon fad could scarce survive the comparison.

One's pleasure in a gallery depends so largely upon its arrangement that, before considering the pictures, the Prado's advantages and disadvantages in this respect are well worth noting. Without, it may be as unimpressive and shabby as all Madrid; within, its walls have something of the sumptuousness, something of the stateliness, which befits a great museum of pictures, though, as an educational rival to the Louvre or to the collection in Trafalgar Square, its drawbacks are many. For, if it be encumbered with less of the rubbish that offends at Dresden or Vienna, it is also lacking in good examples of certain great men and great periods. Surfeited with dull Brueghels and tedious Teniers, one looks in vain for a Terburg or a De Hooghe; Rubens, as is his wont, flaunts the fatal facility of his workshop over acres of wall-space better bare, and only one Rembrandt is included, not a single Franz Hals; Raphael is exalted, Botticelli ignored. Nor do these exhaust the list of omissions. Again, despite an attempt at sequence and system in the hanging, there is provoking confusion of schools and masters, while the catalogue proves the labyrinth in which to-day the compiler exults and the student is promptly lost. The smaller rooms are badly lighted, and their guardians are ever at the heels of the poor foreigner, popularly supposed to be in Spain solely to scatter stray pesetas. On the other hand, in so subordinate but essential a detail as ventilation, no cause is found for complaint. I was in Madrid during one of its spells of intense heat—and nowhere can it be hotter; but, though just then a lament over the disastrous influence of summer weather upon pictures in London's National Gallery was filling columns of the *Times*, the temperature of the Prado was cool and pleasant, so admirably are its rooms ventilated. But, after all, any discomfort will seem small if interest be centred upon Velasquez and the Venetians, and if the decorative value of a picture on the wall be held of as much importance as the convenience of student or critic.

The chances are that modern Spaniards accept the greatness of Velasquez on faith. Certainly, in the gallery, to one native artist striving to reproduce his subtleties, twenty are making poor copies of poor Murillos. But the authorities have had the sense to arrange his pictures exceedingly well, and with some feeling for dramatic effect. Those which are first seen form a group half-way down the great hall which, instinctively, one enters at once, and, leading up to them—the prelude, as it were—hangs the work of Juanes, Murillo, Ribera, who explain the conventions from which Velasquez escaped, and of Goya, reputed heir to his traditions, who reveals the puerilities into which his successors fell. If Goya detains one longest, simply because his name is so often heard, his work so seldom seen outside of Madrid, he offers little but disappointment. A few sketches of heads are as vivid and strong in character as the finished figures in the "Family of Charles IV.," which hangs up stairs, are dull and commonplace; the other portraits may interest because they suggest the influence of England rather than of Spain; one, of the painter Bayeu, may delight by its lovely harmony of grays which Velasquez might have inspired; but the series, as a whole, can but mark the decadence attributed to the mediocrities of a later date, and a visit to the room above, consecrated to his tapestry designs, more than confirms the impression. If Juanes, from whom less is expected, pleases more, if a portrait or tiny canvas here and there shows what he might have done had he always painted to please himself, he was still bound too fast in primitive leading-strings to make his personality a power. If Murillo's Madonnas and Holy Children hang together in numbers exceeded only in Seville and rivalled nowhere else, their sweetness and affectation gain nothing from the obvious repetition of motive and treatment; so that to have seen a single canvas in London or Paris is, virtually, to have seen all that are here. And if Ribera's vigor, after Murillo's prettiness, braces like a tonic, if the rich color and straightforward simplicity of composition in his St. Bartholomew or his Old Hermit, as in the Dresden Magdalen, compel attention, he was too often willing to efface himself for the sake of prevailing conventions, and to transfer to his pictures the correct model correctly posed, rather than the real men or the real women.

There could be no stronger contrast than to turn from these four artists immediately to Velasquez. For even if one has felt the force of the "Philip and the Admiral" in London, of the royal portraits in Vienna, of the General Borro (his, despite *ex-cathedra* utterances of the useless connoisseur) in Berlin, the group of canvases with which one is now confronted must come as a new revelation of his genius. It includes the equestrian portraits, the Dwarfs, the Æsop, several of the best portraits of Philip, the Maids of Honor, and the Lances; that is, it includes almost all his most distinguished and characteristic pictures. To pass them by with no greater emotion than the Murillos and Riberas were passed would be impossible. They may repel, they may perplex; but, whatever the emotion they excite, they are not to be ignored. The intense and sincere individuality of the man takes hold of one and commands respect. Sweet sentiment may be still preferred, old formulas prized more highly, but the power with which he evolved a style as sound as new, and demonstrated the possibilities of new materials, is felt before one has had time to analyze impressions.

After this group, the beautiful Titians and Tintorettos and Veroneses that adorn the upper end of the hall do not satisfy and enchant to the same degree as they never fail to do elsewhere. I do not want to be misunderstood. That among these canvases are many not to be lightly overlooked nor dismissed in a word, it would be worse than folly to dispute. But the truth remains that the Venetians, in other galleries apt to overpower artists who share the walls with them, in their turn are here somewhat overpowered by Velasquez, of whom, in a measure, they were the masters. Their individuality, strong as it is, seems to lose in strength when compared to his. Perhaps Velasquez is put to a fairer test in the large room, which corresponds to the Salon Carré of the Louvre, inasmuch as it is preserved for those great examples of all schools and nations which are held to be the gallery's richest treasures. Here his work, no longer gathered in a single series, is well scattered, and a fair number of the world's masterpieces challenge preëminence with it. For here, too, are Titian's Bacchanals and his Cupids, here Rubens's portrait of Marie de Médicis. The face of Dürer, as painted by himself, in frame of curls and under cap and feather, the man with the bulbous nose, by Holbein, are best of foils to Moro's Mary Tudor, to Vandyke's Countess of Oxford. The tiny "Death of the Virgin" by Mantegna, with its lovely landscape; the interiors, masterly in their excess of finish, by Van Eyck, prove how little mere size has to do with the painter's triumph. Lotto's "Betrothal," Zurbaran's "Sleeping Child Jesus," show how, in his happiest mood, the lesser master also could excel. In a word, there is not a canvas that does not call for careful study; even the Raphaels, the small Holy Family excepted, detaining one, if only to marvel at the endurance of the fame which still claims distinguished honors for such indifferent commonplace. But in this gallery, as in the hall, it is again Velasquez who figures most conspicuously on the walls; again Velasquez who demands, as a right, acceptance of his supremacy. It is to his "Spinners" the eye involuntarily is drawn first, though Rubens's "Garden of Love" may face it; it is the study of the nude in his "Topers" that stirs to admiration, though Titian's "Venus and Adonis" (scarce the worthy replica of the National Gallery Venus, it should be added) hangs not far away; his Maria Theresa, his Fernando of Austria, his sculptor Montañes are the people who "live within their frames and stand upon their legs"; and though Murillo's "St. John and Child Jesus" is a melting tribute to that artist's *vaporosa* period, of which the guidebook discourses so learnedly, its prettiness is completely overpowered by the vigor of the "St. Anthony Visiting St. Paul in the Desert."

Another test awaits Velasquez in the room devoted wholly to the Spanish school, and again the result establishes the irresistible power of his personality in paint. Ribera's Titans writhe in agony, Murillo's Virgins ascend in glory, kings fill many a canvas with their royal presence. But the pictures that, in studio slang, "make a hole in the wall," are the joyous Don Balthasar, with crimson scarf flying, on his barrel-like horse, the sombre

"Forge of Vulcan," the Queen Mariana, ill-temper writ large on her well-rouged face, the Philip in shining armor. These are the pictures which one sees first, which one goes back to see again and again; the pictures which interest most at the time, which linger longest in the memory. N. N.

# Correspondence.

## TARIFF AND INCOME TAX.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If Senator Hoar objects to income tax on the ground that it "puts an equal burden upon the man without property whose income is derived from his labor, and the man who possesses property which has come to him by inheritance," may he not with profit study the operation of tariff taxes, to which exactly the same objection applies?

We might ask the Senator if he thinks the law should deal more harshly with a thief who robs a man depending upon a salary than one who robs a man enjoying the same income from property. A moral thief, in the Senator's mind, may be one who piously discriminates in favor of those who earn their living, despoiling only such as are guilty of possessing something they did not earn. Can we not go deeper into the evil of income tax, and decide that its wrong consists in taking private property? or must we all fall into line with the Socialists, and declare that private property is to be held sacred only so long as the "State" does not want it? T. Wistar Brown, Jr.

Philadelphia, October 26, 1894.

## MODERN GREEK PRONUNCIATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A passage in the letter of Prof. W. C. Lawton on "Romaic and Greek" in the last *Nation* seems to imply that "the conviction has been uttered" by me, "that we must eventually decide to make this modern patois [modern Greek] our stepping-stone to the classical speech." I have never had any convictions to utter upon this subject, and I have never even suggested that modern Greek should be used as a stepping-stone to the study of ancient Greek. Prof. Lawton probably refers to a remark on Greek pronunciation in the preface of my recently published Greek Grammar, where, after speaking of the impossibility of pronouncing a Greek sentence now so that it would have been intelligible to Demosthenes or Plato, I say:

"I therefore look upon the question of Greek pronunciation chiefly as it concerns the means of communication between modern scholars and between teachers and pupils. I see no prospect of uniformity here, unless at some future time scholars agree to unite on the modern Greek pronunciation, with all its objectionable features. As Athens becomes more and more a centre of civilization and art, her claim to decide the question of the pronunciation of her ancient language may some time be too strong to resist. In the meantime, I see no reason for changing the system of pronunciation which I have followed and advocated more than thirty years, which adopts what is tolerably certain and practicable in the ancient pronunciation and leaves the rest to modern usage or to individual judgment."

In 1860, when I succeeded my beloved teacher, the late President Felton, as professor of Greek, I promised him that I would advocate the modern pronunciation of ancient Greek when Constantinople became the capital of a restored Greek empire—an event which he confidently expected to occur within the next five or ten years. When this condition is fulfilled, there may be ground for the alarm which appears in Prof. Lawton's letter. At present this seems to me premature.

William W. Goodwin.

Cambridge, October 27, 1894.

## A "COURS DE VACANCES."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: During the summer of 1894 an event of considerable importance took place, viz: the inauguration, under the auspices of the Alliance Française, 45 rue de Grenelle, of a summer course of lectures, "of a quality such as can be found only at Paris." Heretofore American teachers of French who have gone abroad to improve their qualifications have been obliged either to take private lessons or to give up their positions for a year in order to attend the Sorbonne. Henceforth they will have the advantage of courses planned for the benefit of foreigners and delivered by lecturers of acknowledged worth and reputation.

Owing, apparently, to a lack of proper advertisement (the Americans usually best informed being unaware that the courses were to begin), the number in the classes was not so large as it well might have been. And yet the modest rooms devoted to the purpose were filled almost to overflowing by a concourse of from thirty to forty visitors from England, Holland, Sweden, Germany, Poland, and Rumania. Only three Americans were registered. Among the courses, which were five in number, the one having the largest attendance was that in diction and elocution, given by M. Berr of the Comédie-Française. His method was very simple. Each of us read to him before the class a selection from French literature, with a view to correct pronunciation, but more especially to correct delivery. It was a treat, meanwhile, to listen to M. Berr's rendering of the French classic writers—a treat all the rarer in the case of authors like Bossuet, La Fontaine, or La Bruyère, who may not be enjoyed at the theatre. One word of minor criticism may be permitted. M. Berr's instruction, as he himself had the frankness to acknowledge, was that of an actor rather than of a teacher, his style of delivery partaking more of the stage than of the class-room. On the other hand, the lectures on the French language of to-day by M. Ferdinand Brunot, if chargeable with unsuitability, found their difficulty in the deficient preparation of his pupils, most of whom, for want of grounding in the elements of Old French, appeared to lose the drift of M. Brunot's most illuminating remarks when they bore on the origin of contemporary idioms; a subject which formed a large part of his aim and purpose. By his enthusiasm, however, he awakened the interest of nearly all his auditors. After a lecture, I asked him, in relation to the recent study of contemporary French grammar, whether there was not a good deal of scientific interest in the French language of to-day. His reply was, "Il n'a pas commencé."

The lectures in literature covered in general the modern period from Rabelais down. M. Jacquinet, who proved himself a charming lecturer, both by his delivery and by his faithfulness to the spirit of literary *chefs-d'œuvre*, gave a résumé of the principal works from the sixteenth to the eighteenth century inclusive. For the nineteenth century we had the gratification of listening to M. René Doumic, the author of the popular 'Histoire de la Littérature Française' and of several volumes of essays, one of which, 'Écrivains d'aujourd'hui,' was reviewed some time ago in the *Nation*. M. Doumic's readers, had they all been present, would have found him not less pleasant as a lecturer than as a writer. Personally he is apparently between thirty and forty years of age, short in stature, pale both from ill-health and from severe labor, and remarkable for a gray eye that now seems to dream over its idealizing or reflection, now lights up quietly with the malice of the *esprit gaulois*.

Last, but not least, M. Chailley-Bert of the *Journal des Débats* naturally found sympathy as one who interests himself, as a student, in the political problems of what he calls the "four great peoples of the world," France, England, Germany, and the United States. And while we were forced to smile now and then as he drew a portrait of the contemporary Frenchman, we were obliged also to admire him as a patriot who did not fear to tell the truth concerning the country to whose welfare he was devoted.

There were one or two lacunæ in the general plan of the *Cours*. One of them, the filling of which would perhaps be too much to expect from conservative men of education, was the French literature of 1880, a subject of increasing attention among scholars in European countries other than France, and one deeply involving, of course, the French literature of the future. A defect which would be more readily acknowledged was the lack of opportunity for acquaintance with Old French—a branch beginning to be studied in American colleges, and constituting of late the life-study of some of the best intellects of France and Germany. A. B. S.

Berlin, October 13, 1894.

## FARMING IN MARYLAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The article on "Wheat Farmers in Maryland," by Mr. C. Meriwether of Frederick, in No. 1520 of the *Nation*, has deservedly attracted widespread attention. "The largest crop in twelve years and the lowest price ever known," decline in prices of all the products of the farm, a continual falling off of the values of land, mortgages burdening the farmers until they are obliged to become tenants instead of owners, and a general decline of prosperity with no prospect of recovery, is the gloomy picture painted by Mr. Meriwether of the beautiful, once so prosperous, Maryland, with the best farming land in the world and a thrifty, intelligent, and industrious population. The redeeming features are the low prices of everything for the consumer, and the steadfast faith in sound economical principles prevailing among the people. No Populism there.

In many respects Maryland reminds me of my native country, Denmark, which, seventeen years ago, when I left it to become an American, was passing through the same deplorable condition in which the State of Maryland as well as other Eastern and Southern States are found to-day. Denmark is essentially an agricultural country. No coal, nor iron, nor precious metals are found beneath its soil. But glorious carpets of the "yellow grain," of barley and of oats, adorned its plains, and well stocked barns abounded on its undulating lands. The export of wheat was the main support of farming. But lo! though the crops might be the largest in years, the prices were the lowest ever known. Downward and downward they pitilessly fell. Mort-

gage piled upon mortgage, sheriff's sales of farms that had been in the possession of the same families a century, inability to pay rent, and general depression, slowly and gradually overwhelmed the farmers, and ruin stared them in the face. The unprecedented rapid development of the American railroads, the opening-up of the Western prairies for farming, and the throwing of immense quantities of American wheat upon the English markets, steadily and surely undermined the support of the Danish farmers, until "the bottom was out."

It was evident that this ruinous condition could not be changed except by some radical departure from the beaten track in which the farmers had been moving with no thought of the possibility of diverging. The flood of Western wheat upon the English market could not be checked. On the contrary, more land would be opened for cultivation on the American plains, new machinery applied to cheapen its production, and new railroads engaged in bringing it into competition with European products. What could be done to stay the march towards complete ruin? To be sure, wheat was not the only product of the Danish farms. Mixed farming had always been practised. Barley for malt was grown and exported to some extent. The culture of sugar beets and the manufacture of sugar had been introduced, and promised some relief for the sections surrounding the factories. Dairying was quite an item in the list of farming pursuits, and much had been done to improve the butter, so that already in the seventies Danish butter had acquired a high reputation in the English market. "Creameries also had aided in furnishing a steady outlet for milk all the year round. But all these smaller industries were by-products, and the ordinary farm could not be run on them. There must be some mainstay, and this had always been wheat." I am quoting from Mr. Meriwether's description of the condition in Maryland today, and I might quote indefinitely from that article in describing the state of affairs in Denmark fifteen or twenty years ago.

It was seen that products of greater intrinsic value must be the aim. The cheap grain must be refined into more remunerative articles, and such goods must be produced as could not so well stand the transportation from across the Atlantic, yet which would not be injured by the two or three days' journey to England. Such an article was *butter*. To the production of first-class butter for the London market all energies were therefore bent, and the result was remarkable. In ten years all export of wheat had ceased. The former "mainstay" dropped out of consideration altogether, but the export of butter was doubled and trebled. Not only is nearly everything produced on the farms now fed to the cows, but oil-cake, bran, and other concentrated feeds are imported in large quantities. Cotton-seed meal and corn from this country find a ready market over there. Denmark is dotted with nicely built, well-managed creameries. The farmer receives his main profit from the milk. Danish butter is known the world over; it is delivered less than a week old in London, and as yet it competes easily with American and Australian butter, which must necessarily be at least a month old before reaching the consumer.

How this change was accomplished in so short a time and under the adverse circumstances prevailing is like a fairy tale. The farmers were nearly ruined, land had dropped one-half in value, and nobody had money or credit. Yet a thousand finely built creameries sprang up like mushrooms, owned by the farmers themselves, and literally saved the country. The secret of this remarkable performance is coöperation. Never was there a grander exhibition of the old saying, In unity is strength. The farmers would club together, each promising the milk from a certain number of cows, borrow the money, mostly from the savings banks, insurance companies, mutual-loan establishments, etc., put up the creameries in a substantial style, and engage experts to run the business. In a few years they would be able to pay off the loan if required; but usually the mortgagees considered these investments safe and profitable. The success of these coöperative creameries ("Andels-Mejerier") was the incentive to the establishment of other agricultural industries on the coöperative plan. Packing-houses, owned by the farmers, killing thousands of hogs, are already quite numerous. The beet-sugar factories now supply the whole country with sugar, and that with an internal revenue on sugar equal to the import duty. Coöperative canning factories are also being built, and agricultural industries generally are flourishing. More attention is paid to truck-farming; and until the McKinley tariff closed the American market, eggs and cabbage were even exported to the United States in no small quantities.

The opening-up of the prairie lands in Kansas, Nebraska, Minnesota, the Dakotas, and British Columbia first made itself felt in Europe, taking the bottom out of the mainstay of the countries supplying the all-absorbing industrial England with agricultural products, and later undermined the support of the farmers of our Eastern States. But the energetic Western farmers did not stop at wheat: Illinois, Iowa, Wisconsin, and Minnesota now produce enormous quantities of butter and cheese. And where do these products go? To Chicago, of course, and to New York, Philadelphia, *Baltimore*, Washington, and Richmond. In these cities Elgin creamery butter leads the market. Why is it that the consumer in Baltimore wanting good butter on his table should be left to buy Western butter instead of delicious Maryland butter fresh from the farm or from the creamery? What is the reason for the fact that public opinion in the city of Washington is outraged by a scandalously poor supply of milk? Why should the Four Hundred in Washington pay 40 to 60 cents a pound for butter from Pennsylvania creameries, when the finest butter might be produced right outside the suburbs at 30 cents at far larger profit than there has been in wheat for years past, and when Frederick County might supply it fresh on the table of the epicure every morning?

Go to New England, if not to Denmark, and see what has been accomplished by the coöperation of dairymen, and how to build and manage creameries. Agitate the question at your Grange meetings. At the county fairs devote a little less interest to trotting and racing and more to the cattle. Start bull associations, enabling farmers of limited means to breed the best of stock. Go to Philadelphia and see how the Farmers' Creamery Company disposes of a hundred thousand pounds of milk a day at an exceedingly remunerative net price to the farmers, and how the Meadow Farms Dairy Company furnishes sanitary milk. Go to Wisconsin and see the magnificent dairy school at Madison, visited by hundreds of interested students. Our friends the Populists are not slow in making demands upon the Government. They want millions for public elevators and advances on grain, billions for the purchase of railroads, a million for the extinction of the Russian thistle, etc. Stand by your sound principles, and say to your Legislature: "We do not want assistance in or interference with our private business, but we do want *education*. We demand of our State Government the establishment of a first-class dairy school. We want the best teachers for our boys and our girls. We want authoritative and reliable dairy instructors, to whom we may apply for advice as to the establishment of co-operative creameries, men of absolute integrity and with practical knowledge. If such men are not available, make haste and educate some intelligent young men with that end in view. Having learned what they can of dairying in this country, let them go abroad and study the manufacture of cheese in France and of butter in Denmark. Give us specialists in each branch. Let them lecture at our meetings and advise us generally." A hundred thousand dollars judiciously spent for such purposes would be trifling considering the good it might do. And this is a legitimate demand on a Government of the people and for the people. Maryland boasts of its "Farmer-Governor." Ask him to help you in this reasonable demand. Educate yourselves and your children, and let the Government give you the facilities. J. D. FREDERIKSEN.

LITTLE FALLS, N. Y., October 23, 1894.

# Notes.

HARPER & BROS. will publish in November an illustrated volume on 'Four American Universities, viz.: Harvard, Yale, Princeton, and Columbia,' by Profs. Charles Eliot Norton, A. T. Hadley, W. M. Sloane, and Brander Matthews, all graduates of, as well as instructors in, the institutions about which they write—all except Prof. Sloane of Princeton, who is an alumnus of Columbia. About the same time the Macmillans will publish Prof. E. D. Perry's translation of Prof. Paulsen's admirable account of the German universities, for which Prof. Nicholas Murray Butler has written an introduction, contrasting the German and the American universities.

Henry Holt & Co. will issue shortly a story of New York life, 'The Honorable Peter Stirling, and What People Thought of Him,' by Paul Leicester Ford; and 'The Indiscretion of the Duchess,' by Anthony Hope.

Macmillan will publish in connection with A. & C. Black a new 'Survey of London' for the area covered by the jurisdiction of the London County Council—say twelve by seventeen miles. The "editor, director, and the principal writer of the work" will be Mr. Walter Besant, who will imitate Stowe and Strype to the extent of a "Perambulation" taking account of every important building, institution, company, church, hospital, college, almshouse, museum, library, etc. Eight quarto volumes are contemplated, fully illustrated. From Macmillan we are to have, besides, 'The Life of the Czar,' by Charles Low; 'Law in a Free State,' political essays by Wordsworth Donisthorpe; 'Mr. Lowell in England,' a series of familiar letters edited by George W. Smalley; and 'The Book of the Rose,' by the Rev. A. Foster Melliar, rector of Sproughton in Suffolk, England.

Roberts Bros., Boston, will publish November 10 two volumes of Emily Dickinson's Letters, edited by Mrs. David P. Todd of Amherst. They comprise all the prose Emily Dickinson is known to have written, and

among the well-known persons to whom they are addressed are Col. Higginson, Dr. J. G. Holland, Helen Hunt, Samuel Bowles, and others. The popularity of Miss Dickinson's Poems, of which two volumes have so far been published, the first in 1890 and the second in 1891, has been remarkable, more than 12,000 copies having been sold.

Among holiday reprints of familiar classics that have so far reached our table, the Messrs. Putnam's "Van Tassel" edition of Irving's 'Sketch Book' easily holds the first place. It is, of course, in line with their very sumptuous Irving series, from year to year, and it seems to us not inferior to any—to the "Van Twiller," the "Agapida," or the "Darro." Holly, ivy, and other vines and berries in green and red furnish a change of borders for the very clear and evenly impressed text. The binding, of white and gold and green, is tastefully designed. The illustrations are, as usual, photogravures, but Darley's outlines were wisely retained for the "Legend of Sleepy Hollow" and for "Rip Van Winkle," though in the latter case intermingled with portraits of the actor Jefferson—which, again, was almost inevitable. The total result is a charming gift book. Maurice Leloir's designs are what lend distinction to the 'Paul and Virginia' brought out by Messrs. Appleton. They have a true decorative quality in perfect harmony with the letterpress, which cannot be said of the work of most illustrators, while their fancy and their draughtsmanship are out of the common. The binding is also to be praised.

What should a 'Yellow Fairy-Book' be doing without a Chinese tale in it? Mr. Andrew Lang's latest collection (Longmans) is saved by one example, but there is the usual heterogeneity—Russia, Poland, Greece, Denmark, France, aboriginal America, all furnishing a material part of the contents. Mr. Lang successfully contends in his preface against Mr. Laurence Gomme for the propriety of mixing folk-lore and the deliberate inventions of our latter-day fabulists; but why should he name the sources of some of his stories and not of others; and why acknowledge "The Emperor's New Clothes" to be Andersen's and say nothing about the authorship of "The Steadfast Tin Soldier"? Mr. Ford's pictures are graceful and effective. The colored series seems to be closed with this volume.

We have received the third portly volume of Mr. Larned's 'History for Ready Reference and Topical Reading,' extending from *Greece* to *Nibelungen Lied* (Springfield, Mass.: Nichols). As the work progresses, our admiration increases for the thoroughness and wide reading of the editor. There are few omissions worth noticing. It may be remarked, however, that the reader who had only this work to refer to would remain ignorant that "Liturgy" had any other than its old Greek sense. The only notable weakness in arrangement would seem to be in the biographies. "Duff" Green is here, but not Green the historian. We have looked in vain for Sir Thomas Gresham; perhaps he lies buried somewhere in the "Money" article. Hobbes is absent, and Locke appears only as the author of a colonial constitution. And Lord Mansfield has to be dug out in fragments from the article on "Law." These are omissions that perhaps an index will correct; and they will not seriously impair the usefulness of the book to those who are likely to profit by it. Most of its readers will also probably not quarrel with its rather old-fashioned estimate of the relative importance of the several topics.

One of the best volumes we have seen of the "Stories of the Nations" series is that on 'Venice,' by Mme. Alethea Wiel (G. P. Putnam's Sons). So far as we have observed, the story is in the main well told, due emphasis being laid on the really important crises in the career of the Venetian Republic, and an attempt being made to interweave information about the art, literature, and customs of the Venetians. Mme. Wiel's style is fluent, although she has the trick of always giving *two* nouns, or *two* verbs, or *two* adjectives, which she may have caught from the Book of Common Prayer. Occasionally her idioms—"in regard *of*," for example—suggest the foreigner, and she uses *dukedom* as if it were equivalent to *reign*. To our ears, "During the dukedom of Tiepolo" sounds as odd as "During the kingdom of Queen Victoria" would sound. Many process illustrations add to the attractiveness of the book.

Mrs. Isabella Bird Bishop's 'Six Months in the Sandwich Islands' (Putnams) is reprinted from the fifth English edition. It is one of the liveliest of the many books about Hawaii. The author was in the Islands from January to July, 1873, and saw the country under especially favorable conditions, not the least of which was her own energetic and receptive temperament. She observed much, and described clearly what she saw. The grandeur of Kilauea, the beauty of Hilo and Kauai, the geniality of the people, the charm of the best tropical climate in the world—all these things are set forth very vividly. The reprint follows the original even too faithfully, as a few errors have been reproduced which might have been eliminated here by any one familiar with the Islands. These slight defects, however, are more than atoned for by the illustrations, twenty in number, which the American publishers have added, mostly from photographs of recent date, and which increase the attractiveness of the most attractive volume of Hawaiian travels of its period.

'Studies of Nature on the Coast of Arran' (Longmans), is the title of a sailing and strolling narrative by George Milner, author of 'Country Pleasures' fifteen years ago. It is entertaining gossip of places and people by a sympathetic writer; it is easy reading; but the title is misleading, and one who takes up the book in the expectation of finding a real understanding of the nature of the coast of Arran will be disappointed. Such phrases as "nature's workshop" and the "uncontrollable forces of nature" occur here and there, but their context justifies the term "unpretentious notes" which the author applies to his book in the preface.

'Outlines of How to Study Geography' (Appletons), by Col. F. D. Parker of the Cook County (Chicago) Normal School, is an aid to the use of the author's larger book on this subject. It is of value in setting forth the expansive relations of geography with other subjects, but it seems defective in the treatment of geography itself. While recognizing the fundamental importance of the physical aspects of geography and the necessity of field study, Col. Parker does not appear to have carried his own field studies far enough. The illustrations, prepared by assistants in the Normal School, are effectively drawn pictures of unnatural land forms, based on untrained imagination rather than on observation.

We do not, as a rule, notice texts published for the use of schools and colleges, but the 'Extraits Choisis des Œuvres de Paul Bourget,' edited by Prof. van Daell (Boston: Ginn & Co.) merits attention on account of the "Lettre autobiographique" prefixed to the extracts, in which M. Bourget himself tells of himself, his mode of thought, and his method of work.

The second volume of M. Brunetière's 'Évolution de la Poésie lyrique en France' (Paris: Hachette) is published. It comprises the lectures on Vigny, "the one and only thinker in the Romantic school," Théophile Gautier, Hugo, the renascence of naturalism, Leconte de Lisle, Hérédia, Sully-Prudhomme, Coppée, and the Symbolists, with a closing lecture on the future of poetry in France and some considerations on the method used by the author. Like the lectures contained in the first volume, these have been retouched here and there, but are substantially as delivered. And how instructive, stimulating to thought, and interesting they are need not be told to any one who knows Brunetière's work.

'Guizot,' by M. A. Bardoux, is the latest volume in the series of "Les Grands Écrivains Français" published by Hachette. M. Bardoux succeeds not only in describing his subject tersely and clearly, but also in making him interesting. The peculiarity of Guizot's character, a certain hardness and stiffness, is brought out, but all that is noble about the man receives due recognition. Guizot is looked at from six different points of view in this short study, and each is well chosen. The volume is one of the best in the series.

Two books on the modern English novel have recently been published, one of British authorship and one of American; a bulkier one now comes to us from Paris, 'Le Roman en France depuis 1610 jusqu'à nos jours,' by M. Paul Morillot (Paris: G. Masson; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer). The French author has worked also on a larger scale: he gives not merely biographical details of the novelists with critical comments, but also well-chosen extracts from the novels themselves. He begins with 'Astrée' and 'Le Roman Comique' and the 'Princesse de Clèves,' and ends with "Pierre Loti" and Maupassant, with Jean Richepin, Anatole France, Daudet, and Bourget. His manual is likely to be useful; and especially handy is the chronological table of French fiction from 1610 to 1870.

Apropos of a monument just set up at Toucy to Pierre Larousse, author of the 'Grand Dictionnaire,' a writer in the Paris *Débats* remarks that, in spite of the convenience of this cyclopædic work, it cannot avert the caution applicable to its class: "Distrust of them is the beginning of wisdom." An amusing example of this we lately chanced upon in Larousse, in a long American biography, of which the subject was said to have been born—in the wrong year—at "Inouë, Missouri"; this impossible place standing for Newburyport, Mass. For the rest, the notice was a consummate specimen of ignorant, second-hand hackwork.

The *Portfolio* monograph for October affords another instance of the recent revival of interest in one of the most beautiful of the minor arts. It is on "Bookbindings in France." The writer, Mr. William Y. Fletcher, shows a thorough appreciation of the reasons why bookbinding has flourished more in France than elsewhere. He follows the best authorities in the main, but he has investigated for himself. He believes that Florimond Badier was not *Le Gascon* himself, but rather one of his imitators. Especially praiseworthy are the colored illustrations which accompany Mr. Fletcher's text; they are well chosen and well reproduced, and the ample page of the *Portfolio* has permitted many of them to be reproduced full

size. The process cuts scattered through the letterpress are inferior, yet not really bad, and they have been selected with taste. It is to be hoped that the *Portfolio* will give us also monographs on British and on German bookbindings, disregarding the designs which are mere copies from the great French masters, and illustrating the work which is really characteristic of the artists of Great Britain and Germany.

The *Guardian* of September 12 publishes some interesting tables giving the results of this year's Oxford and Cambridge University examinations for certificates. As compared with last year, an increase in the number of candidates shows the growing popularity of the scheme, though a few large schools still stand aloof. Of the seventeen subjects included in the examination papers, the largest number of boys offered elementary mathematics, Scripture knowledge, Latin, history, French, and Greek. The order differs from that of last year, Latin (which was then in the second place) having lost heavily, and Greek slightly, while history and French have gained decidedly. It is interesting to note, as a sign of the conservatism of secondary education in England, that still not a tenth part of the scholars offer any one of the natural sciences. Distinctions in six subjects were gained by two boys. The candidates for "commercial certificates," for some unexplained cause, possibly a lack of value in obtaining situations, have fallen off from forty-four in 1891 to twenty-one the present year, and there is reason to fear that this part of the scheme will have to be abandoned. The number of girls who were offered was slightly larger than last year.

According to Ascherson's 'Universitäts Kalender,' 28,418 matriculated students were pursuing their studies in the twenty universities of the German Empire, the Academy at Münster, and the Lyceum Hosianum at Braunsberg, during the summer semester of 1894. Of these 8,684 were studying medicine, 7,776 law, cameralistics, and forestry, 3,336 Protestant theology, 1,469 Catholic theology, while the remaining 6,153 belonged to the philosophical department. As regards numbers, Berlin ranked first, with 4,625, Munich second, with 3,744, and Leipzig third, with 2,764. Then followed Bonn (1,634), Halle (1,528), Freiburg (1,477), Würzburg (1,292), Breslau (1,280), Tübingen (1,210), Heidelberg (1,206), Strassburg (913), Marburg (866), Greifswald (824), Erlangen (792), Göttingen (786), Königsberg (712), Jena (674), Kiel (610), Giessen (576), Rostock (436), Münster (426), and Braunsberg (43). We may add that the two institutions last mentioned can hardly be called universities, inasmuch as they have each only two faculties: Catholic theology and philosophy.

Since the University of Brussels in 1889 raised the conditions of admission to matriculation there has been a gradual diminution of the number of female students in attendance. In 1889 there were 40, in 1890 33, in 1891 21, in 1892 27, and in 1893 20, of whom thirteen were studying pharmacy, three medicine, and four philosophy in the academical sense of the term, including philology and literature. That there were no female students of law is probably due to the fact that women are not permitted to practise this profession in Belgium. The present state of things shows clearly the necessity of establishing better preparatory schools for girls.

It is gradually ceasing to be uncommon to see the names of women as contributors to science. Recent Proceedings of the Berlin Academy of Sciences (the most distinguished scientific body in the world), the British Association for the Advancement of Science, the American Association for the Advancement of Science, and the Royal Society, not to speak of the scientific journals, all contain contributions from women.

—No. 6 of the Radcliffe College Monographs, entitled 'A Classified List of Printed Original Materials for English Manorial and Agrarian History during the Middle Ages,' is by Frances Gardiner Davenport, A.B. The primary aim of the compiler is to include in the list documents printed in full or in large fragments; it also contains lists of maps and of text books of manorial law. Miss Davenport labored under the disadvantage of not having access to the large libraries of England, but the collections of manorial material in Boston and Cambridge are fairly rich, and her book will certainly be found very valuable by investigators in England as well as in America. Students in this and other branches of English history have long felt the need of such bibliographical works. With all due allowance for omissions, it may be said that Miss Davenport's survey comprehends the cream of the printed material relating to manorial development, arranged in convenient form for ready reference; the gaps in the lists will not greatly impair their utility. The value of the Bibliography on pages 1–13 would have been enhanced if the author had extended it beyond the titles cited in the body of the work—*i. e.*, if she had included in it all the more important modern books relating to the history of particular manors; but it would be difficult to do this without having access to the British Museum and other foreign libraries. Miss Davenport is to be commended for the thoroughness and scholarly discrimination with which she has performed her task; the book reflects much credit upon her, upon the editor, Prof. W. J. Ashley, and upon Radcliffe College.

—The *Pedagogical Seminary* for October—the first number since December, 1893—is devoted almost entirely to child-study. Excellent examples of contrasting methods of study are to be found in Miss E. M. Haskell's "Imitation in Children," and Miss M. E. Schallenberger's "Study of Children's Rights as Seen by Themselves." Miss Haskell, working with Principal Russell at Worcester, Mass., gets her data from observations of children's acts taken at random and classified afterwards. Her facts point to a development from purely reflex imitation to impersonation, with growing regard to accessories and consistency; but what they indicate most unmistakably is the danger of drawing too definite conclusions. Miss Schallenberger, working with Earl Barnes in California, got answers from 3,000 children to a single skilfully disguised question. From these it appears that young children disregard motives and think they have a right to revenge when an act is hurtful; that boys are less merciful than girls; that the idea of restitution is common to all ages, and that threats and forced promises do not impress children. This method of questioning rather than observing has many limitations. J. A. Hancock's "Preliminary Study of Motor Ability" records a good deal of careful experimental work, confirming the doctrine of nascent periods of functional development, and emphasizing the importance of beginning to train each nervous centre at exactly the right time. In "Education by Plays and Games," G. E. Johnson suggests how this may be done. He gives a list of 440 games, and indicates briefly the muscles or mental faculties each exercises most. Children themselves choose games suited to their stage of development, but, as they do not invent, they should be taught the best. These are given in a classified "Course of Games," corresponding somewhat to those now prescribed in some Austrian schools. It is difficult to see why so many good articles should have been crowded into fine print to make room for A. H. Yoder's "Boyhood of Great Men."

—The *Nation* loses a valued contributor, and the Bureau of Ethnology one of its chief ornaments, by the death, on October 24, of Lt.-Col. Garrick Mallery, U.S.A., in the sixty-fourth year of his age. He was born in Pennsylvania, descended from well-known Revolutionary families, was a graduate of Yale College in 1850, and a lawyer by profession when the civil war drew him into the ranks as a volunteer from his native State. His conspicuous bravery (which cost him wounds and confinement in Libby Prison) entitled him on retiring to the brevet rank above named. Our Indian troubles were the cause of his devoting himself in the end to the most intelligent and indefatigable researches into the sign and gesture language of the aborigines, and his sudden death followed by only a few months the conclusion of his monumental work on the subject, which is to be found in the current annual report of his Bureau and has been printed separately to a limited extent. "It now appears," he wrote to us last June, "in as completed a shape as is possible with constantly increasing information." But we shall speak of it at length hereafter. Personally Col. Mallery was a man of high tone, combined with the most amiable and courteous disposition and a fine presence. He did honor to the service and to science, and will be missed from the membership of a large number of learned societies.

—The antique custom of hair-cropping, with its various symbolic meanings, once existed all over Europe and Western Asia. When prisoners of war were allowed to live after the battle, instead of being massacred wholesale by the conqueror, they cut off their locks and tendered them to the victor as a sign of complete surrender of their bodies. Among the ancient Germans a free man could by the use of this symbol transfer himself, if not his family also, into another's servitude, and this was even customary in case of insolvency. With a portion of the Western Germans, the Franks, the offer of one's locks passed for a token of homage and respect. Placing one's self under the protection of a superior or ruler was attended by the same symbolic act, even in early times, and not alone in a secular relation. In the Greek Catholic Church especially many neophytes sought, by submitting to be clipped, the good graces of the ecclesiastical superiors. It became a part of the baptismal rite, and the godfather was in certain districts (inhabited by Southern Slavs, Bulgarians, etc.) called the "shorn-hair sponsor." This is the signification of the queer-sounding German term "Haarschurgodschaft" actually in use among southern European nations, for which the equivalent "Haarschurgevatterschaft" is sometimes substituted. As Dr. Friedrich S. Krauss has lately shown in an elaborate treatise on this specialty ("Haarschurgodschaft bei den Südslaven"; Leyden: E. J. Brill), another influence was helpful in perpetuating the traces of that custom among the Slavs, viz., the system of "brotherhoods" or clanships (*bratstvo*). From this point of view the custom was in-

tended to bind the neophyte for life to the clan to which he belonged. Its most important historical document transmitted from the earlier centuries is a *guslar*, or troubadour song, about four hundred years old, in Slavic rhyme, celebrating the warlike deeds of Gruyos Novakovitch. Krauss prints it *in extenso*, and with the German metric translation it fills seventeen quarto pages, or one-half of the whole memoir, which constitutes a portion of vol. vii. of Schmeltz's *Internationales Archiv für Ethnographie*.

## A PHILANTHROPIC AUTOBIOGRAPHY.

*Life of Frances Power Cobbe.* By Herself. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1894.

Miss Cobbe's life has been a useful, interesting, and important one, and she has told the story of it better, on the whole, than any other biographer could do it. Those who have read her books most faithfully for forty years will enjoy her story most, because they can pass trippingly over the chapters which contain abstracts of those books that do them little justice, especially in the case of the more serious. Where she takes off the cream of a book of Eastern travel, it is, of course, another thing. The manner of Miss Cobbe in these volumes is without any egotism or vanity, but not without some self-assertion and a great deal of self-respect. Yet there are points at which another's hand would give a different and much more favorable impression. No one who did not share in the enthusiasm excited by her 'Intuitive Morals,' her first book and her *opus magnum* (1855), would get much notion of it from her account, and one would also like a view of her anti-vivisection labors and sorrows from the outside. These give the autobiography at last a strenuous tone in vivid contrast with its earlier pleasantness and charm.

Miss Cobbe was born in Dublin December 4, 1822, a late comer, an unwelcome child. She considered herself well born, inheriting a physical frame "which, however defective, even to the verge of grotesqueness, from the æsthetic point of view," has been to her, as regards health and energy, a source of endless enjoyment. To the fact that she came of a good family in the conventional sense she is not indifferent. Her father's progenitors were for many generations the owners of Lord Ashburton's beautiful "Grange" in Hampshire. The family got its Irish residence when, early in the eighteenth century, Charles Cobbe was made Archbishop of Dublin and built himself a noble house on the rocky coast of Portrane, twelve miles from his cathedral. Here, at Newbridge, Miss Cobbe spent her life for the most part until her father's death in 1857. Of this beautiful home she writes delightfully, and very brightly and amusingly about her ancestors, with many good stories of their personal characteristics and the manners of their times. Her father's extreme sobriety as a young man gave great offence to his grandfather, who seldom went to bed sober. But it was the grandfather who lived to a fine old age, and the grandson who perished miserably with the gout. The latter was a man of stern theology and violent temper, and his daughter's utmost consideration does not make him attractive; while her mother, who soon became reconciled to her existence, moves through the earlier chapters of the book as a gracious, even exquisite, apparition. The father fought with Wellington in India, and by that sign Miss Cobbe is under bonds, however she may deprecate "carving the living hound," as Tennyson would say, to make no objections to carving the living man by thousands on the field of battle, and has even a good word for that kind of business. The house was rich in pictures by great artists, among them a fine Hobbema and a Poussin, which were sold to build eighty good stone and slate cottages—one of many indications that Mr. Cobbe was a landlord of uncommon virtue, especially as not a farthing was added to the peasants' rents.

Miss Cobbe's account of her childhood, with its succession of nurses, governesses, holidays, and journeys to London and Bath, abounds in good matter. So does that of her school life. She brings a terrible indictment for superficiality and formality against the famous Brighton finishing schools of 1836, of which there were not less than a hundred in the town. Her "extras" amounted to £1,000 for two years' schooling at the most elegant of these establishments. The moral tone is revealed by the assurance of a teacher that she would "almost rather" find a pupil deficient in her music than guilty of lying. It was only with the conclusion of this course of training that Miss Cobbe began to love her books and take to serious studies. Then her intellectual progress was remarkable, but it did not leave her accomplishments as a housekeeper so much as an inch behind. It is probably because literary women are supposed to be deficient as housekeepers that Miss Cobbe is at some pains, or at some pleasure, to let us know that her housekeeping is the best part of her. She was sole housekeeper at Newbridge from 1837 until 1857, and the establishment was a liberal one, much given to hospitality. She tells with great satisfaction the story of a lady who objected to her studies, that she thought it was "the duty of a lady to attend to her house," and who a little later proceeded to show her a dessert service which had cost £800, and, behold, the remains of the dessert of the previous summer were rotting on the plates! Miss Cobbe, with a double meaning, confessed that they had nothing like it at Newbridge, but some fine Indian and Worcester services, adding, "Do you know, I always take up all the plates and dishes myself when they have been washed after a party, and put them on their proper shelves with my own hands, though I do know a little Greek and geometry."

Miss Cobbe's early religious experience forms the subject of her fourth chapter. Always deeply religious, she kept the evangelical way without question until she was fifteen years old. Then doubts began to rise, and for four years she had great mental suffering, while at the same time she found herself running down morally, getting irritable and selfish. At length she lost all faith, and then came a brave reaction, when she said to herself that if there was no future life, she would deserve her own self-respect, and if there was a God, she would win his approval. She found helpful books—the Life of Blanco White, and F. W. Newman's 'The Soul: Its Sorrows and its Aspirations,' and, best of all, Theodore Parker's 'Discourse of Matters pertaining to Religion,' and gradually passed from agnosticism to deism, and finally attained to that theism which is her present happy faith. It is emphatically Christian theism, theism with the most liberal recognition of the historic function of Christianity and the importance of Jesus's life and teachings, with the warmest admiration for his personality. In later years she found her religious home in Dr. Martineau's society, his thought being every whit as radical as her own. It would be difficult to find a Christian of any sect with a more perfect faith than hers in God or immortality, or a more spontaneous enthusiasm for the founder of Christianity. But to her father her "infidelity" was horrible, and he felt obliged "to keep the plague of such opinions from his house" by sending her away. At the end of a year she returned, but between father and daughter there was a great gulf fixed for the remainder of his days. Her treatment of this matter is very delicate. She has only pity for his sorrow; not a word of blame. In his simplicity he advised her not to leave the proof-sheets of her 'Intuitive Morals' lying round where any one might read them. But not long before his death he asked her to read something of her own, not knowing it to be hers; and when she did so, he expressed much pleasure, and she was not ungrateful for so much of healing balm.

There are two chapters on "Ireland in the Thirties and Forties," the first dealing with the peasantry and the second with the gentry, that are quite as interesting as any in the book. The point of view is that of the English Tory. Miss Cobbe is quite as English in her sympathies, her prejudices, and her antipathies as if her family had never taken up an Irish residence. She tells us that, when she had been a long time in London society, no one of her group suspected her Irish birth and breeding. She was proud of this, as she could not have been if Ireland had ever cast a spell upon her heart. But she is too humane to tolerate absenteeism and its attendant vices, of which she draws a fearful picture, gathering the details from an estate close by her father's which was shamefully mismanaged. Some of her incidents of suffering and devotion are deeply affecting. But in landlord or peasant her distrust of Irish character is profound. She does not intrude her politics, but they are those of the Primrose League, to which she belongs. The ill returns her father got for his endeavors to amelioriate the condition of the people perhaps bias her opinions. She admits, however, that Irish disestablishment has worked to the advantage of all concerned. Her narrative covers the miseries of the famine and the fever and Smith O'Brien's rebellion. Concerning the customs and habits of the gentry it gives many amusing particulars. Fancy Archbishop Whately swinging "in chains"! But they were those between the posts of his palace-yard, on which he loved to sit and sway backward and forward while he smoked his morning cigar. Fanny Kemble was a devoted friend of Miss Cobbe, who has volumes of her unpublished correspondence; but their first meeting at Newbridge was unfortunate. Miss Kemble was much miffed, and would eat only a potato, because she fancied that a large company had been invited to see her, and that the rooms had been decorated for the occasion, whereas it turned out that the company was made up from the household, and that the decorations were the flowers that Fanny Cobbe loved and would always have about her.

On the death of her father in 1857, Miss Cobbe left Newbridge for ever, except as she returned for an occasional visit. She has not a word to say against the injustice which gave her eldest brother the estate and herself a patrimony of £200. Her brother added a small allowance. She was a good economist and was never uncomfortably poor, and before long she began to work for a living as a journalist and writer of books and articles. She travelled eleven months in southern Europe and the East for £400. She trusted herself to the heart of

Cheops' Pyramid and to the ruins of Baalbec with a solitary Arab guide. The most striking incidents of her journey are grouped in an effective manner.

After her long journey, the next phase of Miss Cobbe's life was that of teaching in ragged schools and reforming the treatment of the sick in workhouses. The first brought her into connection with Mary Carpenter, of whose striking and amusing individuality she gives a humorously tender sketch. Miss Carpenter's unselfishness and devotion could tolerate idleness and Falstaffian ease in neither man nor beast, and she cried out upon Miss Cobbe's splendid Pomeranian, luxuriating on the rug before the fire, "Self-indulgent dog!" Miss Cobbe's labors for the sick in workhouses were that part of her philanthropy on which she can look back with the happiest assurance of beneficent accomplishment. Her relations with Prof. Jowett, during her Bristol life, were most cordial. He writes of Theodore Parker as "a hero" and as "a religious Titan." He does not sympathize with Miss Cobbe's doubts about political economy. "I am always afraid of it being partially supplanted by humanity on the small scale which relieves one sixth of the poor whom we see, and pauperizes the mind of five-sixths whom we don't see."

Miss Cobbe made six visits to Italy, which call for a chapter by themselves. Their great event was her meeting with Theodore Parker, whom she revered so much, in his last sickness. It was to her he spoke those words of proud humility: "I have had great powers committed to me; I have but half used them." No one seems to have taken the trouble to send her a picture of Parker's new monument in Florence designed by his friend Story, and she does not even know that it exists. Her saying that Parker's name is scarcely known to the younger generation is certainly not true in America. She saw much of the Brownings, and brings fresh testimony to Robert's passionate intolerance of spirit-rappings. She relates that on one occasion she heard him storming half a mile away. But for pleasant gossip of distinguished people the chapters on "London in the Sixties and Seventies"—four of them—easily take the lead. In the second she describes her journalism and the people with whom it brought her in contact, her more purely literary work being treated in the first. The kindliness of her social judgments is in striking contrast with those of Harriet Martineau, except when she is carried away by her anti-vivisection zeal, which has alienated her from many of her dearest friends. With Darwin her relations were delightful until he too disappointed her expectations in the vivisection matter. She bears witness to his tenderness for animals, and it was quite equal to her own. Among her great allies in the anti-vivisection movement were Cardinal Manning and Lord Shaftesbury. She could not help seeing them in the rosy light of her appreciation of their special service to her cause. The Pope did not think that men had any duties to animals. Of course Manning couldn't differ from the Pope, whom his "insolent faction" had declared infallible; but he got round him by saying that we have duties to God, and so indirectly to all his creatures.

Two of the fullest chapters are those entitled "The Claims of Women" and "The Claims of Brutes." The latter we have largely anticipated; the former has much admirable discussion of the inabilities of women in home and business affairs, in addition to its plea for the extension of the suffrage.

## SKEAT'S CHAUCER.—II.

*The Complete Works of Geoffrey Chaucer.* Edited from numerous manuscripts, by the Rev. Walter W. Skeat, Litt.D., LL.D., etc. Oxford: At the Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1894. Vols. I.–IV.

VOLUME II. contains the Boethius and the 'Troilus.' Chaucer's translation of Boethius's 'De Consolatione Philosophiae,' though a work of considerable interest and importance, has never before been adequately edited. Mr. Skeat has taken much pains with his text, which is based on the Cambridge MS. (already diplomatically printed by Dr. Furnivall) with collation of the Additional MS., the texts of Caxton and Thynne, and the Latin original. In correcting the spelling, which is not good even in the best MSS., he has been conservative, but the changes adopted make the treatise more readable and are philologically sound.

In editing the 'Troilus,' Mr. Skeat was essaying a task far more attractive, but at the same time much more difficult. This long poem—one of the most beautiful in the language—had been often printed, but never, in any just sense of the word, edited. The text was in a bad state, and few notes of any consequence had ever been written. Mr. Skeat had no previous work of his own to use. Hence the edition before us is in every way new, and therefore claims a rather careful scrutiny.

The text deserves high praise. It is founded on two manuscripts, the Campsall and the Corpus, in selecting which Mr. Skeat has shown his usual sagacity. Campsall was edited by Dr. Furnivall for the Chaucer Society some years ago, and has ever since been regarded as the best manuscript known. The excellence of Corpus is Mr. Skeat's recent discovery. Taken together, these two manuscripts, with a minimum of conjectural mending, almost suffice for the restoration of what Chaucer wrote. By collating the other manuscripts printed by the Chaucer Society, together with Thynne's printed copy, Mr. Skeat has corrected most of the errors of Corpus and Campsall without resorting to emendation. These processes give us a readable and pretty trustworthy text. A glance at any previous edition — Morris's, for example — will show the extent of the improvement. A host of verses hitherto ungrammatical, unmetrical, or unintelligible, are reduced to order.

Still, good as it is, we cannot regard the text as final, for it does not rest on thorough classification of the manuscripts and thorough collation of those best entitled to credit. The John's MS., for example, seems to have been only superficially examined by the editor, who does not even attempt to refer it to its proper group. Yet it is apparently a far more valuable copy than the Cambridge MS., which Mr. Skeat takes as a type of the second family. Occasionally, too, the text is somewhat capriciously treated. The most curious example we have noted is in book i, v. 498. Here Corpus, Campsall, and Harleian, the best manuscripts of the first group, and John's, the best manuscript of the second group, agree in reading: "But thanne *felte* (or *felt*) this Troilus such wo"; Cambridge, an inferior manuscript of the second group, reads *fel to* for *felte*. To our great surprise Mr. Skeat rejects *felte* in favor of *fel to*, thus, as a glance at John's would have shown him, setting up an aberration of one rather poor copy against an unassailable consensus. This illustrates the value of John's. It also illustrates the risk of not systematically consulting the Italian original, for Boccaccio's line settles all controversy: "Di quinci *sentia* Troilo tal dolore."

There are many other instances in which we are forced to dissent from Mr. Skeat's readings on one or another ground.* From his punctuation we dissent even more frequently. As our readers are aware, one of the responsibilities of an editor of Chaucer is to punctuate the text. The 'Troilus' has suffered much in this regard. Line after line has had its sense or rhythm thwarted by careless pointing. Mr. Skeat has improved this matter to a considerable extent, but we cannot always rest content with the sense which his commas and periods afford. We do not refer to theoretical minutiæ, but to cases in which his pointing disturbs the thought. In a number of verses the Italian furnishes the necessary correction; in others, close attention to the context; in a few, idiom or usage. A single illustration must suffice. In iii, 1356-7 Mr. Skeat prints:

> "Though ther be mercy written in your chere,
> God wot, the text ful hard is, sooth, to finde."

The commas after *is* and *sooth* destroy the sense. *Sooth* is not the adverb, but a predicate adjective. It is not hard to discover the text "mercy" in her face, but it *is* hard to find the text "sooth" (truth, or true), for she is, in her acts, not merciful at all.

The Introduction to the 'Troilus' is not quite worthy of Mr. Skeat. We do not mean that it is not learned, interesting, and at all points pertinent; we refer to the loose way in which it is put together. So striking is this sign of haste that one is almost beguiled into thinking that the editor sent his rough draft to press by mistake, and then let the error go as not worth rectifying. We have great respect for Mr. Skeat's rough drafts—indeed, we prefer them to some people's fair copies; but we venture to suggest that his *ultima manus* is still better, and that the dignity of the occasion called for that. This lack of revision is perhaps most deplorable in the sections which treat of the extra-Boccaccian sources of the poem (secs. 8–20). The puzzling Lollius problem is approached with a somewhat tortuous, sidelong movement, and is abandoned abruptly with a reference to the note on 'Hous of Fame,' v. 1468, in the next volume. A collation of this note with the passage before us will afford almost all the enlightenment readers can expect: but it is inconsiderate to give them the labor of cancelling and combining merely because Mr. Skeat edited the 'Hous of Fame' six years ago and now wishes to save himself trouble.

We cannot see that Mr. Lounsbury's hypothesis is referred to anywhere, though Mr. Skeat is in effect combating it in sections 6 to 9. It is difficult to justify such an omission. We do not ourselves find the hypothesis credible, but it ought not to be passed by in Gorgonizing silence. From Lollius Mr. Skeat hastens to Guido delle Colonne, whose significance as a source for 'Troilus' he is the first to consider with any fulness. His notes on this subject are of no small value, but they are incomplete, and, what is worse, they are one-sided. The question how far Chaucer drew from Guido and how far he consulted Guido's original, Benoît de Sainte-More, is not to be settled so summarily, nor is the possibility that the English poet knew Dictys and Dares at first hand unworthy of further consideration. As things stand, Mr. Skeat's results must be looked at as purely tentative. The confusion

* For example, i, 285, 289, 315, 374; ii, 159; iii, 360, 855, 1073, 1326, 1595; iv, 1038. In ii, 1114, *we* for *ye* is a palpable misprint.

of this part of his essay is increased by the supplementary fashion in which he brings in his remarks on Gorra's 'Testi Inediti di Storia Trojana' after he has, to all appearances, finished his treatment of the subject.

The attempt to explain and account for the crux *Trophee* in Lydgate is ingenious, but does not carry conviction. Lydgate says that Chaucer "made a translation of a book which called is *Trophee*," meaning the 'Troilus,' and scholars have done their best, though with indifferent success, to explain how he could have applied this name to Boccaccio's 'Filostrato,' the undoubted original of Chaucer's poem. Mr. Skeat, dissenting, argues that by Trophee Lydgate meant Guido's 'Historia Trojana.' Lydgate was certainly a feeble person, both in his intellect and in his style, and whenever he tries to give information about Chaucer his usual pedestrian imbecility develops to a degree that almost removes him from the class of articulate speaking men; but even Lydgate must have attached some meaning to the words "made a translation." He had himself turned Guido's book into English, and he was familiar with the 'Troilus.' It seems impossible, therefore, that he regarded Chaucer's work as in any sense a translation of the 'Historia.' We do not insist on Lydgate's "in Lumbard tongue," which, if taken to mean that "Trophee" was written in Italian, would upset Mr. Skeat's arguments completely; for the syntax of that phrase is insoluble.

The notes on the 'Troilus' have been awaited with much interest. Mr. Skeat has done such admirable work in this line in some of his previous publications that it was natural to hope that the 'Troilus' might be similarly favored. What is offered is disappointing. The notes are rather scanty—as compared with the richness of the commentary in vol. i., they are very scanty indeed—they are not well distributed, many places needing annotation having none, though others that require it less are provided for; and they are not seldom either quite wrong or of highly questionable correctness. Details would take too much space. Examples of insufficient and uneven annotation occur on almost every page. The most obvious instance of error is probably in the note on book ii., v. 7, in which *calendes* is explained as "the introduction to the beginning," with the remark, "Thus the 'Kalends of January' precede that month, being the period from Dec. 14 to Dec. 31." We do not wish to be misunderstood. The 'Troilus' commentary contains much that is valuable, and clears up some difficult places for the first time; but it is not so good as the world had a right to expect from Prof. Skeat. In a word, it must have been done in a hurry.

We may dismiss the third volume briefly, because what has been said of volume i. applies in great part here. It contains 'The Hous of Fame,' in an edition which is a revision of that furnished by Mr. Skeat in his 1888 volume of the Minor Poems; 'The Legend of Good Women,' in a revision of the single-volume edition by Mr. Skeat, published in 1889; the 'Astrolabe,' in a revision of Mr. Skeat's Early English Text Society edition; and a long and interesting essay on "The Sources of the Canterbury Tales," which it will be better to defer noticing till the appearance of volume v. The introductions to the 'Hous of Fame' and the 'Legend' are good, but have not been sufficiently revised since their former publication. Thus, we cannot find any reference to Ten Brink's posthumous article on the two forms of the Prologue to the 'Legend,' an article maintaining a thesis diametrically opposed to Mr. Skeat's. In general the 1889 edition of the 'Legend' was not quite so good as the 1888 edition of the Minor Poems, and, of course, the same difference appears in the present revision. It is matter for deep regret that Mr. Skeat could not spare room to print both versions of the Prologue *in extenso*. The ingeniously vexatious method of exhibiting their differences devised for the 1889 volume is here perpetuated. The reader pays high in patience and long-suffering for the few pages saved at the printing-house.

We have scant space left for a note on Chaucer's language as represented in this edition. Though normalization is always hazardous, still a certain grade of uniformity may be attained by conforming to the practice of the best manuscripts. Mr. Skeat has had this point constantly in mind, and has done much to reform the chaotic spelling of former editions. He might safely have gone further, so as to make his own edition more consistent; but everybody who knows the ground will respect his caution. In another matter, also, we are disappointed in Mr. Skeat's text. He has shown no disposition to attempt consistency in indicating monosyllabic elision. We refer in particular to the clipping of *the*, *to*, *ne*, etc., before a vowel. No one manuscript is consistent, and perhaps Chaucer himself was not entirely so. Still, the same processes of manuscript comparison to which the editor has resorted in forming his text in other details would have justified him in normalizing in this particular. There is ample manuscript authority for reading *theffect* (not *the effect*), *thassege* (for *the assege*), *thaffeccioun* (for *the affeccioun*), *thembassadours* (for *the embassadours*), *nacheveth* (for *ne acheveth*), *tassayen* (for *to assayen*), etc., when each vowel does not count for a fully timed syllable. If Mr. Skeat held that such readings misrepresented Chaucer's scansion (that is, if he were disposed to insist on a trisyllabic foot), we could understand his hesitancy. But he has no objection to such readings, for he admits them freely—in other words, he usually lets them stand when they are in the manuscript on which he bases his text. But even in this he is not entirely consistent, and we are constrained to infer that he shrank from the trouble involved in scrutinizing and adjusting these readings. This is not a matter of pedantic detail, for it has an obvious practical importance.

We need not say that under the skilful hands of so competent a scholar a multitude of scribes' final *e's* have disappeared, and another host of lost endings have been restored. In the poems of which we have a good manuscript tradition these details could be attended to without much resorting to emendation. Nevertheless we do not find that Mr. Skeat's texts are in all respects clean. They still contain a large number of final *e's* of no historical or metrical value, and need a thorough pruning in this regard. The chief error is the result of too liberal a theory with respect to the dative *e*. We do not believe that such forms as "the god of *slepe*," "of olde *werke*," "of the *londe*," "with your right *honde*," "fro the *dethe*," "with tygres *blode*" (to select a few instances from 'The Hous of Fame') deserve a place in a critical text. Certainly the undoubted existence of *to dethë*, *on fyrë*, *on lyvë*, and the like cannot stand warrant for them. Other vicious *e's* (not due to any dative theory) are not uncommon. The reason for some of them may be imagined, but most of them are due to oversight. As examples, we may mention "the *colde* of night," *holde* (as imperative singular), *byde* (as imperative singular), "what thing and *whiche* is he," "who might slepe *beste*." The strangest case of all is perhaps 'Troilus,' i, 312: "He neither cher3 made, ne *worde* tolde." Here Mr. Skeat must mean to read *wordë*, for *madë* and an ictus on *ne* would be intolerable. If he regards *wordë* as instrumental, a note to defend such a phenomenon in Chaucer was essential. Surely the correct reading is either *word ne tolde* (a trifling emendation), or *word he tolde*. The latter would explain *wordë*, *i. e.*, *word he*.

We cannot close without a word of thanks and gratulation. In many details we find it impossible to agree with Prof. Skeat, and, in general, we cannot help seeing that greater care would have resulted in a more accurate and more symmetrical work; but this does not blind us to the heavy obligation under which Prof. Skeat is laying all who care for our language or our literature. After everything that faultfinders can gather has been subtracted from the total merit of the performance, the edition will remain a monument of learning and sagacity which few similar works in English can rival.

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*Historical Characters of the Reign of Queen Anne.* By Mrs. M. O. W. Oliphant. The Century Co. 1894.

It is always pleasant and profitable to study the treatment by an intelligent woman of matters that have been handled chiefly by men; and especially is this the case when the characters and actions of women are the subjects of discussion. Even where there is no lack of sympathy and good will, men can hardly avoid judging women by masculine standards, and pronouncing an action wrong or weak because it would have been wrong or weak in a man. So, as a study of a woman by a woman, we have read with especial pleasure the vivid and sympathetic sketch of Queen Anne which Mrs. Oliphant here gives us.

Certainly that royal lady has had rather hard measure dealt to her by writers of this century, among whom, as the greatest sinner against knowledge, Macaulay is most to blame. The extreme partisanship which so seriously vitiates his history saw in Anne a Tory, a High-Churchwoman, and a disliker (not without cause) of his glorified William; and the least of these crimes deserved no mercy, and even justified a little wresting of the truth "in the cause of the right," as Mr. Wegg puts it. The smaller fry of literature have been content to follow Macaulay. Anne, we are told, was stupid, narrow-minded, bigoted, and obstinate; she was always led or dominated by some female favorite; her conception of public duties rarely rose above her own personal likes and dislikes. But let it be said to her credit that, though brought up in a court that was saturated with vice, and with the worst possible examples in her father and her uncle, to go no lower, even detraction admits that her life was spotless. She was a devoted wife and mother, and she had far more of the agonies and far less of the joys of maternity than is usually the lot of her sex. She was generous and beneficent, capable of great sacrifices, a sincere patriot according to her imperfect lights, and greatly loved by her people. And she was capable of the passion of friendship—toward one woman at least—to a degree of exaltation and self-effacement that is rarely met.

We confess to reading with great interest Mrs. Oliphant's delineation of the relations between Anne and Duchess Sarah, which it seems as if no writer can mention without saying

something unpleasant. Our author remarks, not without justice:

"Women in history, strangely enough, seem always to import into the chronicle a certain heat of personal feeling unusual and undesirable in that region of calm. Whether it is that the historian is impatient at finding himself arrested by the troublesome personalities of a woman, and that a certain resentment of her intrusion colors his appreciation of her, or that her appearance naturally possesses an individuality which breaks the line, it is difficult to tell; but the calmest chronicler becomes a partisan when he treats of Mary and Elizabeth, and no man can name Sarah of Marlborough without a heat of indignation or scorn almost ridiculous as being so long after date."

But why should we blame Anne for clinging to a woman who was both virtuous and fascinating, who had been her companion and playmate from infancy, and who possessed the fire, quickness, and energy which she herself lacked? We see nothing to sneer at in the "Morley" and "Freeman" letters; on the contrary, those of Anne are in a high degree pathetic as the outpourings of a young and affectionate heart, limited and checked in so many ways, turning, like a flower in a cave, to the single chink that lets in the sunshine.

Mrs. Oliphant has, and we are glad to see it, a kindly word for the much-abused George of Denmark. Charles II. said of him that he had tried him drunk and he had tried him sober, and drunk or sober there was nothing in him; but perhaps the qualities which Charles wished to find were such as George was much better without. Putting aside his too great love of wine, George seems to have lived a blameless life, and to have been a faithful and affectionate husband; and his household, if not very brilliant, was innocent and happy. In point of conjugal affection and fidelity, the domestic relations of both Princess and Duchess set a shining example.

The famous quarrel which tore asunder for ever the friendship sealed with so many passionate vows, is graphically sketched, and the Duchess's own account of the final scene, here given at length, is as vivid as anything by Defoe. There is something wonderfully touching in Sarah's passionate pleading and weeping, while Anne, who had no such power of expression, can answer her only with monotonous repetition of a single formula. Each believed that she was in the right; but it is true that "the Duchess Sarah represented a nobler idea and grander policy than that into which her mistress was betrayed."

It strikes us that Mrs. Oliphant, with all her charity, is a little unjust to Mrs. Masham, who was really a gentle, affectionate, and amiable woman. It is not quite fair to insinuate faults by implication, or to convey a false impression under a literal truth; and to call her "the soft, gliding, smooth-tongued Abigail" is somewhat too much in Macaulay's style.

Our space does not permit an examination of the sections devoted respectively to Swift, Defoe, and Addison. Our author deals with Swift very gently, notwithstanding Vanessa and Stella. With regard to his treatment of the former unhappy lady, we certainly cannot coincide with the lenient view: "Swift never seems to have fostered that passion [Vanessa's], nor to have done anything but discourage and subdue a love so embarrassing and troublesome." Swift cannot be acquitted of very dark treachery in allowing a passion to grow day by day under his eyes which he knew could never be returned and must lead to the wreck of an innocent life. It was not "discouragement" that was needed, but either a candid explanation or a cessation of the perilous intimacy; and Vanessa's death will for ever lie at his door. With regard to Stella the case is different, and Mrs. Oliphant is inclined to dissent from the popular opinion which makes Stella a martyr. She thinks that, in the possession of Swift's entire affection, his occasional company, and his wonderful letters, Stella was as happy as if she had married him, and perhaps much happier, for Swift, most likely, would have been "gey ill to live wi'." She does not believe in the secret marriage either; and perhaps she is right in both cases.

Mrs. Oliphant appears to adopt without question the prevalent view of the gigantic intellectual powers of Swift. To the present writer it seems that an appeal would still lie from the popular verdict. We have no space here to discuss the question, but this much may be suggested: Discarding Swift's verses, on which no admirer builds his fame, and his uncleanness, which is perhaps chargeable to mental disease, how much of his fame with his contemporaries was due to his self-assertion, and his fame with posterity to his masterly style? As a literary critic, how does he compare with Addison; as a writer of fiction, with Defoe; as a political writer, with Burke? Is his satire noble and sincere or coarse and virulent? And does the *sæva indignatio* of his epitaph designate the righteous wrath of a good man with a world which he cannot reform, or personal spleen at a world which had never duly appreciated Jonathan Swift? Of all his writings how much really survives? The first part of his Gulliver, and no more.

The external appearance of this very attractive volume, with all the furtherances of the printer's, engraver's, and binder's arts, is worthy of the Century Company. We have noted very few typographical errors, but of these two are especially infelicitous. "Atticus," in Pope's famous lines, does not "assent with evil leer" (p. 169). Again, "If one severe law were made . . . that whoever was found at conventicle should be banished, the nation and the preacher hanged," etc., (p. 143). Defoe was far too practical a man to propose to hang the nation.

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*Fadette.—François the Waif.—The Devil's Pool.* By George Sand. Translated from the French by Jane Minot Sedgwick. 3 vols. New York: George H. Richmond & Co. 1893–4.

To the student of translations it is a rare pleasure to find one that reads as agreeably as if it were an original work, and yet is a faithful rendering of the foreign author. Such volumes should be welcomed with applause. But the praises constantly bestowed on translations remarkable only for their audacities of ignorance make it difficult to find effective terms for describing Miss Sedgwick's intelligent, skilful, modest, and delicate success. It may be indicated by saying that the public would be greatly indebted to the publisher who should keep this "eminent hand" steadily at work on the masterpieces—the simple masterpieces—of French (and Italian) literature.

At the same time, critics should be found to say, "You can't be too careful. You do it so well, try to do it even better!" Is it quite wise (they should ask) to translate "François le Champi" François the Waif? If the name is kept half French, why not wholly so? If Englished at all, why not Francis the Foundling? On every page they might ask, Why not this, why not that? Why say "this *quaint* old French verse," when George Sand says merely "ce quatrain en vieux français"? They should remark that "néfaste" is not adequately, but only roughly, rendered by "terrible." They should declare that it is careless to write, "I might believe . . . that belief in ideas brings peace of mind," when it is so easy to say "faith in ideas." They should point out a confusion of "bien" the noun with "bien" the adverb, where "bien fugitif, soulagement passager" is translated "very fleeting, a passing relief"; and confusion of "un grand esprit" with "beaucoup d' esprit" which makes Father Barbeau say of Fadette, "The girl is *very clever*." A distinct misrendering at the close of the preface to "Fadette" should be corrected. "Those that suffer from the same ill as he, in knowing (*à savoir*) the horror of hate and of revenge," is a mistake for "the same ill as he, *that is*, the horror," etc. (our old English, "to wit").

Such errors as these, that are scarcely perceptible except on careful comparison with the original, cannot be said to disfigure the translation, but they make it imperfect; and Miss Sedgwick gives proof of powers that should be stimulated by criticisms that are compliments to execute only the most accurate and the most graceful work.

It is needless to say (these volumes coming from the De Vinne press) that their mechanical part is of unimpeachable excellence; but—even here there is a *but*—why should a translation be given quite so costly a form? There is an incongruity between this kind of literature (of which one of the charms is its modesty) and thick paper, fine print, illustrations, and numbered copies. A translation from modern French is primarily not intended for "persons of culture"; its proper mission, in Miss Sedgwick's own words, is "to yield refreshment to those thirsty souls who cannot seek the fountain-head"; and these stories that "tell of homely affections and humble cares" should be in volumes to be read by a common kerosene lamp at the end of a day of dull labor.

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*The Grouse.* [Fur and Feather Series.] Longmans. 1894. Illustrated.

As in the first volume of this series—'The Partridge'—the Rev. H. A. Macpherson, Mr. A. J. Stuart-Wortley, and Mr. George Saintsbury contribute each a paper. The history of the grouse and of its shooting offers an element of interest superior to that of the partridge. The habitat of the first, among the wild and beautiful scenery of Scotland and of the Yorkshire moors, and its pursuit in the bracing atmosphere of the higher altitudes, develops in the sportsman a keenness and alertness not aroused in the shooting found on the more monotonous levels. Mr. Macpherson and Mr. Stuart-Wortley have imparted exceptional interest to their respective contributions, all the more surprising inasmuch as the subjects of which they treat have already been exhaustively considered by so many capable writers. The contribution on "The Cookery of the Grouse," by Mr. Saintsbury, suggests a love of good living rather than a technical knowledge of the culinary art. One may safely say that his vague suggestions of the method of cooking grouse on the British plan could arouse among participants in the feast only a spirit of bitter enmity and shatter the closest friendships. This, perhaps, explains the gastronomic gloom which pervades treatises on the English school of cookery. The illustrations by Mr. A. Thorburn are of a very high order of excellence.

*Hendrick Pannebecker*, Surveyor of Lands for the Penns, 1674 1754; Flomborn, Germantown, and Skippack. By Hon. Samuel W. Pannebacker, LL.D. Privately printed. Philadelphia. 1894. 8vo, pp. 164.

THIS is an attempt to recover something of the history of one of the early colonists of Pennsylvania, but, after all, the results are very scanty. It seems probable that Hendrick was born at Flomborn in Hesse, as there is still a family named Pfannebecker there, possibly of Dutch origin, and as Crefeld and Kriegsheim sent forth many German Quakers to Pennsylvania. It is certain that Frederick and Lothair Pannebecker, sons of Johann, came from Flomborn, the older son in 1731, and settled near Hendrick. Family traditions, covering very few generations, state that these were all relatives.

Hendrick was a noted surveyor, and he became a large landowner; he died in 1754, aged eighty-one. His posterity has been numerous and of good standing. Among the progeny of Hendrick and Friedrich our author mentions (Pannebeckers) Matthias, a Mennonite bishop; Isaac S., judge of the United States District Court; and Galusha, brevet major-general in the late war. Descendants in the female lines have also been distinguished, and the roll of soldiers in the Federal ranks is long and honorable.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Addison, D. D. Lucy Larcom: Life, Letters, and Diary. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
American Digest (Annual, 1894). St. Paul: West Publishing Co.
Ames, Fisher. A Practical Guide to Whist. 6th ed., revised. Scribners. 75 cents.
Apthorp, W. F. Musicians and Music-Lovers, and Other Essays. Scribners. $1.50.
Bardeen, C. W. Handbook of School Trustees of N. Y. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 50 cents.
Bell, Dr. V. C. Popular Essays on the Care of the Teeth and Mouth. New York, 117 2d Ave.: The Author.
Bradley, Mrs. M. E. Martha's Mistakes. Hunt & Eaton. $1.25.
Brine, Mary D. Margaret Arnold's Christmas, and Other Stories. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Brooks, Rev. Phillips. Essays and Addresses, Religious, Literary and Social. E. P Dutton & Co. $2.
Burdette, R. J., and others. Before He is Twenty; The Boy Question. Fleming H. Revell Co. 75 cents.
Campbell, W. Football Facts and Figures. Harpers.
Chailley-Bert, J. The Colonization of Indo-China. London: Archibald Constable & Co.
Collar, W. C., and Daniell, M. G. First Latin Book. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.
Conkling, A. R. Handbook for Voters in the City of New York. Appletons. 25 cents.
Craik, H. Life of Jonathan Swift. 2 vols. 2d ed. Macmillan. $3.
Crockett, S. R. The Lilac Sunbonnet. Appletons.
Cunningham, Sir H. S. Sibylla. Macmillan. $1.25.
Dale, Rev. R. W. Christian Doctrine: A Series of Discourses. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.75.
Decennial Reports on the Trade, Navigation, Industries, etc., of the Ports Open to Foreign Commerce in China and Corea. 1882—1891. Shanghai: Kelly & Walsh; New York: Putnams.
Dennis, J. The Age of Pope. London: Geo. Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
Doyle, A. C. Round the Red Lamp: Being Facts and Fancies of Medical Life. Appletons. $1.50.
Edmonds, Mrs. Amygdala: A Tale of the Greek Revolution. London: Geo. Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Ferrier, Susan. Marriage. 2 vols. Inheritance. 2 vols. Destiny. 2 vols. London; J. M. Dent & Co.: New York: Macmillan. $6.
Ford, P. L. The Honorable Peter Sterling, and What People Thought of Him. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Foster, Prof. M., and Shore, Dr. L. E. Physiology for Beginners. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Harris, F. Elder Conklin, and Other Stories. Macmillan. $1.25.
Hauptmann, G. Hannele: A Dream Poem. London: W. Heinemann.
Hayden, Rev. W. B. Selected Essays and Discourses, with Memorials of his Life and Services. Boston: Massachusetts New-Church Union. $1.25.
Herdler, A. A Scientific French Reader. Boston: Ginn & Co. 85 cents.
Heyse, Paul. The Children of the World. New edition, revised. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Holm, A. History of Greece. Vol. I. To end of 6th century B. C. Macmillan. $2 50.
Hope, A. The God in the Car. Appletons. 50 cents.
Hope, A. The Indiscretion of the Duchess. Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.
Horton, Smith R. Theory of Conditional Sentences in Greek and Latin. Macmillan. $6.50.
Hurlbut, J. L., and Doherty, R. R. Illustrative Notes for Sunday-School Lessons, 1895. Hunt & Eaton. $1.25.
Jacobs, J. Studies in Biblical Archæology. London: David Nutt.
Jenness, Theodora R. Piokee and her People. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co
Károly, K. Raphael's Madonnas and Other Great Pictures, reproduced from the Original Paintings. London: Geo Bell & Sons: New York: Macmillan. $8.
Kennedy, J. Must Greek Go? Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 50 cents.
Lee, Hamilton E. Sonnets of the Wingless Hours. Chicago: Stone & Kimball. $1.
Leffingwell, A. Rambles through Japan without a Guide. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.50.
Maclay, E. S. History of the U. S. Navy, 1775—1894. Vol. 2. Appletons.
Maeterlinck, M. Pélléas and Mélisande: A Drama. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Marks, Mrs. Alfred. David Pennell: A Study of Conscience. London: Hutchinson & Co.
Nicholson, Prof. J. S. Historical Progress and Ideal Socialism. London: Black; New York: Macmillan. 90 cents.
O'Connor, Rev. J. V. Hints on Preaching. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. 50 cents.
Ordish, T. F. Early London Theatres. London: Elliot Stock; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Page, T. N. The Burial of the Guns. Scribners. $1.25.
Pennell, J. Pen Drawing and Pen Draughtsmen. 2d ed. Macmillan. $15.
Phelps, Elizabeth S. Gypsy Brenton. New ed. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Radford, G. H. Shylock and Others. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Radford, L. B. Thomas of London before his Consecration. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Raleigh, Prof. W. The English Novel. Scribners. $1.25.
Randolph, C. F. The Law of Eminent Domain. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Rice, Prof. W. N. Twenty Years of Scientific Progress, and Other Essays. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75 cents.
Richman, I. B. John Brown among the Quakers. Des Moines, Iowa: L. B. Abdill. $1.
Robinson's New Intellectual Arithmetic. American Book Co. 35 cents.
Sabin, S. B., and Lowry, C. D. Elementary Lessons in Algebra. American Book Co. 50 cents.
Sainte-Pierre, B. de. Paul and Virginia. Illustrated by Maurice Leloir. Appletons.
Scott, E. Dancing. London: Geo. Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Seawell, M. E. Decatur and omers. Appletons.
Shakspere, W. Taming of the Shrew. As You Like It. 2 vols. Temple ed. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 45 cents each.
Stanton, F. L. Songs of the Soil. Appletons.
Steel, G. English Grammar and Analysis. Longmans, Green, & Co. $1.20.
Townsend, Virginia F. "Sirs, Only Seventeen!" Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Trollope, Mrs. Domestic Manners of the Americans. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. $3.50.
Walker, Rev. J. B. R. Comprehensive Concordance to the Holy Scriptures. Boston: Congregational Sunday School Publishing Society.
White, G. R. Elementary Chemistry. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 8, 1894.

## The Week.

THAT the Republicans would carry the Northern elections this year was generally expected, but the extent of the victory was not anticipated. Now that the results are before us, we can easily discern the causes of the tidal wave that has overwhelmed the Democratic party in so many different places. The financial panic of last year, although a prime factor in the case, is not sufficient alone to account for it. Business depression, whatever may be its cause, always tells against the party in power. But in the present case a deeper gloom was added by the scandals connected with tariff legislation in Congress which filled the friends of the Wilson bill with rage and indignation to nearly or quite as great an extent as its enemies. The spectacle presented to the country for weeks together of a Democratic "combine" in the Senate, fighting against their own party in the interest of the Sugar Trust and other hateful monopolies, and actually forcing their measure upon both Senate and House, was sufficient to take the heart out of the decent members of the party. To crown all, the bill that was finally passed was so bad that the President could not sign it. We have no fear of a new McKinley tariff in consequence of this election. No reactionary tariff bill can become a law, in any case, within three years, and during that time the present law will have created business conditions powerfully opposed to McKinleyism. Moreover, the Republican leaders are wiser than they were when the McKinley bill was passed. They know that it is just as easy to turn the country over against themselves as it was in 1890—just as easy as it was to turn it over this year.

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We presume there has never been in the history of this city and State a "plainer popular mandate" than that delivered to the incoming Legislature by the vote of Tuesday. It said as clearly as if it had been written out in black and white, that these Tammany wretches must be got rid of as promptly as may be, and not in detail, but wholesale, at one fell swoop, and by instrumentalities which shall effectually prevent their return to power. It said, in short, that the Legislature of the State should as soon as possible put an end to the enormous scandal and disgrace of the government of a great city by criminals and semi-criminals and drunkards. It did not say, as the *Tribune* maintained last year, that the cure for our troubles was a "bi-partisan Police Board." It said there must be a clean sweep and a new system. We were therefore amazed to read in yesterday's *Tribune* a proposal that Mayor Strong should next January go to work to try the Tammany malefactors on "charges brought by responsible citizens." There are about forty of them to try, and each of them would demand a separate trial. They would all "appear by counsel," and the counsel would be the windiest and most blatant of the jurists who live by Tammany corruption. The difficulties in the way of "legal evidence" would be great, and the trials would probably last a year and a half, or half Mayor Strong's term. In fact, we doubt if, of all the ways of lightening the burden of their affliction to-day, there is one that the Tammany rascals would prefer to trials before the mayor on "charges."

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We must have no trials before the mayor. The public knows too well what this amounts to. All the trials that come off must come off in the criminal courts. The General Sessions and the Oyer and Terminer are the places for these Tar many criminals. It is only there that they can get their due. What the vote of Tuesday calls for is *legislation*, which ought to be supplied in the first week in January. A short act, empowering Mayor Strong to fill all city appointive offices for his own term, is what is wanted. This is what "the plain popular mandate" calls for. The voters who have overthrown Tammany will not be satisfied with anything else. We doubt if there is a man of them who would not laugh at you if you asked him if what he voted for on Tuesday was a series of trials on charges before the mayor. Mayor Strong has very different work, and much better work, to do than trying a lot of ruffians and thieves for robbing the city and the poor. He has to fill the offices with honest men. He has to ferret out the thousand abuses which doubtless reign in every department of the city government, and devise means for preventing their return. He has to see that the police force is reorganized from top to bottom.

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We hope our Republican friends who are to meet in Albany in January will not lose their heads. Any one who flatters himself that there is a Republican majority of 50,000 in this city or 150,000 in the State must, of course, be a fool. Men of all parties have united in giving a Republican Legislature and Governor a splendid opportunity for honest service to the city and the State. They can, if they please, put good government in this city on a sure and lasting foundation. It is not for the Democratic party alone that Tuesday's election furnishes a lesson. What it preaches, trumpet-tongued, is that fraud, chicane, trickery, double-dealing, and contempt for the moral sense of the community, are the way of perdition for men and parties. Every politician who, like Hill, relies solely or mainly on base arts, comes surely to grief before very long. People who opposed Tammany two short years ago were considered by the shrewd, fools for their pains. But there are two quotations which are to-day in everybody's mouth. They are so trite that we need not repeat them. One refers to "the mills of God"; the other to the difficulty of "deceiving all the people all the time."

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An uncommonly large proportion of the States voted upon constitutional questions of the first importance on Tuesday. A new constitution was submitted to the voters of New York. The people of New Hampshire, Delaware, and South Carolina decided whether to call conventions to frame new constitutions. The question of extending the suffrage to women in all elections on equal terms with men (they now exercise it in school and municipal elections) was passed upon by the men of Kansas. Michigan and California, on the other hand, voted upon propositions for the restriction of suffrage. The former State has allowed aliens to vote after declaring their intention to become citizens, and has now passed upon an amendment requiring full citizenship as a qualification, which means a residence of at least five years. In California a proposition was pending to establish an educational qualification for the suffrage, so that hereafter no man should be granted the privilege who could not read and write. This, by the way, was only one of nine amendments separately submitted in California; and as if the number were not sufficiently confusing, one of them, directed against the property rights of the Chinese, was so obscurely drawn that three or four interpretations were given, and even the anti-Chinese newspapers called for its rejection on the ground that nobody could be sure what it meant or what its effect might be. A number of other States voted upon constitutional questions of more or less importance, the most interesting to the country at large being a proposition absolutely to prohibit lotteries in North Dakota, where, in the absence of such a provision, the Louisiana lottery has been trying to establish itself since its expulsion from its old home.

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The friends of civil-service reform have been disappointed that President Cleveland has not done more for that cause thus far during his second term, but there

is compensation for many failures and omissions in the announcement just made of a wholesale extension of the competitive system. The law allows the executive a very wide discretion in this matter, and Mr. Cleveland uses this power to bring within its operation all of the minor offices in the departments now omitted, all of the employees in custom-houses where they number as many as twenty, 1,500 of the 2,300 places now excepted in the postal service, and a number of places in other bureaus; while a flagrant abuse is abolished by revoking the permission to transfer clerks from excepted places to places in the classified service after they have held the former positions a year—under which the spoilsmen have managed to smuggle in a good many worthless political "workers." This is undoubtedly the most important step which has been taken by any President since the civil-service act was passed in 1883, and it will be one of the landmarks of the present Administration.

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President Harrison poured forth a stream of "thought," or, as the *Tribune* calls it, "a call to duty" on Thursday night, which made every one deplore his having to leave the State the next day. He showed that "protection was the American system," and declared that just now "the business world was paralyzed." He also said that "Cleveland had a wild team to drive." He showed clearly that the Wilson bill had not been properly framed, and that if something does not happen to prevent it, it will lower wages. He said he should be ashamed to wear his present coat if he did not feel sure that the man who made it got good wages. He gave a terrible account of the way foreigners are spreading their trade with great guns. He praised the McKinley bill and showed how it made the British squeal. Coming down to the Hawaiian affair, he did not leave Cleveland a leg to stand on, and made a third term for him impossible. He handled "pauperism" without gloves, and showed that it was an "enemy more fatal to our peace and prosperity than any armed legions that could be marshalled against us." It was a tremendous speech, but we should like to hear Major McKinley's estimate of it. Can the United States stand having two such thinkers abroad at the same moment? Was it not a wise precaution to order the major out of the State before the general entered?

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The Treasury statement for October shows a slight picking up in customs revenue, though a great falling-off in receipts from internal revenue. The latter was to have been expected, of course, on account of the great withdrawals of whiskey from bond in anticipation of the new tariff. Taking the four months of the fiscal year as a whole, the internal revenue shows a considerable advance over 1893, $65,000,000 now as against $49,000,000 then. Customs for the period, however, have not quite equalled those for the same months last year—being about $3,000,000 less. Treasury expenditures have slightly increased, and at present exceed receipts by $15,000,000. At the same time in 1893 the deficit was $25,000,000. Out of a total revenue of $19,000,000 for the month of October, $11,000,000 was paid out in pensions. The public service of the country has more and more to get along as best it can on what the pensioners leave. Unfavorable as the Treasury situation is at present, it is much eased compared with what it was a year ago. There is a net cash balance of $45,000,000, and the gold holdings amount to $61,000,000.

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Nobody can question the wisdom of Commissioner Sheehan in refusing to let Mr. Goff see his public and private bank-books. The fate of Commissioner McClave is conclusive on this point. He produced only a portion of his accounts, but Mr. Goff was able to find in them enough to throw McClave into a serious attack of nervous prostration which compelled his resignation from office. One entry alone, of a deposit of $3,333.33, caused McClave great uneasiness, it being a third of $10,000, which was the sum that three commissioners were said to have divided as the price of a captaincy. He could never give any explanation of this and other very similar items, and his inability to do so undermined his nervous system. When Sheehan refuses to produce his books, after informing Mr. Goff that "you can't learn me anything," it is very clear that he has been "learned" wisdom by McClave's experience. Without his books in evidence against him, he can answer all unpleasant charges by calling the authors of them "liars" and "lunatics," as he called the foreman of a grand jury last week, and all the Tammany boys will applaud and say Sheehan is the "right stuff."

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There was a good deal of decidedly sensational evidence produced by Mr. Goff on Thursday. Two unwilling witnesses, Tekulsky the liquor-dealer who "knocked out" Paddy Divver, and Mr. Smith, the editor of the *Wine and Spirit Gazette*, which is the official organ of the liquor interests, testified that they had suggested to the authorities in charge of the grand-jury lists the names of citizens who were friendly to liquor-sellers as desirable persons to put on the grand jury. The plan was to have on the jury real-estate men who had buildings which were partly occupied for liquor purposes. It was successful, and the men selected by Smith and recommended by Tekulsky were put on the lists and summoned for grand-jury duty. Mr. Moss, associate counsel with Mr. Goff, asserted that in one instance protests were sent to the judges in charge of the lists against the putting on of certain names, and were referred to a criminal judge who was chairman of the sub-committee on the subject, but that not only were the men protested against summoned on the grand jury, but the grand jury of which they formed a part came near indicting the men who made the protests. There is, Mr. Goff states, more evidence to come bearing on this point, which is one of the highest importance.

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Mr. Goff's demonstration of Tammany's depravity, made at the Saturday afternoon session of the Lexow committee, was, as Mr. Goff said, a "climax of horror." We have all been forced to take a low view of police and Tammany morals, but few of us had believed such depths of vileness as this possible. It had been shown that the police shared the profits of swindlers, gamblers, prostitutes, and liquor-dealers, but it was not suspected that they went lower than this and shared the profits of a crime of such unspeakable loathsomeness that its mere name is an offence in decent society. Yet Mr. Goff showed us a police justice sitting on the bench, and not merely shielding a regular practitioner of abortion from punishment, but conniving with him in his guilt. Mr. Goff has made no demonstration more thoroughly sustained by proof than this is. There seems to be no doubt of the guilt of either Police-Justice Koch, or of the lawyers who took the money of the criminal, or of the police officials who shared in the money thus obtained. The tell-tale checks are in evidence against the lawyers, and furnish corroborative evidence also against all other officials involved.

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Mr. Choate made a good point in his speech the other night touching the amount stolen by the present Tammany men as compared with the amount stolen in Tweed's day. The exact amount of Tweed's thefts was traced out by Mr. Tilden with almost unerring accuracy, and also the exact manner in which it was divided among the various sub-thieves. But the amount of the present stealings is not only unknown, but unascertainable, although we know enough to know that it is enormous. Tweed superintended the stealing himself, and the money passed through his hands; but in our day hundreds are engaged in it. Calm "conservative" observers estimate the *annual* theft revenue of Tammany men to-day as at least $15,000,000, while Tweed stole only about $6,000,000 in all. We ourselves believe that $15,000,000 is much too low. The Lexow committee has merely scratched the surface of the system. For one victim of the police who has come forward and informed, probably fifty have lain low and kept still, waiting to see how the cat would jump at the election. There is one little fact in the case which speaks volumes

as to the whole system. Over $5,000,000 are paid over to the Police Department every year, and spent by commissioners like Sheehan without audit. The comptroller has to pay the money on their vouchers, without further inquiry. If anybody knows of any financial arrangement in the civilized world which can compare to this, we ask him respectfully to send us an account of it. We believe it is a survival from the early day when the commission-governed police was set up by the Republicans at Albany in defiance of the city authorities. But think of giving $5,000,000 without audit to Jimmy Martin, Sheehan, Steve French, McClave, and the like!

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The great Howard case has been disgraceful to everybody concerned from the beginning, and has ended ludicrously. There never was, from the beginning, any doubt that Howard was a domestic servant, and therefore not within the contract-labor act. His captors went to his employer's house and found him there acting as a domestic servant. But they pretended there was doubt about it, and began a bouffe inquiry into the matter. The man was taken before Judge Lacombe on a habeas corpus. Judge Lacombe decided that he was a domestic servant, but the bouffe inquiry went on before a "Board of Special Inquiry." It lasted about four weeks, under the eyes of an amused and disgusted public, the man being all the time in illegal confinement. The "Board" has at last made a report and has "reached the conclusion," writes the secretary of the treasury of the United States of America, "that the said Howard comes within the first proviso of section 5 of the act approved February 29, 1885, and therefore ought not to be deported." We sincerely hope Mr. Morton will not let the matter rest here. If ever there was false imprisonment, it is this imprisonment of Howard. And Mr. Morton ought to enable Howard to take the opinion of an American jury on this bit of petty, silly malice and oppression. It is pleasant to think that as a piece of childish electioneering it has utterly failed of its object. We are sure it made many votes for Mr. Morton, and has put Mr. Carlisle in a category from which escape will be long and tedious.

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The right of the federal Government, through the United States courts, to enjoin interference with interstate commerce has once more been affirmed by the decision at St. Louis a fortnight ago in the case before the Circuit Court on demurrer to the Government's petition for an injunction against Debs and the American Railway Union. Judge Phillips follows the lines of Justice Harlan's decision in the Northern Pacific matter wherein the employees of that company appealed from Judge Jenkins's sweeping injunction. The principal point of the later opinion is to reinforce that part of the other which permits United States courts to enjoin, in advance of any actual outbreak, all combinations or conspiracies on the part of railway employees which have for their object the stoppage of trains, no matter what the grievance. The court also permits injunctions, enforceable by all the power of the federal Government, against interference with interstate commerce or the running of trains on the part of strikers or ruffians after a strike has been declared for legitimate reasons. Evidently we have within a short time advanced rapidly towards a solution of the legal status of strikes and strikers. Our late legislation against Trusts and combinations, according to these decisions, applies to employees as well as to corporations—which seems to agree with natural justice.

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A condensed summary of the testimony of Mr. Pullman and other officers of the Pullman Car Company before the Carroll D. Wright Commission has been published in a pamphlet. Several untruths that were promulgated at the time by clergymen and others residing in the town of Pullman, who were accepted as disinterested witnesses, are now exposed. For example, the Rev. Mr. Carwardine said in his book that the company paid four cents per thousand gallons for water and retailed it at ten cents per thousand gallons. The fact is that the company pays seven cents and retails it at four cents, making a net loss of about $590 per month. When Mr. Carwardine was asked what was his authority, he said that his statement "was true as far as he could find out." Another witness named Heathcote had affirmed that the company was making a yearly profit of $32,000 on the water supply. The same witness (Heathcote) had declared that it was made a condition of getting employment in the Pullman works that the employees should live in the company's houses. This was proved to be untrue by the records, which showed that of 3,284 shop employees on April 30, 1894, 563 owned the houses they lived in, and 560 others lived outside the town in houses not owned by the company, and that no discrimination was made between those inside and those outside the town.

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The Germans are not noted for their humor, but the reply of their Foreign Office to American protests against the prohibition of imports of American cattle is rather neat. It is that the "empire as such" has done nothing to offend the most delicate American sensibility, but that the separate States, purely as sanitary measures, over which they have entire control, have seen fit to keep out American cattle. The humor of this, which may, after all, be unconscious, lies in its being addressed to a country which has advanced the same excuse for much graver offences. When Rudini was thundering away about the slaughtered Italians in New Orleans, and the government of China was calling for reparation for the massacred Chinese in Oregon, our answer was that the States were alone responsible and that the federal Government could do nothing. If men can be killed on that theory, certainly Texas steers can be excluded. It is not often that a diplomatic chalice is so speedily commended to the lips of those who first offered it.

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The political situation in Germany does not grow more reassuring, and the curious feature of it is the suddenness of the change which has driven Caprivi out of power. Everything was apparently pretty quiet till President Carnot's assassination—hardly a cloud in the sky. But the agitation about international action against the Anarchists all of a sudden developed into an agitation for domestic action against the Socialists, followed or accompanied by a fierce outbreak of hostility against Caprivi on the part of the reactionaries and the agrarian aristocracy. The Bismarckians are now in the ascendant, having either won over or bewildered the Emperor. How far things have gone may be inferred from the fact that Herr Roessler, the former chief of the press bureau in the Chancellor's office at Berlin, has issued a pamphlet which declares that "Germany cannot be governed by political parties," that "the policy of '*do ut des*'" has reached its limits, that there must be a change if the nation is to be saved from destruction; and he calls on "men of all social strata and of influential position" to petition the Emperor to allow the Federal Council to seize the legislative power for a period of three years. In that interval this body could, he thinks, "create legislation which would give the national life a sure direction and a healthy and harmonious development." In other words, he advises a *coup d'état*.

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What Herr Roessler means by "the policy of *do ut des*" is the practice, now common in all parliamentary countries, of keeping in power by the purchase of votes with measures. Caprivi did it, Lord Rosebery is doing it, and Dupuy and Crispi are doing it too. One party is won by proposing to change the standard of value, he says, another by taking some backward step in regard to popular education, and so on. Every parliamentary minister is now obliged to keep in power by some such means. The German Chancellor, who owes no allegiance to any one but the Emperor, was supposed to be exempt from this necessity, but he is just as much bound by it as the others. He need not resign, it is true, when he is defeated, but if he has not a majority at his back, he cannot carry any legislation. We are somewhat better off under our system, but not much. In truth, we may be said to have taught the world the art of log-rolling.

*POLITICAL REACTIONS AND SPOILS.*

It is now something over half a century since the first change of parties occurred after the introduction of the spoils system in American politics. Beginning with 1840, the country has been carried successively by the Whigs in that year, the Democrats in 1844, the Whigs in 1848, the Democrats in 1852 and 1856, the Republicans in 1860 and for twenty years thereafter, the Democrats in 1884, the Republicans in 1888, and the Democrats in 1892. Eight times in these fifty-two years has there been a change in party control of the executive department, and usually at the same time in Congress also.

It is a remarkable fact that in the congressional elections which occurred two years after the people decreed a change of administration, there has invariably been a reaction against the successful party, often extending so far as to cost it the control of the House of Representatives. "Tippecanoe and Tyler, too," swept the country in 1840, receiving 234 out of the 294 electoral votes, and the Whigs chose 133 Representatives against 108 Democrats; but in 1842 the Whigs carried only 81 districts, while the Democrats secured 142. In 1844 the Democrats gave Polk 170 electoral votes to Clay's 105, and chose 142 of the 228 Representatives; but in 1846 they lost the House to the Whigs, who elected the Speaker by 110 votes to 108 for the divided Opposition. In 1848 the Whigs for the second time carried the Presidential election by 163 electoral votes to 127 for the Democrats, and came within about half-a-dozen of again controlling the House; but in 1850 there were chosen only 88 Whigs, against 140 Democrats and 5 Free-Soilers. In 1852 there was a "tidal wave" which swept Pierce into the Presidency by 254 electoral votes to Scott's 42, and gave the Democrats 159, or more than two-thirds, of the 234 Representatives; but in 1854 the victorious party was so divided that the Republicans secured control of the House, electing N. P. Banks Speaker by a plurality vote.

The secession of the Southern States in 1861 left the first House of Representatives after Lincoln's election overwhelmingly Republican; but in 1862 the party suffered terrible reverses, its representation from New York sinking from 23 to 14, Pennsylvania 18 to 12, Ohio 13 to 5, Indiana 7 to 4, and the Democratic membership of the whole body being nearly doubled. When Cleveland was first elected in 1884, the Democrats secured 200 of the 325 Representatives; but in 1886 they obtained only 169. In 1888 the Republicans carried the House of Representatives by a narrow margin on the same day they elected Harrison; but in 1890 they suffered about the worst defeat ever administered to a party, securing only 88, or barely more than one-fourth, of the 332 Representatives.

It will be seen that there has never been a time after a change of administration when the victorious party made as good a showing in the mid-term elections as when it secured power; and more than once the change has been so great as to be a political revolution. Various causes have conspired to bring about this uniform rule. Each time the Whigs elected their candidate for President, he died early in his term, and his successor quarrelled with the party. The Mexican War hurt the Democrats in 1846. The repeal of the Missouri Compromise early in Pierce's administration caused a rebuke in the elections of 1854. The slow progress of the Union cause during the first two years of the civil war helped the Democrats to make so good a showing as they did in 1862. The enactment of the McKinley law was the chief agent in causing the overthrow of the Republicans in 1890.

Such causes have been accidental and temporary. There is one which has been constant, and which operates all the while with increasing power. It is the influence of the spoils system. William Henry Harrison was worried into his grave by the onset of the office-seekers; and the disgust over Tyler's distribution of places completed the demoralization among the Whig politicians. The trouble over the offices has grown more serious with every change of administration since 1840, as the spoils have grown richer and the spoilsmen more numerous.

It is notorious that the Republicans lost a number of close districts in 1890, simply because there was so much dissatisfaction with the distribution of the offices that many previously active members of the party refused to work for it, and some of them "knifed" the congressmen who had failed to meet their demands. The Republican press in Maine frankly admitted, after the election last September, that several thousands of the great Republican majority were due to Democratic disgust with the obnoxious ring which had distributed the patronage. In dozens of close districts throughout the North the final reliance of the Republicans for success on Tuesday last was the quarrelling among the Democrats over the way the offices have been distributed. By contrast it may be pointed out that no President (not even Cleveland himself since his second election) made so few changes proportionally after a change of party administration as Cleveland during the eighteen months after his inauguration in March, 1885, and that no party has ever made so good a showing at a similar election as the Democrats did, with such a record for their executive, in November, 1886. Even the spoilsmen themselves ought to be getting their eyes open to the truth that nothing hurts a party so much as getting the spoils. President after President has been elected without his party's controlling an office; time and again has the man who got in without the help of an office-holder found his own appointments contributing to the defeat of his party at the next election. There is nothing "theoretical" about the record to be found in political almanacs, and "practical politicians" must at last see that there is nothing in spoils as a party investment.

*NAVAL VIVISECTION.*

Before any actual fighting had taken place in the war between China and Japan, we pointed out one cause of the extraordinary interest taken in the impending conflict by Powers not directly concerned in it. This was the chance that experts could at last see how a modern navy would behave in action. Sure enough, since the terrible sea-fight off the Yalu, the critics and the amateurs have been having a joyful time. Special messengers have been rushed off to see Capt. Mahan to find out if the ships were sunk and the thousands of men drowned or blown to pieces according to preconceived notions of the way the thing would be done, and in the highest style of the art. Naval architects and gun-makers and officers of the marine have been eagerly looking for confirmation of their own crotchets, or refutation of the ridiculous ideas of rival experts, and the whole thing has been more like a gathering about a vivisection than anything else.

Usually, in such cases, there is at least a pretence of humanity. War is a terrible thing, military students have said, but if it must come, with all its calamities and barbarities, it is our duty to learn what we can from it. But there has been almost nothing of this in the discussions of the naval battle between the Chinese and Japanese. We do not now remember to have seen a single expression of sympathy or of horror in the writings of the expert disputants. The nearest approach to human feeling they have displayed—not a very elevated type of feeling, it must be admitted—is a thanking their stars that it was a lot of heathen Japs and Chinamen who had tried the experiment for the benefit of more civilized races. The latter could thus save their own skins while getting a valuable lesson in the science of destroying human life by wholesale.

Now this blunting of humane sensibilities is not a thing to be looked upon lightly. The pursuit of war in a quasi-scientific spirit seems to have filled many minds with a zeal for weapons of precision, for beautiful strategy and naval evolutions, for quick-firing guns and new tricks of armor, to the entire oversight of what an essentially barbarous thing war is. They will turn to accounts of the Yalu fight, and read such a bit as the following from the narrative of an eye-witness printed in the *North China Herald:* "We now observed the *Chiyuen* suddenly heel over and sink, probably from a chance shot from the enemy's first division." But they betray no thrill of horror at the thought of a crew of 300 men thus going to the bottom without a moment's warning. They rather exclaim with a sort of bastard scientific enthusiasm, "By Jove! old Krupp was right after all." Or they will read of the *Kingyuen* going

down like lead before a torpedo, with a complement of 270 men, and will think only of the splendid argument this will furnish them to squeeze an appropriation for more torpedo boats out of their Parliament or Congress. In short, the new school of naval experts, with their great learning and scientific attainments, tends distinctly to throw an unreal glamour about war, and to make it little else than a beautiful demonstration of mathematical theses or problems in mechanics or ballistics. This is a clear return to savagery. The whole progress of civilization has been marked by efforts to mitigate the horrors of war and to make resort to it as reluctant as possible; but our modern scientific fighters are in danger of forgetting and counteracting all that, and making war seem a thing in which to take a barbaric delight.

If any one is yet in doubt about the way the growth of the navy itself has fostered a warlike spirit among us, and made it seem a light thing to go to war, he need only look at the effect of the new navy on the last two secretaries of the department. Mr. Tracy was known only as a quiet lawyer before he was put at the head of the navy, but no sooner had he got there than he began to cast about for some *corpus vile* to try his big guns upon. Because one commander lost a good chance, though an illegal one, to blow somebody out of water, he dismissed him with contumely. Later on, when the *Itata* sailed away, in a perfectly legal manner, as our own courts decided, Mr. Tracy had the *Charleston* out after her, with much talk of powder and blood, and also began importing shot and shell from Europe—though he had no money to pay the duty on them—so as to be ready to sink Chilian ships and bombard Chilian cities. This transformation of a peace-loving counsellor-at-law into a bloodthirsty bully of the sea was most astonishing, and can be accounted for only on the supposition that if you put terrible engines of destruction into a man's hands, he becomes mad to get them at work.

Secretary Herbert has undergone a not dissimilar metamorphosis. Not long ago this erstwhile inoffensive Congressman gave us a picture of a modern battle-ship moving into an enemy's harbor, the happy captain pressing a button now here, now there, and dealing out death and destruction with beautiful effectiveness. In the last *North American Review* he has an article on the lessons of the Yalu sea-fight, in which there is not a word of sympathy for victims or survivors, not a line in deprecation of our own country ever being drawn into war, but only and everywhere anxiety about making our battleships bigger and more deadly. Is it any wonder that when the head of the department takes such a tone, a subordinate should draw a fancy picture of a "hell of death and destruction," and print it in a popular magazine as the kind of thing naval officers think about, day and night?

Of course this is partly to be explained on the ground of professional absorption. This is natural enough, and need not be objected to. But the danger lies in popularizing such professional absorption, in spreading broadcast the idea that because modern warfare is scientific it thereby ceases to be savage by nature, and that a great industrial nation, at peace with all the world and able to remain so indefinitely, ought to spend its brains and treasure in getting ready to fight all comers. Naval experts who propagate such barbarous notions are doing what physicians would do if they tried to make people take a purely scientific view of disease, and to lose all dread of it for themselves or sympathy for those who suffer from it. The heartless way in which naval writers have been analyzing in public the incidents of the Yalu fight may prove them to be very professional and scientific—though their radically conflicting views throw doubt even upon this—but it certainly proves them dangerous hands to which to intrust the peace and honor of great nations.

## *SUCCESSFUL NOVEL-WRITING.*

We are told that the four novels most sold in this country within the past few months have been Mrs. Ward's 'Marcella,' Meredith's 'Lord Ormont,' Hall Caine's 'Manxman,' and Du Maurier's 'Trilby.' This fact ought to be significant of much to a large class of literary Americans—we mean those upon whose consciences the cause, and especially the future, of the American novel weighs heavily. Usually to the practice of novel-writing they add much theorizing on how to do it, how to tell a good novel by looking it in the mouth, what novels to read and how to enjoy them, and how, above all, to build up and encourage a flourishing school of indigenous fiction.

A little attention to the great success of the novels mentioned will, we believe, yield more light on this subject than all the theorizing that can be spun out of any man's vitals. Observe, to begin with, that it is a success of the worthiest and most solid sort. These books have succeeded, not with the reading public to which all novels are one—the public which, in Thoreau's language, reads its nine-thousandth tale "with saucer eyes, with erect and primitive curiosity, and with unwearied gizzard." Meredith and the others have not found favor with the devotees of Albert Ross, or Lew Wallace, or Mrs. Linton, but have won their way with the James audience, the Howells and Crawford and Wilkins audience—with the very people, in fact, to whom the appeal in behalf of native fiction is most strongly made, and who confessedly constitute our ultimate tribunal in such matters. Their judgment shows conclusively that it is idle to hope to make novels go by nationality. As the French and Spanish adventurers in the New World used to hang each other not as Frenchmen or as Spaniards, but as pirates and cut-throats, so does fiction to-day get a favorable verdict not because it is American, English, or Polish, but because it is good; and it is damned not because it is foreign or native, but because it is weary, flat, stale, and unprofitable.

Now, we know that to say the way to write a good novel is to write like the four writers mentioned, sounds very much like saying that the way to paint a good picture is to paint like Velasquez. But there are, after all, some things in the externals of these four novels that ought to be taken to heart by many an anxious and aspiring novelist among us. We would ask him carefully to note, for one thing, the interval which has elapsed between 'Peter Ibbetson' and 'Trilby,' between 'The Manxman' and 'The Scapegoat,' between 'David Grieve' and 'Marcella,' between 'Lord Ormont' and the next preceding novel of Meredith's. There is nothing of the four-novels-a-year and anybody-can-do-it apparent in such slow methods of production. It really looks, in fact, as if these writers were something other than improvisers, as if they required time for their ideas to ripen and their conceptions to become vivid and consistent. The rule of producing one novel in three years instead of three or four each year would argue great laziness on the part of the authors—unless one were inclined to take up with the almost incredible theory that it meant a vast amount of *labor limæ* by them, a crude and obsolete application to the art of novel-writing of the principles which give all art distinction and permanence. This was all very well for Hawthorne and George Eliot in their plodding era, but squares ill with our mile-a-minute age. However, the problem seems to come down to a choice between mile-a-minute production joined with mile-a-minute oblivion, and a somewhat slower progress towards both printed page and the paper-mill.

Another thing in these books that ought to be a useful hint to the writers of novels is the broad and full canvas which they present. Their interest does not turn on two or three characters, wire-drawn to the vanishing point, but resides in the generous amplitude of the life they picture. They do not try to float themselves on a new trick of dialect, or on personal eccentricities, or any of the other little happy thoughts which it seems to be the sole function of so many makers of novels to "dash down" and turn into a book. Not that they are afraid of any of these things or avoid them; freely do they use them, but as a part of a broad treatment of a large section of the human comedy, not mistaking the asides and the by-play for the whole drama.

Nor can any reader imagine that any of the novelists we have named stopped to think what "school" he belonged to and was exemplifying. It was enough for him that he had a tale of human interest to tell, and had taken pains to tell it to the best of his power. The idea of classify-

ing 'Trilby' in a "school"! No one who reads that book stops to ask himself whether its author is a romanticist, a realist, a naturalist, a decadent, a symbolist, a veritist, or what-not. The sooner our complaining novelists leave off calling themselves and other people names, and cease thinking they can extemporize themselves to fame, the sooner will fame and name come, and the sooner will they get over their pain at the sight of four English writers of fiction running off at one time with the American market.

## SOME CONTINENTAL LIBRARIES.—II.

VENICE, September, 1894.

To go through the ducal courtyard and up the Giants' Staircase as a sight-seer is one thing; to have business that requires one to traverse them every day is quite another. One looks at them from the inside, as it were, and feels almost a part of the historical setting. I doubt, however, if this feeling comes to any but those to whom historical surroundings are unusual and whose imaginations are active. It resembles the feeling which prompts us to seat ourselves on thrones, to handle celebrated pens, to endeavor by outward means to bring ourselves to a realization of the state of mind which produced great things in the past.

It was to some such mental accompaniment that I first took my way to the Biblioteca Nazionale, a few days after my arrival in Venice, to get a book or two; on the second day, the accompaniment was not so noticeable, on the third and fourth visits my whole thought was centred on getting the books. The first day, the prefect or librarian was not in, and the books could not be given out, nor any procedure recommended by any one else. The second day he was in, read my letter of introduction very politely, offered me the freedom of the reading-room, and gave instructions that I was to have whatever MSS. I asked for to study, but could not let me take a book away without the written signature of the American consul or vice-consul affixed to a printed form which was given me. In the meantime, the printed rules of the Library were placed at my disposal when asked for, to read and make what extracts I chose.

The third day I sought the vice-consul in a very out-of-the-way corner, and found him somewhat surprised to be called on for such a favor, from which I inferred that Americans in Venice did not as a rule take books from the Biblioteca Nazionale. He signed the guarantee, remarking that it was a strange thing for the Library to require of consuls, since they could not possibly know the persons for whom they made themselves responsible; which was quite true and made my obligation seem very great. Armed with this document, I returned to the Library. The books were found; I was conducted with them to the office of the secretary, and was on the eve of obtaining my treasure when it was found that the consular stamp was not on the guarantee. There was no evading the rule in a Government library, but the attendant, seeing my disappointment, promised to set the books aside until I came again. Twenty-four hours brought me, through the mail, a properly stamped paper, and the books were then secured, with an attendant to carry them home for me. "Do you always carry the books for people?" I asked; "and is it required in order to see if they have given the right address?" "Oh, signora!" was the reply, with a look that said, "How could you think us so suspicious and unbelieving!" After which he explained that the professors usually took a number of books at once and wished them carried home, and so it had become the custom. It gives the opportunity of a fee, also, which is not allowed for any service within the Library precincts.

So much for the Biblioteca Nazionale, whose books I should have been allowed to keep for a month had I so desired, while the consular letter would remain in force for a year unless previously ordered cancelled by one of the three parties concerned. What other resources for reading have the Venetians and the strangers within their gates? I went to the circulating library in the Piazza, where the books that go out are nearly all novels of the Tauchnitz press, and the charge is a franc a week, with a deposit of five francs. One may have as many books *in succession* during the week as one can devour, for this sum. I inquired for the books I was then trying to obtain at the Biblioteca Nazionale—several books on Venice by Horatio F. Brown, keeper of the English archives in Venice. Yes, they had some of them for sale, not for circulation, "and they cannot be had at the Public Library either," I was told. This made me infer that there was still another library open to the public, and I consulted Baedeker. Mention was there made of a reading-room and library in the Palazzo Querini, open from eleven to eleven. To this old palace, with its inner garden now given up chiefly to the raising of chickens, I betook myself in a gondola, not venturing on an approach by land lest there should be no side-door open to the public. By dint of the gondolier's staff on the outside and the blows of an attendant on the inside, the front door was at last forced open, showing plainly that the side door was the popular entrance. Had I wanted a book here, even to read in the ladies' reading-room, I must have had another consular guarantee, unless I could show that my stay was limited to a few days and that the emergency was great. On no account were books given out to any one.

Fortunately, the only favor I asked was to see the rooms. There are several reading-rooms, in only one of which did there seem to be students, and among these were two young Italian women whom I had previously seen working at the Biblioteca Nazionale. The librarian was not in, but another officer, an elderly man, courteously explained to me the status of the library. It is a private collection, open for public use, but no additions of any consequence are made to it except of serial and periodical publications. Hence, said the old gentleman rather sadly, there were now few readers where formerly there had been many. There were no statistics to be had—indeed, there was a vagueness about everything that made me wonder afterward if I might not have dreamed the experiences. But I saw the alphabetical card-catalogue and learned that the librarian was preparing one of subjects, and I was shown, with a courteous attempt to establish a common interest, the two volumes of the American Library Association's Model Library Catalogue as a publication of which the Querini library recognized the value.

There are still three other libraries in Venice, connected with the Museo Civico, the Ateneo and the Istituto; but these are not free. While I do not think it safe to generalize from personal experience, my study of the rules of Italian Government libraries would lead me to think that I have described the usual course of affairs as regards the giving of library privileges to strangers. Persons of international reputation would doubtless not be put through this ordeal, but Americans whose international reputation has penetrated to Italy are few. In the case of Italians who may take books, they are divided by the library into two classes, citizens of Venice and citizens of Italy. The former do not need a guarantor; the latter must have one from among a long list of officials named as competent for the office. The privilege of drawing books is of two kinds, one admitting the loan of a certain book or books for a time not exceeding two months, the other allowing a succession of loans during a year. As to reading and study at the library itself, nothing could be more agreeable than the atmosphere of the Biblioteca Nazionale during the seven hours of the day when it is open to the public. The card-catalogue of authors is in the room first entered, and may be consulted by any one who seems a proper person, though nominally the assistants only are supposed to use it. A subject-catalogue is also to be consulted on application. The attendants are in uniform and are always within call, most of them seeming to have no other work during public hours than waiting upon readers or the higher library officials. They belong to the fifth of the five classes into which the employees of government libraries are divided, the *uscieri* and *serventi*, these in turn being divided into several grades.

The books of the Library are kept behind wire doors, so that the titles may be seen. From the catalogue-room, in which books are also kept, one enters the reading-room for printed books or the manuscript-room. The distinction, however, seems hardly to be between books and MSS., rather between reading and studying; for but one of the students in the latter room was engaged upon a manuscript. A soldier was consulting Larousse and the 'Britannica,' an author comparing an old edition (of Dante, I thought) with some proof-sheets, and the others engaged with other books, chiefly old ones. It was not easy, in this cosey room, with its four tables, its Madonna by some old Venetian master over the door, and its curious prints and engravings covering the walls, to bring one's self to so prosaic a task as translating and copying from the rules for Italian Government libraries, though I soon found matter of considerable interest in them. As the various students finished their half-day's work, the books in use were recommended to the care of an attendant, or placed by the student himself in a case in the room, where they might remain undisturbed until his return. In my own experience, though I said nothing to the attendant, I always found my book just where I had left it, keeping my place at the table, so to speak.

The term Government libraries covers, as well as independent libraries under the Government, the libraries of all universities, academies of art, science, and letters, and of all Government institutions. The national libraries, in various cities, are expected to consider all other public libraries in the city as subsidiary, whether under the Government or not, and in their buying to give the preference to those books in which these others are deficient, thus avoiding also useless duplication. In another letter I may be able to give an idea of the requirements made of candidates for positions in the Government libraries of Italy. The exact grading of this branch of the Government service, the system of examinations, etc., may offer suggestions of value, and must certainly be of interest to all who are directly

concerned in the management of libraries in the United States. MARY W. PLUMMER.

## VELASQUEZ IN MADRID.—II.

LONDON, September, 1894.

PROBABLY the warning that nowhere as in Madrid is Velasquez seen in the plenitude of his power sends one to the Prado with strong preconceived opinions—an admiration ready made. But consciousness of the prejudice in his favor—at least, such is my experience—only determines one not to be convinced against one's will. If the impression received from his work exceeded expectation, I was the more anxious to find some good reason for it, to assure myself that it was not a mere trick of the imagination. After all, the reason is not far to seek. It is partly but not altogether because Velasquez is, as now universally acknowledged, the master of technique, with a single stroke of his brush expressing more than most men could with a dozen, painting so consummately well that every minor detail gives the pleasure that all perfect accomplishment must, whether it be but a glove, as in one Philip after another, or a bit of armor (the wonderful shield in the Mars, for example), or, again, merely the simple but magic touch that lends light and shadow to another painter's mechanical design, as in the fringe of the trappings on Queen Isabella's horse. It is partly, but still not altogether, because he, first of all artists, dipped his brush in air and light until other pictures by the side of his seem flat and lifeless—Titian's superb Charles V. but so much paint, after the regal Philip IV. whose horse prances in open daylight; Veronese's sumptuous architecture but a fine arrangement of lines, after the sombre room, filled with atmosphere, in which the maids of honor wait upon the little Infanta. These are qualities in his work that can be recognized either in London or in Vienna, and without the visit to Madrid. In the Prado, however, if, no matter where hung nor in what company, Velasquez refuses to be ignored, it is above all because of certain other incomparable gifts in him, elsewhere not so fully illustrated and never so readily admitted. For, though it has become the correct thing for every amateur to prattle about his mastery of technique, next to nothing is heard of the charm of color and the decorative elegance of his pictures, which are the surprise the Prado has in store for the student.

Velasquez, according to popular misconception, was an uncompromising realist, a very Zola among painters; therefore the illogical conclusion is drawn that beauty of color and rhythm of line were without his scope, beyond his reach. But because—except when he was painting pure landscape—he emancipated himself from conventions outworn and dead, and expressed himself in terms entirely personal, it need not follow that he defied the essential conditions and restrictions of all art; because he presented a subject as no other man would, and recorded character as no other man could, it is not necessary to see in him but the submissive slave of nature. To a man of his temperament, unquestioning obedience to tradition was impossible; to a painter of his vision, truth was not to be disregarded; to an artist of his genius, nature could offer but "slovenly suggestions." That he was not to be coerced by academic tyranny is best exemplified in his religious pictures, since in them he was forced to adhere to traditional arrangement, and yet his manner of utterance was ever singularly individual. The personal note was always struck, whether in the swaddling-clothes of the infant, in so early a work as the "Adoration of the Kings," clearly studied from life and not borrowed from stock studio properties; or the Virgin in the "Coronation," as beautiful as the average critic declares his women to be ugly, as distinct in type as Raphael's and Murillo's madonnas are without distinction of any kind; or the big practical biscuit which, surely, no other artist ever put in the mouth of the raven caterer to Saint Anthony and Saint Paul. That he could grasp the salient characteristics of the thing or person he painted as no one had done before, or has done since, his portraits establish beyond a doubt. The face of his Philip, with its strange pallor and full Austrian lips, is as familiar to us as that of an intimate friend; his Infantas and Admirals and Dwarfs, once seen, are never forgotten. Though Ribera's or Murillo's saints bear a strong family likeness, though among Titian's goddesses the one scarce differs from the next, Velasquez's men and women have each his, or her, own complexion and color, varying from the bloodless Philip to the swarthy Æsop. The same flesh tints, once mixed upon his palette, never served for all his heads, as the wonderful group in the foreground of the "Lances" triumphantly testifies. But his innovations, more startling to his age than to ours, and his study of truth, which has gained for him the name of naturalist, did not leave him indifferent to the larger aspects, the more legitimate functions of art. It is the great glory of the Prado that it contains canvas after canvas to bear witness to the skill with which, from nature's vaguest hint, he could create a rare arrangement of color, a rare scheme of decoration.

So long as his sense of color betrays itself only in a bit of brown drapery, as in the *Borrachos*, or "Topers," or in a crimson sash, as in the equestrian Philip and Don Balthasar, there is nothing to bewilder. It is when he has filled his picture, not merely with spots of beautiful color, but with an exquisite harmony, that the artless, to whom the folds of blue mantle over saintly shoulders or the sweep of red cloak in mythological landscape mean color, cry out and denounce him as no idealist. But, though they have not eyes to see it, half the charm of the "Lances" is in the stirring symphony in green and blue which nature, unaided, could never have produced; half the strength of "Vulcan's Forge" in the subdued browns and gold vividly imagined, not actually seen; half the loveliness of the "Maids of Honor" in the tender grays and greens carried with such matchless subtlety from the walls, which prepare the way for the serene neutral tints of the modern master-decorator, to the silken gowns stretched over hoops which he alone knew how to make beautiful in their stiff ugliness. As if to emphasize the meagreness of the means by which he obtained his effects, he has painted himself in this picture, holding in his hand his palette. Umbers and siennas, red and white and black, are the colors laid upon it. Again, so long as he seems content with a grandiose simplicity of arrangement, as in those royal portraits where a curtain, a chair, and a table of almost photographic primness are his sole resources, the unintelligent deplore his relentless realism, his disdain of all decorative conventions. And once having called him a realist, they refuse to recognize the grandeur of composition in the equestrian portraits, with their wide landscapes and sweeping and majestic lines that render useless the stale old device of people and houses in the middle distance to bring out the dignity and bigness of horse and rider. They refuse to see more than a bald record of facts in the impressive array of lances which break up the expanse of clouded sky and give their name to the picture of the Surrender of Breda; more than the result of chance in the treatment of the tapestry and the three enchanting little figures in the background of the "Spinners"; and of all the sixty-odd canvases in the Prado, it is invariably upon the "Maids of Honor" they hit as proof positive of the haphazard element in his method. An anticipation of the Daguerreotype, it seemed to Stirling-Maxwell. Where was the picture in it? Gautier, who should have known better, asked, and so the curious fallacy has been handed down and grown stronger with years. But what if the grouping were, as is said, the outcome of Philip's desire to have the scene before him, as he sat for his portrait, transferred to canvas—the little Infanta Margaret, attended by her maids of honor, its centre, the painter himself at his easel a prominent feature? If he owed his subject to the caprice of a King, the painter's invention could still force materials so unpromising to yield a noble harmony of form as of color. The arrangement in "Las Meninas" is so perfect in its subtlety, so well-balanced in its parts, so tranquil and lovely as a whole, that, even if the color were less beautiful, the atmospheric effects less true, one could still understand why Luca Giordano thought to find in this picture "the theology of painting"—the *poetry* of painting would better have expressed his meaning. Before such masterpieces, wonder at the virile and personal presentment of truth in the work of Velasquez is forgotton for delight in its glory of color, its splendor of decoration; and these are qualities found in their full perfection only in the pictures of the Prado.

The gallery has its many other interests, to which I have not had space even to refer. It affords the best opportunity to follow the history of art in Spain, from its beginning with the primitives, of whom there are examples to vie with the beautiful Annunciation in the Mosque-Cathedral at Cordova, down to the moderns who, every year, manufacture *grandes machines* for the Salons. It contains French pictures of varying merit—most notable, two lovely little Watteaus, forerunners, as it were, of many a pastoral by Corot; and Italian canvases of no less inequality, most unlooked for being the fine Tiepolos, which remind us that Venetian genius was not exhausted with Veronese, and that if a painter's style have character, period and school and nationality count for little. It rejoices in a series of drawings by Goya, so clear, so spirited, so original, that one wishes a new Inquisitor ruled in the Plaza Mayor, and that pictures, instead of heretics, were burned at the stake, so that his canvases, save two or three, thus disposed of, Goya henceforward might be remembered solely as draughtsman. But when all is said, it is Velasquez who proves the most commanding, the most overwhelming presence among them all; it is Velasquez for whom one makes the journey to the most unendurable capital in Europe, Valasquez who repays one for the trouble. N. N.

## GENERAL THIÉBAULT'S MEMOIRS.—II.

PARIS, October 23, 1894.

WE left Gen. Thiébault at the time of the Concordat. He returned to his headquarters at Tours, and had not long been there when he fell in love. It would not be worth while to

mention this but that this new love was to become his wife. Elisabeth Chenais, whom he calls familiarly Zozotte, made him completely forget Pauline, his Milanese passion. He says gravely: "La Rochefoucauld says that we are never so near a new love as when we have just left another. One acquires, in fact, a necessity for strong and lively emotions and an invincible habit of happiness." Thiébault was very inflammable; as soon as he saw Zozotte he felt an invincible desire for strong emotions. He had evidently no sense of humor, for he spoke of the person who became his wife exactly as he had spoken before of Pauline. Elisabeth Chenais was the daughter of a planter of San Domingo; she had been unhappily married at the age of fifteen, but she had left her husband and lived at Tours with her father. Thiébault engaged himself to her, and was sent to Versailles, where he had Junot for his chief, and afterwards to Orléans. At the time when the First Consul ordered that all Englishmen who were in France should be considered prisoners of war, Orléans became the residence of sixty of them, among whom were Lord Elgin and the Gen. Count O'Connell (uncle of the famous Irish agitator). Thiébault showed all possible kindness to them, and remained their friend afterwards. O'Connell had served in the French army, participating in the siege of Mahon. He had emigrated in 1792, and had served in the army of Condé as a simple hussar; but when the Princes left for Russia, he returned to England, where he married Madame de Bellevue, an *émigrée*. When the power of the First Consul became irresistible, Napoleon wished to attach to his army a man whom he knew because he was the author of the military ordinances of 1788. O'Connell thanked him: "I am too old," he said, "to leave a cause which I have always served." Thiébault was ordered to send all his English prisoners to the fortress of Bitche. The orders of Napoleon were not often discussed; Thiébault took it on himself to make an exception in the case of Lord Elgin and of Gen. O'Connell.

One morning Thiébault received a cut and-dried address humbly begging the First Consul to assume the title of Emperor. This address was to be read at once to all the military functionaries and to the troops, and to receive as many signatures as possible. The wish thus expressed was regarded as an order, and Thiébault had to carry to Paris the address with its signatures. A few days afterwards a *Senatus-consultum* proclaimed Napoleon Emperor, and the new Charlemagne appointed his marshals. He said to Josephine: "Remember, madame, that you have now no longer any family, you have only subjects." He revived, however, for his new marshals the old royal appellation, "Mon cousin." Thiébault finds occasion to criticise Napoleon in the choice of his marshals; he admits the merits of some, denies the merits of others. Those who find favor in his eyes are Masséna, Saint-Cyr, the great tactician; Kellermann, the victor at Valmy; Jourdan, victor at Wattignies and Fleurus; Lannes, whom he calls the inspired general; Bernardotte and Suchet, Ney, Murat. All the rest are judged by him not worthy of the dignity of marshal.

Thiébault gives a lengthy account of the festivities at the coronation of the Emperor. For this occasion he took Zozotte, who had now become his wife, to Paris; but he did not present her at the Tuileries. "I was deterred from so doing by the thought that Zozotte was too pretty to be presented by me at this court. . . . Many people have criticised us, and they were right from the point of view of ambition, of money, of honors, of my career; but was I wrong, since I wanted only domestic happiness?" Thiébault had not much consideration for the new Empress. "She remained for me," he says, "the former mistress of Barras, who had procured for Bonaparte the command of the army of Italy; the woman who, for a bribe of 500.000 francs, had given the contract for the army of Italy to the abominable Flachat Company, whose bold robberies caused the horrible distress and famine of our troops during the siege of Genoa, and forced Masséna to make terms with Melas." He adds, however, that, after having at first persisted in calling Josephine Mme. Bonaparte, "by degrees, I adopted the tone of the day, and soon there was nothing that I did not find imperial in Josephine."

Thiébault was in Notre Dame when "Bonaparte, in presence of the Pope, before all the bishops and archbishops of France, with an historical exactitude of which he did not always give an example, crowned himself with his own hands." He was also on horseback in the procession of marshals and generals which accompanied the Emperor from Notre Dame to the Tuileries. Zozotte went to all the great balls given by the city of Paris and by the marshals, if she did not go to the Tuileries. "At each of these balls she ran away, like a child, from any spot that the Emperor approached, and thus she did not come under his eyes." Thiébault had found the young creole irresistible, and thought that everybody saw her with the same eyes as himself. The portrait of Mlle. Chenais which is in this third volume of the Memoirs does not favor his notion. Zozotte, if the portrait is truthful, was merely a pretty creole. A son was born to Gen. Thiébault at Orléans, but his wife became very ill after her confinement, the child died, and, a few hours after his death, came a courier to Orléans who brought Thiébault an order to start immediately for Landau in Bavaria, and to take there the command of a brigade in the First Army Corps, which was under Marshal Soult. His wife became delirious for a while, and was still very ill when he left for Germany.

England had succeeded in forming a coalition. Austria was first in readiness, and Mack, at the head of 80,000 men, had already crossed the territory of Bavaria, which was our ally. His right was at Ulm, his left at Memmingen. Napoleon began at once the celebrated march which conducted him rapidly before Ulm. Instead of attacking the Austrian general in front, he advanced by the left bank of the Danube, and, crossing the Danube at Donauwörth, placed himself in the rear of Mack, who became isolated, and could not retreat either on Munich or on Tyrol. A single manœuvre and a few combats allowed Napoleon to annihilate the army of Mack.

The French corps had many forced marches to make during the first part of the campaign; Thiébault says that his division had not much to do besides marching, but the details into which he enters give a very vivid idea of the realities of war. He was at Germersheim, as he had been ordered, on the 12th of September, and there found Marshal Soult, his immediate chief, Gen. Saint-Hilaire, and his colleague, Gen. Morand, who commanded the first brigade of his division. The Rhine was crossed on the 26th of September at Speyer, and the campaign began. Thiébault passed through Heilbronn, Hall, Ellwangen, Nördlingen, crossed the Danube. On the 7th of October, he was on the road to Landsberg, when Philippe de Ségur, an aide-de-camp of the Emperor, arrived with a letter from Napoleon to Saint-Hilaire, telling him that the enemy was at Landsberg. Saint-Hilaire had hardly taken the direction of Landsberg, his soldiers singing and shouting from time to time, "Vive l'Empereur!" when an aide-de camp of Murat came at full gallop, and informed Saint-Hilaire that Murat was fighting an enemy much superior in force, and ordered him to join Murat in great haste. "But," said Saint-Hilaire, "here is the Emperor's order." "Landsberg is not in question," said the officer, "but Ulm; and what will you do if the Prince is overpowered, if Mack cuts his way through?" Meanwhile, the roar of the guns was heard in the direction of Mindelheim, where Murat was fighting. "What then is to be done?" asked Saint-Hilaire of his generals. Thiébault replied: "Let us go where the guns are heard." Thiébault, in relating these details, refers to Marshal Grouchy, who did not, at Waterloo, go where the guns were heard. Saint-Hilaire followed Thiébault's advice, but, as the guns ceased to be heard after a while, he changed his mind and retook the direction of Landsberg. Suddenly the guns of Murat were heard again; new orders were given. The division changed its direction three times in less than an hour, and when Saint-Hilaire arrived he was very badly received by Murat, who, however, had been able to maintain his position, with the help of troops coming from another direction.

The great question, during the terrible marches, made chiefly in the rain, was a resting-place at night. Thiébault's division found itself for a whole night packed in a deep cut, on a high road; thousands of men were without shelter, without food, without fire, under a heavy and cold rain. The generals and aides-de-camp lost all their authority on such occasions; each man had to look out for himself. During the negotiations which were followed by the capitulation of Memmingen, a cart was stopped by the soldiers near the gates of the town; the driver fled, and the soldiers heard that the cart was full of boxes containing jewelry and watches. "The most imperative prohibition, the fire from the place, which continued—nothing could stop them. Nearly forty soldiers found their death near the cart; nevertheless the boxes were broken open and ransacked."

Thiébault exhibits, as this example proves, the dark side of war. "The night," he says, "which succeeded the capitulation of Memmingen, struck a great blow to discipline. The troops of my corps d'armée, which by their wisdom had so far shown themselves worthy of having been a part of the army of the camp at Boulogne, became a band of plunderers." To do Thiébault justice, he took the greatest possible pains to check these deplorable tendencies. He never left his troops; his brigade was kept in better order than all the others. He never allowed soldiers to straggle and to enter into houses, and he surrounded his brigade every night with a cordon of sentries.

Mack's capitulation at Ulm paved the way for the great victory of Napoleon at Austerlitz. Many accounts have been given of this celebrated battle; the detailed narrative of Thiébault will be found among the most valuable, especially as his corps d'armée played a very decisive part in it. Soult had to storm and to occupy the plateau of Pratzen, which became, so to speak, the pivot of the French army. Curiously enough, two months before, at a moment when the allies were retiring on Olmütz, and when it was thought that the winter would

interrupt military operations, Napoleon, riding with some officers, showed them the heights of Pratzen, and said: "Look well at those heights; it is there that you will fight in two months." It was on these heights, when the battle was already won by the French, that Thiébault was struck by a shell and received a most terrible wound in the shoulder and the sternum. He had seven bones broken; he was for a long time in danger of his life, and was saved only by his robust constitution.

As soon as he could do so safely, he returned by short stages to France, and found his wife in Paris, where they remained together for six months. He was invited to all the great receptions at the Tuileries.

"At one of these sumptuous receptions, with my eyes fixed on the golden throne, which seemed then as indestructible as it was brilliant, I remembered suddenly the first time that I had seen this same Bonaparte, then brigadier on half pay. It was in this garden of the Tuileries which had become his garden. . . . This Bonaparte, whom I still saw so thin, so dry, so yellow, so weak, without a name, without a fortune, who seemed without a future, received now the homage of kings, maintained the first place among them, was ready to distribute crowns to all his family, and, having become the most formidable potentate in the world, marked by monuments every spot on which he stepped."

# Correspondence.

## THE BALTIMORE PLAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: One important result of the adoption of the Baltimore plan of currency reform seems to have been overlooked in your article of the 25th inst. As the guarantee fund in the hands of the Government is to be maintained by the banks at a fixed proportion of all the bank-notes outstanding, the banks would become co-insurers of each other's circulation, and would have a very definite interest in seeing that the bank examiners performed their duties thoroughly and in good faith. Under the system of bond security they evidently have no such special interest.—Yours truly,

Geo. Q. Thornton.

St. Louis, Mo., October 29, 1894.

## FARMING IN MARYLAND AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "Why is it that the consumer in Baltimore wanting good butter on his table should be left to buy Western butter instead of delicious Maryland butter fresh from the farm or dairy?"

One reason is, that this climate favors the growth of garlic in the grass in a way scarcely known in more Northern latitudes. During the spring and early summer months the milk and butter are so filled with this odor and flavor that a large portion of the public prefers to use butter from a distance. If any way can be found to eradicate either the garlic or the climate, the Maryland farmer and the Baltimore consumer will stand on a better footing. J. M. V.

Baltimore, November 2, 1894.

## THE WORD "DETAIL."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The letter of Dr. Murray opens a very interesting question, namely, why the word *detail* should be used in a military sense in this country and not, apparently, in England. The earliest quotation I have yet found for the word in this sense is from a paper written by General Charles Lee on Count Pulaski's proposed legion in 1778. In this paper occurs the following passage:

"As it is not certain that either Count Polaski [*sic*], or Major Lee understood *the detail* of Cavalry, on which so much depends, let some Quarter-masters or Sergeants, who have served in the British cavalry, (and there are many on the continent,) be found out, encouraged with rank and emolument, and employed. A corps thus composed, with brave and understanding officers at their head, such as are Polaski and Lee, with a few subordinate officers, knowing, *in the detail*, will render more effectual service than any ten regiments on the continent." ('The Life and Memoirs of the late Major General Lee, second in command to General Washington during the American Revolution, to which are added his Political and Military Essays.' New York, 1813. P. 152.)

If this word, used in a military sense, occurs first during the American Revolution, and only on this side of the Atlantic, is it not possible that it came from our French allies of that period? The primary meaning assigned to *détailler*, in the Dictionary of the Academy, is that of subdivision, *distribuer par parties*. Yet neither Larousse nor Littré mentions the military usage. T. W. Higginson.

Cambridge, Mass., October 30, 1894.

# Notes.

The new volume in the Messrs. Appleton's complete edition of Huxley's Works will bear the title 'Evolution and Ethics.' Socialism and the Salvation Army are among the topics embraced in it.

Additional announcements from Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are Edward Cary's Life of George William Curtis, in the "American Men of Letters" series; an 'Oliver Wendell Holmes Yearbook'; 'Notes on the Forest Flora of Japan,' by Prof. Charles S. Sargent; 'Occult Japan: The Way of the Gods,' by Percival Lowell; 'Side Glimpses from the Colonial Meeting-house,' by William Root Bliss; 'The Great Refusal: Letters of a Dreamer in Gotham,' by Paul E. More; 'A Century of Charades,' by William Bellamy; Sir Edward Strachey's 'Talk at a Country House'; and the first public edition of a 'Memoir of Maria Edgeworth,' with a selection from her letters, by Mrs. Edgeworth, edited by Augustus J. C. Hare.

D. Appleton & Co. announce a Life of Dean Buckland, by his daughter; 'Songs of the Soil,' by Frank L. Stanton; and 'The Golden Fairy-Book,' with illustrations.

Henry Altemus, Philadelphia, will publish, in connection with Elliot Stock, London, a facsimile of the first edition (1678) of Bunyan's 'Pilgrim's Progress,' the reproduction being carried out even to the binding. A preface by Dr. John Brown, author of 'Bunyan and his Times,' undertakes to settle some controverted questions.

Johnson & Emigh, San Francisco, have in preparation a book of pressed 'Wild Flowers of California,' arranged by Miss E. C. Alexander, with appropriate sonnets by Ina D. Coolbrith and Grace Hibbard.

"Revised Translation" is written on the front of the pretty little edition of Daudet's 'Tartarin sur les Alpes' issued by T. Y. Crowell & Co., and an inserted slip for the reviewer's benefit speaks of disfiguring mistranslations that have been "carefully eliminated." But on p. 171 (for a random test), to station the Pension Müller "near the landing-stage by the lake" instead of its omnibus, as in Daudet's text, is a mistranslation clearly overlooked. In the preceding paragraph there are two "eliminations," but they are of passages in the original; and in the paragraph before that there is an insertion out of whole cloth, if we can trust the fifty-six-thousandth issue of the French. Evasions of translation, defective idiom (like "be it understood" for "of course" —*bien entendu*), carelessness, might also be exemplified from the same tract. The wash-drawings have been "processed" a second time after being reinforced with pen-strokes.

Thomas B. Mosher, Portland, adds to his "Bibelot Series" (long books for the pocket with parchment covers) 'Félise: A Book of Lyrics chosen from the Works of Algernon Charles Swinburne,' and FitzGerald's 'Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám.' The paper of these issues is of the best, and the typography excellent if one be reconciled to italics for the poetry throughout. In the 'Rubáiyát' we have the first and fourth editions printed, for the sake of comparison, on opposite pages, and the variant readings of the other two editions are duly recorded. An American-English bibliography is appended. The "Bibelots" are limited to 725 copies.

The Dent-Macmillan edition of Miss Ferrier's Novels has all the attractiveness of the reprints of Jane Austen, Charlotte Brontë, and Fielding. The form, print, binding are unexceptionable; each of the six volumes has its ex-libris pasted on the cover; Miss Erichsen's illustrations are above the ordinary, and her female characters in particular are very well imagined and drawn. The editor, Mr. Brimley Johnson, has been able to piece out the necessarily scanty biographical sketch with a selection from Miss Ferrier's letters placed at his disposal.

The well-known Macmillan edition of Browning has just been completed by an eighteenth volume consisting of 'Asolando,' biographical and historical notes to the Poems, a general index, and an index to first lines of the shorter poems.

Miss Guiney dedicates the five essays which compose 'A Little English Gallery' (Harpers) to Mr. Gosse, as an apology for "this friendly trespass on his fields." They might better have been laid at the door of Mr. Dobson, whose tireless accuracy in matter and winning grace of form they so honorably emulate, and in whose particular domain (the eighteenth century) fall the two most interesting of them —the exquisite sketches of George Farquhar and of Johnson's curious and lovable intimates, Topham Beauclerk and Bennet Langton. The others relate to Lady Danvers, George Herbert's noble mother, Henry Vaughan the Silurist, and William Hazlitt. All five are brilliant portraits, finely conceived and patiently elaborated, in a style and with a method that fail of being wholly admirable only because the author is not content with simplicity. Everything reminds her of something else, and she must needs remind likewise the reader, who is more puzzled than enlightened by the additional information. Miss Guiney's best effects are thus often dimmed by irrelevant details. Even Johnson she cannot let die without the anticlimax of a literary allusion: "That large soul had gone away, as Leigh Hunt so beautifully said of Coleridge, 'to an infinitude hardly wider than his thoughts.'"

'Portraits in Plaster' (Harpers) is Mr. Hutton's account of his collection of death and life-masks (which first appeared in *Harper's Magazine*) "revised, enlarged, and virtually rewritten." Doubtless a plaster mask from the living

or dead face is often the most valuable of documents, and the most irrecusable testimony as to the actual make and structure of the head and face of a great man. It may be distorted in expression and false in effect, but it gives undeniable and measurable facts as far as they go. It may be pointed out, however, that this does not hold true of drawings or photographs of such masks, which are liable to all the faults of drawings or photographs from life, and can have no greater authority. At best this collection of photographic reproductions from plaster casts is somewhat unpleasant to the eye and mind. At worst the value of the original cast as evidence is so far weakened by bad lighting, bad photographing, or bad reproduction that all sense of reality is lost, while no artistic quality is gained in its place. Noticeable in this way are the plates of Frederick the Great and Cromwell, while others are nearly as bad. On the other hand, one of the plates from the life-mask of Booth is remarkably successful and beautiful, and others are interesting. Mr. Hutton's text is pleasantly anecdotic and discursive.

Prof. Goodyear's 'Renaissance and Modern Art' (Chautauqua Century Press) may be safely recommended as an admirable handbook of the history of art for the period named. The general view given of the development and spread of the Renaissance and of the relation to it of our modern life and art is clear and sound, and the characterization of the work of individual artists is usually excellent. The selection of certain works as the "masterpieces" of the artists (*e. g.*, Titian's "Assumption" and Rubens's "Descent from the Cross") is sometimes conventional and at best rather meaningless, and the attempts at indicating the pronunciation of proper names (*e. g.*, "Jorjony") are not always happy. With these reservations we have little but praise for all the earlier part of the book. In dealing with the art of our own day, Prof. Goodyear is not quite so successful. Here the judgment of the world has not yet crystallized, and there is no guide to the relative importance of artists and their works save personal feeling and actual technical knowledge of art such as none but artists possess. It is therefore not surprising that there seems a lack of perspective and proportion in this part of the book, both as regards the comparison of modern with elder art, and as regards the comparative rank assigned to individual artists. Prof. Goodyear errs, however, rather in over-enthusiasm for modern, and particularly American, art and artists than in the opposite way, and it is certainly better to teach that good work can be and is done to-day and at home rather than to encourage the shallow contempt of everything that is not old and foreign. If our author is so dazzled by the beauty of the World's Fair at Chicago as to include some bad work in his commendation of the good, and even to overstrain a little the note of praise in honor of the really good work, the sin is not unforgivable.

The main idea of Mr. Horace E. Scudder's 'Childhood in Literature and Art' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is that all advance in humanity has been marked by increasing respect for and interest in the child, and that as one of the most significant things in Christianity is the utterance, "Suffer little children," so one of the great signs of that modern humanitarianism which dates from the French Revolution is the appearance of childhood in our literature, first strongly marked in the poems of Wordsworth and William Blake. The style of the book is deficient in lightness, and the thread of the argument is not always easy to disentangle. The theme will bear another attempt at handling.

The Macmillans have brought out a new edition of Mr. Pennell's 'Pen-Drawing and Pen-Draughtsmen' which is virtually a new book. By cutting down the margins the page is made smaller without altering the size of the drawings, and the volume is much thicker than the first. Some of the original text has been cut out and only a necessary minimum added. The plan, or rather planlessness, of the work has not been changed, and there is no improvement in arrangement or clarity of presentation. Neither is there any improvement in tone, which is even more dogmatic than before in the "Preface to the Second Edition." The great change is in the augmented number of illustrations, which is more than doubled. The drawings now number 367 as against 158 in the former volume; and even these figures do not give a just idea of the amount of new work, for a good many plates have been either entirely discarded or replaced by others. By a careful comparison it appears that there are 223 new illustrations to the present edition; and as the illustrations must be the most important part of a work of this kind, it will be seen how greatly the value of this edition exceeds that of the original. Some of the additions repair injustices, as, notably, in the case of Meissonier, whose position as the father of modern illustration was unaccountably neglected in the first edition. Some give further or better examples of the work of men already noticed, but most are devoted to the new men who, in all countries, have been coming to the fore in the art of pen-drawing. The result is an astonishing array of ability and varying method which shows convincingly the vitality of the art to-day.

M. Thiers called Raphael "the painter of Madonnas," and the general public seems always to have agreed with M. Thiers. It is only the few who know the true Raphael, the world's supreme decorator and the résumé of the Renaissance; to the rest of the world, who care most for sentiment and prettiness and little for art, he has remained still "the painter of Madonnas." It is in this light that Karl Károly's 'Raphael's Madonnas and Other Great Pictures' (Macmillan) shows him once more. The "other great pictures" are only thirteen in number, and include none of the great frescoes on which the master's fame will always most securely rest. On the other hand, fair and sometimes excellent reproductions, directly from the originals, of the whole series of Raphael's Madonnas are here given. They are forty in number, and include all undoubted and some contested examples of this phase of the artist's work. To those whose palate is proof against the cloying influence of so much undiluted sweetness the book will be welcome. The "life" of Raphael is sufficient for its purpose, and the notes on the individual pictures give the essential facts together with criticisms, or rather appreciations, from various sources. The English is not always above reproach.

Readers of *Punch* who have missed of late "Lika Joko's Jottings," as pictorial accompaniment to those inimitable extracts from the diary of Toby, M.P., will be glad to know that Mr. Harry Furniss has undertaken to realize the old suggestion of "a Comic *Punch*," under the name of his former sobriquet. The first number of *Lika Joko* appeared on October 20, and promises a real rival to the friend of our youth and middle age. As, however, the cultivated world where Mr. Punch finds his audience has certainly doubled in extent since he made his bow to the admirers of John Leech and Douglas Jerrold—now more than fifty years ago—there should be room for a younger *Charivari* of Japanesque extraction. Their rivalry, we must hope, will not be internecine, although Father Punch, as drawn in *Lika Joko's* frontispiece, has the critical air of a parent whose latest scion is not altogether welcome.

Budding linguists may take delight in a polyglot collection of translations of Andersen's pathetic tale, 'A Mother,' side by side with the original—'Une Mère: Conte de Hans Christian Andersen en 22 langues' (St. Petersburg: S. M. Nicolaieff; London: Th. Wohlleben). Most of these versions have seen the light already in a similar publication (Copenhagen, 1875), but a few have been derived from other sources and some made expressly for the present occasion. Absolute typographical accuracy was hardly to be looked for. Three petty misprints have crept into the English rendering, besides the faulty division *flo-wers*, but correctness is the rule. The Danish compares favorably with the other languages in respect of terseness—five pages, to the Italian and modern Greek six, Armenian seven, Tartar seven and a half, etc. The Hebrew, on the other hand, is content with a little more than four pages.

Lee & Shepard, Boston, have got out a duodecimo blank 'Catalogue of Books, MSS. and Prints' which will doubtless be found convenient for small collections. A fairly generous provision is made for lending and recovery.

Nearly all the papers in the current Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society (vol. x., part 2) will arrest attention. One is President Stanley Hall's "On the history of American college text-books and teaching in logic, ethics, psychology and allied subjects," a self-explanatory title. Another is the journal of Charles Floyd, sergeant under Lewis and Clark, of which the recent finding in the archives of the Wisconsin Historical Society has been made known through our own columns. The transcript was furnished by Prof. J. D. Butler of Madison, and is introduced by him with some very interesting remarks on the fate of the subordinate journals of the expedition, of which he had predicted the eventual turning-up. Floyd's entries cover barely a hundred days, up to the time of his death, but supplement, as Prof. Butler shows, in not unimportant particulars both Gass's narrative and Biddle's. Mr. John Bellows and Mr. F. A. Ober have each something worth saying "On the Past in Present Asia" and on "The Aborigines of the West Indies" respectively.

With the November issue the *Psychological Review* (Macmillan) completes its first volume. This number contains two articles on Emotion, one being part of an extended discussion by Prof. John Dewey. Dr. Dana reports a striking case of double consciousness in one of his patients, discussing it in the light of earlier instances. With this volume completed, the *Review* takes its established place among the solid scientific journals. We note especially the very wide constituency among the universities from which it draws its contributions.

A new undertaking of the same editors is announced in this number of the *Review*. They are to have prepared (by Dr. Farrand of Columbia and Mr. Warren of Princeton) a yearly 'Index of Psychological Literature,' including the titles of all publications of interest to psychologists. The first number of this 'Index' is to be devoted to the literature of the year 1894, and is expected to appear in February,

1895, with Macmillan's imprint. It may be ordered at a discount to subscribers to the *Review*, and will also be for sale separately.

Though the late Andrew G. Curtin was well on in years when he sat for the portrait which Mr. F. Gutekunst sends to us from Philadelphia, the traits of this "War Governor" are plainly manifest in the resolute and intelligent face. This photograph will rank with the best of its predecessors in the "imperial panel" series.

Miss Irwin's appointment as Dean of Radcliffe College has been signalized by a remarkable spontaneous testimonial from her former scholars in Philadelphia, during the past quarter of a century. Their grateful attachment led them to found an Agnes Irwin scholarship of five thousand dollars at the college; the recipient to be named, and all the details, present and future, to be arranged, by Miss Irwin herself. Accompanying the money gift was a silver box containing an engrossed parchment roll, sixteen feet long, bearing the names of the 616 donors—a widely scattered body. It will be remembered that Miss Irwin is a great-granddaughter of Franklin, whose silver medal is still awarded annually to the youth of the Boston public schools.

—By the preparation of 'A Catalogue of the Library of Adam Smith,' Mr. James Bonar, the editor, and Messrs. Macmillan, the publishers, have won the gratitude of every economic bibliophile. Smith's collection seems to have numbered some three thousand volumes—a library which Dugald Stewart could not help speaking of as "small" (for people bought books in those days), although he was kind enough to add that it was "excellent" and "formed with great judgment." It remained intact, although divided into two portions, until 1878-9. Since then many of the books have been sold and scattered, so that now Mr. Bonar is able to trace only about two-thirds of the original collection. These he has catalogued alphabetically; and he has beautified his pages, already more than comely, by the insertion of what at first sight look like liturgical rubrics. This would be odd, for no economist so far has founded a religion; although a sociologist, M. Comte, has tried to. The ruddy passages are a number of apt quotations from the great master, placed under the books of which he evidently made use. It is significant of many things that works on political economy and history make up only one-fifth of the whole, and that, while there are many French works among these, the only German books are translations from Adam Smith himself. To the catalogue proper have been added a facsimile of a very characteristic letter to his publisher, a ground-plan of his house at Kirkaldy, and an account of the various portraits of him, genuine and fictitious. In all probability many of the books sold in 1878 have reached America, among them, perhaps, Fleetwood's 'Chronicon Preciosum.' They can readily be identified by Smith's very plain bookplate, bearing merely his name in capitals; and librarians or private owners who come across any of them will do well to communicate with Mr. James Bonar at Bolton House, Hampstead, London.

—The second part of Dr. Hans Blum's 'Fürst Bismarck und seine Zeit' (Munich: Beck; New York: Westermann), which has just appeared, completes the first volume of 524 pages, and gives an admirable survey of Bismarck's career as the representative of Prussia in the Frankfort Federal Diet from 1851 to 1853. The arrogant attitude of Austria towards the minor members of the Confederacy rendered Bismarck's position as ambassador of a rival German Power, aiming to maintain its independence as a sovereign state and to exercise its legitimate influence in the spheres of foreign and domestic politics, extremely difficult; but for this reason it was an excellent school for the development of his talent as a diplomatist. The Austrian ambassador, Count Thun, who was also the presiding officer of the Diet, was wont to smoke his cigar during official conferences with his colleagues, as a mark of his superior rank and dignity. Bismarck resolved not to tolerate this assumption, in which his predecessor, Rochow, had mildly acquiesced, and, at the first session in which this occurred, took out a cigar and politely asked the Count to give him a light. This apparently trivial incident excited mingled emotions of amazement and consternation in the souls of those who had hitherto tamely submitted to such imperiousness, and was, in fact, an event of no small significance. The protesting fumes of Bismarck's cigar preluded and prophesied the clouds of battle-smoke at Königgrätz under which Austria disappeared politically from Germany and thereby ceased to contest the hegemony of Prussia. The immediate effect of Bismarck's action was rather comical. For the next six months or more only the two great Powers, Austria and Prussia, smoked at the conferences. Finally Bavaria, in the person of Baron Schrenck, ventured to assert her claim to coequality by lighting a cigar, and her example was followed by Hanover, Saxony, and all the petty principalities except Hesse Darmstadt, who was not a smoker. Würtemberg was also unaccustomed to the use of the "weed," but she resolved to conquer her disgust in the vindication of her dignity, and one day drew out a cigar. ("I see it before me now," said Bismarck nearly twenty years later, "a long, thin, light-yellow thing, of the color of rye straw"), and with surly determination brought a burnt sacrifice in honor of the Suabian fatherland. The concluding chapter of the volume is devoted more particularly to a description of Bismarck's private and domestic life in Frankfort, with interesting extracts from letters to his wife during vacation excursions in Switzerland, Hungary, Holland, and the adjacent islands, and characteristic anecdotes, showing a quick and kindly sense of humor, which was so essential a quality of his mind that he could not suppress it even in official reports and state-papers.

—The last number of the Proceedings of the Psychical Research Society contains, in its report of the Committee on the "Census of Hallucination," the solidest and heaviest piece of work which it has yet published; and if dryness and dulness can make a thing scientific, then these 400 pages are as scientific as the most fastidious intellect can desire. Stories of apparitions, however flesh-curdling they may be when told singly in the twilight, are terribly monotonous when cast into the form of printed depositions and taken in bulk. The Census of Hallucinations was, as is well known, an idea of the late Edmund Gurney, who thought that the proportion of frequency of apparitions-coinciding-with-deaths to other apparitions might decide whether the former were or were not something more than accidental coincidences. The present committee has had 17,000 persons interrogated as to whether they have had, when awake, etc., an hallucination or not. Of these, 1,684 answered yes, and the details of the experiences form a body of data which the committee go over and discuss in every possible way. As regards the main question, the committee's verdict is *tout ce qu'il y a de plus* affirmative. Their calculation of probability is based, for obvious reasons, on one sort of "veridical" phantasm, that, namely, in which on the day of a person's death a distinct visual hallucination of his presence appears to some one at a distance. Their statistical argument against chance is as follows: According to the registrar-general's report, 1 person in 19,000 dies daily in England. If there be no causal connection between apparitions and deaths, and if apparitions of persons strike persons at random (so to speak), being no more likely in advance to strike a dying one than a living one, we should expect them to strike the living 19,000 times more frequently than the dying, because living men are 19,000 times more frequent facts than dying men. In other words, the antecedent probability that a person will die on the day on which his apparition is seen is only 1 in 19,000. Now the figures of the returns give a much smaller fraction than this, even when corrected so as to be on the safe side of every objection that can be urged against their accuracy. They give, even with these corrections, 30 apparitions on the day of the death amid an aggregate of 1,300 apparitions of recognized living persons, being at the rate of 1 in 43, or 440 times the most probable chance number, of 1 in 19,000. In fact, since many of the apparitions seem to have occurred not merely on the day, but at the very hour, of the death, the improbability of the explanation by chance is really much greater than this figure. Disbelievers in occult causes cannot well attack the reasonings of the committee, which, by the way, is headed by Professor and Mrs. Henry Sidgwick. They will have to attack the premises, and say either that the narratives are so essentially inaccurate that no results can be pinned upon them, or else that the figures are still too small to reach a "law" by, and that the Census must be continued elsewhere. The American continuation of the Census is not yet published. Meanwhile, it is fair to say that this ponderous contribution to the subject has once for all redeemed the theory of an occult connection between apparitions and deaths from the status of a "superstition," and has captured for the "telepathic" hypothesis which the committee professes, the right to a patient and respectful hearing before the "scientific" bar.

—Something more than a common sorrow and the ordinary sense of loss will be felt at the news of the too early death of James Darmesteter, at Maisons-Laffitte on October 19. Not only will men of study and of thought lament the exact scholar and the close thinker that is gone, but a much wider class, who have been drawn to him by the charm that pervaded all his work, his love of beauty, his passion for truth, the spiritual ardor of his soul, will mourn the poet and the prophet in a much more personal and intimate way. There were in Darmesteter precious acquirements of scholarship and erudition, a severe and almost perfect method, great power of observation and classification, the eye and hand of the artist—but these seemed not more than external qualities in him. They seemed to be media through which he viewed the living and eternal questions that press upon mankind, or by means of which he expressed the thought that was in him. One can hardly read the noble introductory chapter of the 'Prophètes d'Israël' without the feeling that it is a Hebrew prophet that is

speaking. He has been compared to Renan. The resemblance is not very unlike that between Erasmus and St. Paul. James Darmesteter was born in 1849, and after the most brilliant academic successes was made Doctor in Letters in 1877. He was a pupil of Bréal and of Bergaigne. In 1885 he was made professor at the Collège de France. In 1886 he was voyaging in Afghanistan, and acquired not only material for brilliant letters of travel, but also for his books on the 'Chants populaires des Afghans,' and on the 'Origines de la poésie persane.' In 1879 he published a poem in prose, 'La chute du Christ,' which was reprinted with an additional part and an epilogue in 1890. The 'Prophètes d'Israël' came out in 1892. He contributed largely also to the *Journal des Débats* and other French periodicals, and occasionally to the *Academy* in England and to the *Nation*. For the last year he has shared the direction of the *Revue de Paris* with M. Louis Ganderax, and has written repeatedly in it. It is proper also to mention that in 1888 he translated the English poems of Miss A. Mary F. Robinson, who, a little later, became his wife. All this, surely, is work enough to be the honor of a lifetime; but to those who have known James Darmesteter's work, his name, like that of his lamented brother Arsène, will always inspire the feeling of something unachieved in science, or literature, or moral and religious life, which would have been and which will never be.

## SPINOZA'S ETHIC.

*Ethic.* Translated from the Latin of Benedict de Spinoza by W. Hale Wright; translation revised by Amelia Hutchinson Stirling, M.A. (Edin.). Second edition, revised, with a new preface. Macmillan. 1894.

ALTHOUGH this purports to be only a second edition, yet as it has a new "preface" of over a hundred pages and the translation is improved and perfected, and as the book is immortal and ever fresh, our readers will be glad to have some account of the volume. Let us first lament that the work has to be translated at all. A scientific man may get along without German, a waiter in a restaurant without French, a traveller in the Levant without Italian, but a metaphysician without Latin never. Moreover, Spinoza's language is beautiful, and crammed with meaning that no version can convey. Then, too, a student of philosophy who does not know Latin cannot understand the older English writers, whose terminology is based on that of scholasticism—indeed, we may say he can have no accurate knowledge even of the less modern literary English. Needed, however, without doubt, however unhappily, the English version was; but we cannot help thinking that those who will read it would have been helped in mastering the thought if the original had been printed on the opposite pages. At the very least, the Latin of important phrases should have been added in parenthesis. For instance, the opening words are "By cause of itself, I understand," etc. Now, this expression, like many others of the treatise, is frequently quoted by philosophical writers, and almost invariably in the language of the original.

Spinoza, we need not say, is rated very high by all the idealist schools—that is to say, by all who go very deep into metaphysics; and he is without question one of the most, if not the most, difficult of such writers. His thought is so high and abstruse that nobody who has not reflected long and to good purpose can appreciate it. But that is not all, nor the worst of it. Paradoxical as it may seem, it may be maintained that none of the very great philosophers understand themselves. Crystal clearness, such as we justly require in mathematics, in law, in economics, is in philosophy the characteristic of the second-rates. The reason is that the strongest men are able to seize an all-important conception long before the progress of analysis has rendered it possible to free it from obscurities and difficulties. If Kant had waited, before he wrote the 'Critic of the Pure Reason,' until the ideas with which it chiefly deals had been accurately dissected, he might, had he lived, have been pottering over it to-day. But of Spinoza this is true in a much higher degree. Not only has he not mastered an altogether distinct apprehension of his own thought, but he has a positively mistaken view of it. He thinks that he reasons after the style of Euclid, and perhaps there is some truth in that; but he thinks that his reasoning has the form which Euclid understood his own to have, and that is a complete delusion. This apparatus of Definitions, Postulates, Axioms, Problems, and Theorems is in geometry itself merely a veil over the living thought. Hence it is that Euclid's manifold slips in logic have scarce cast a shadow of doubt over the substantial truth of his propositions. The history of mathematics justifies the presumption that just in proportion to the importance of a theorem is the demonstration of it likely to be fallacious—or, at least, it would be so were the proposition stated in the absolute style of Euclid. Thus, the fruitfulness of Cauchy's work is intimately connected with its logical inaccuracy. Dirichlet's principle, which powerfully aided the development of modern mathematics, is well known to be logically unsound; and much of the foundations of the theory of functions which has never been called in question—even, for example, the passage from one branch of a function to another—cannot sustain cross-examination.

Some mathematical results, doubtless, could have been worked out with Babbage's analytical engine; but did any body ever suppose that the subject could at all be really advanced by such a machine? Yet the current notion is that syllogistic reasoning is wholly mechanical, and that mathematics proceeds by syllogistic reasoning. Neither proposition is true. Even syllogistic reasoning in its higher varieties as they appear in the logic of relatives, requires a living act of choice based on discernment, beyond the powers of any conceivable machine; and this sufficiently refutes the idea that man is a mere mechanical automaton endowed with an idle consciousness. Moreover, the real procedure of mathematical thought is not merely syllogistic even in this loftier sense. Mathematical thought advances chiefly by generalization; and the generalized conclusions are made rigorously logical by the device of correspondingly generalizing the premises. But mathematical generalization is not the infantile process which the logic-books describe; for they think of no relations between individuals except those which consist in those individuals having common simple predicates. Let the predicates be relational, and generalization means organization, or the building up of an ideal system. Mathematical reasoning consists in thinking how things already remarked may be conceived as making a part of a hitherto unremarked system, especially by means of the introduction of the hypothesis of continuity where no continuity had hitherto been thought of.

It is difficult to find an illustration of these assertions suited to our columns, because it would need to embrace a whole sequence of theorems—such a sequence as mathematicians term a "theory." Nevertheless, we will essay it. Euclid, or rather pre-Euclidean geometers, easily saw that the three angles of a plane triangle added up, very nearly at least, to two right angles, while those of a triangle drawn on a level (and therefore spherical) surface were greater. The question therefore arose: Are they exactly 180° in the former case? They drew a triangle with a horizontal base and a higher vertex. From the left-hand angle they drew a line bisecting the opposite side, and then conceived this line to be doubled. They assumed that the right hand extremity of this doubled line would be higher than the base of the triangle. There was no logical proof of it. They knew it would not always be so upon a sphere. To assume it to be so was therefore to beg the very question at issue, namely, whether a triangle on a plane was like a triangle on a level (and therefore spherical) surface, or not. Syllogistically, it was illogical. Considered as mathematics, it was merely the ordinary procedure whereby something is added to the original hypothesis. Considered as physics, it was quite unjustifiable to assume that their idea of space corresponded precisely to the space of the real world.

Here is a better example: Boole discovered that if he simply assumed 1 to signify what is, and 0 what is not (and any other two numbers would have equally answered the purpose), he could without any further assumption express the premises of a syllogism as two equations from which, by ordinary algebraical rules, the conclusion could be deduced. This was a genuine, living thought, and as such is quite beyond the appreciation of seminary logicians. Its value consisted in its bringing the conceptions of being and nothing into relation with the system of numbers, and especially exhibiting them as the mere punctual terminations of the continuous quantity between them. This last part of the idea coincides with that of Hegel's Becoming, though this latter, besides its inconvenient lugging in of Time, is less useful as being less diagrammatic. However, Hegel's reasoning and Boole's were essentially the same, and this was nothing but an example of the ordinary mathematical proceeding. Boole's form of statement can easily be made a theorem, and can be furnished with a demonstration of the usual degree of irrefragability, or the reverse, as you will. But such demonstration completely overlooks all that there was of life and of value in the thinking.

All this is eminently pertinent to Spinoza. It is more than pertinent—it is indispensable to the comprehension of him. His 'Ethics' (which these translators call "ethic," following the ignorant corruption of *ethica* from a neuter plural to a feminine singular) is likewise drawn up in theorems, with demonstrations which have always furnished a laughing-stock to mathematicians. But you must penetrate beneath these if you would enter the living stream of Spinoza's thinking. You then find that he is engaged in a somewhat mathematical style in developing a conception of the absolute, strikingly analogous to the metrical absolute of the mathematicians. He thus appears as a mathematical thinker, not in the really futile, formal way in which he and his followers conceived him to be, but intrinsically, in a lofty, living, and valuable sense. But whether or not this ideal absolute which he brings us to conceive has anything at all in the

real world corresponding to it, is a problem which simple thinking cannot solve. That must be brought somehow to the bar of experience, or remain a pure ideal. Yet, even so, it would not do to assume the speculation to be useless; for one might by the same reason conclude mathematics useless, that being only the study of ideal constructions. Spinoza himself of course reposed in childlike faith in the objective truth of his ideas. The 'Ethics' was written in the midst of those discussions about the principles of dynamics which for many years occupied the attention of the whole learned world, and which were brought to a conclusion in Newton's 'Principia.'

Now these discussions related to matter of fact; and yet their method invariably was to develop the writer's instinctive notions. Thus, Galileo, seeing that a falling body evidently falls faster and faster, only stops a moment to show that there would be serious difficulties in the way of supposing the velocity to be proportional to the distance fallen from rest, and then at once adopts the correct idea that the incremental velocity is proportional to the time that increment occupied. Spinoza's reasoning is precisely of the same nature. But what he and all his school fail to remark is, that the conclusions of the students of mechanics are sure to be brought to the test of experiment in various ways and without any public remark, unless the experiments fail. It is just that quiet verification that makes all the difference in the world. A hypothesis of any kind has no positive support until it has predicted something capable of being observed and that prediction has been verified. Nevertheless, it must be conceded that as soon as they had learned to introduce the idea of continuity, a very considerable proportion of the instinctive ideas of students about forces turned out to be just, and the rest needed only slight correction.

Spinoza's ideas are eminently ideas to affect human conduct. If, in accordance with the recommendation of Jesus, we are to judge of ethical doctrines and of philosophy in general by its practical fruits, we cannot but consider Spinoza as a very weighty authority; for probably no writer of modern times has so much determined men towards an elevated mode of life. Although his doctrine contains many things which are distinctly unchristian, yet they are unchristian rather intellectually than practically. In part, at least, Spinozism is, after all, a special development of Christianity; and the practical upshot of it is decidedly more Christian than that of any current system of theology.

There are at least three good translations of the 'Ethics' into English—that of R. Willis, M.D., affixed to his interesting Life of Spinoza (Trübner, 1870); that of Daniel Drake Smith, published separately (Van Nostrand, 1876); and the present one, which originally appeared in Trübner's "English and Foreign Philosophical Library." The latest is distinctly the best of the three translations. None of them prints the Latin. The long "Preface" is occupied chiefly with an analysis of the development in Spinoza's mind of the doctrine of the 'Ethics' as shown in his earlier work, 'A Short Treatise upon God and Man's Well Being,' and in his correspondence. This is interesting and throws some light upon the doctrine itself. There is no really thorough book about Spinoza in our language, though there are several that contain much that is valuable, especially those of Frederick Pollock and of Caird. The best edition of his works is by Van Vloten and Land (The Hague, 1883). In regard to the relation of Spinoza to the philosophers who went before him, much has been done in special directions, one writer urging his indebtedness to Descartes, another that to scholasticism, a third that to the Jewish philosophy, a fourth that to Giordano Bruno. But no really good comprehensive view has ever been published; nor, singularly enough, has anybody remarked, as far as we are aware, the very obvious indebtedness of Spinoza to Hobbes, to whose wooden mechanicalism he was naturally inclined.

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*Domestic Manners of the Americans.* By Mrs. Trollope. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1894.

Of all books of travel that have appeared during the twelvemonth, this sixty-year old classic ought to be read with the greatest avidity by Americans, for it is history in its most taking form. The style is that of a bright, cultivated Englishwoman, with a "conscious incapacity for description," but with a very unusual capacity for it, nevertheless. She writes not from memory but from notes made on the spot, and with a manifest desire to be moderate and truthful. She oversteps her theme (*pace* Prof. Peck, who writes an introduction to this reprint); and whenever she does so to express her views of an established church, government by the few, the American Constitution, and our political institutions generally, she is less edifying if no less entertaining. By exception, on the subject of slavery, which might be classed either as domestic or political, she speaks admirably and without the least exaggeration. But in this, and in all other particulars save readability, she is (*pace* Mr. Peck again) inferior to her more powerful-minded successor, Miss Martineau, whose stay, though briefer, was vastly more profitable, if only because of the greater scope of her observation. Mrs. Trollope saw nothing of New England, and no place so long and so continuously as Cincinnati. She entered the country by the dreariest of back-doors, the mouth of the Mississippi, and made the ascent of that river by way of Memphis to the Ohio city, already a pork shambles. Her affairs did not prosper; she constantly encountered the anti-British spirit revived by the recent war of 1812, and intensified by the newly published work on America of Capt. Basil Hall; she contrasted the crudities, excesses, ill-breeding, discomforts of a frontier civilization with the polished society she had left behind her; she had some just cause for personal resentment, and she could not resist the temptation to hold up to the world (including the United States) the cant and conceit and thin-skinnedness of this people.

No wonder that she brought down upon herself the abuse heaped upon Capt. Hall. Yet nothing is clearer than that she would fain have praised. Compare her delight in Washington with Bacourt's loathing for it ten years later, and you perceive that she was helped to overlook its really shabby condition by her sense that the lines had been laid for a magnificent future metropolis. The self-satisfaction displayed in the secretary of state's office at the obvious superiority of a gold or silver box destined for Russia, with the American seal enclosed, to those received from our European allies, pleased her as foretokening a time when America would "give a fair portion of her attention to the arts and the graces that embellish life." She admits the beauty of our men and women, though she cannot admire their carriage or their gait or their motions in the dance. She raves over our flowers and our scenery. She draws the line at tobacco-chewing and spitting, shirt sleeves in court and at the theatre, heels on table or on the window-sill, vulgar familiarity towards all ranks, revival and camp-meeting religiosity, and so on. She reports both what she sees and what she is told, and as an observer few would now deny that she was honest and trustworthy. When she could not bring herself to discover a great actor in Forrest, and relates that she was advised not to "state it freely in America, 'for they would not bear it,'" we judge her veracity by the subsequent Astor Place riot against Macready. On the other hand, that she is not merely reserving her applause for her countrymen on the American stage will appear by comparing her appreciation of Mr. and Mrs. Alexander Drake at Cincinnati with that, equally laudatory, of the late E. D. Mansfield in his 'Personal Memories' (1879), from which work we will quote a passage on another subject (p. 187). He is speaking of a large party:

"There was no regular set supper-table. But, as was customary at that day, there were in the back rooms tables for gentlemen, covered with the most solid dishes of meat and game, while the waiters carried to the ladies the best of cakes and confections, with whatever else they desired. With them remained the young gentlemen, who had then even more gallantry than they have now in commending themselves to the graces of the ladies. But with the old, sedate, and unfashionable gentlemen the back room was the charm. There stood the tables, with ham and beef, and venison, turkey, and quail, with bottles of brandy and wine, and there were cards for those who wanted to kill time."

Here is Mrs. Trollope's more lively account of the same custom in the same city at the same date, reinforced with a lithographic picture suggested by her own pencil (i., p. 214):

"The arrangements for the supper were very singular, but eminently characteristic of the country. The gentlemen had a splendid entertainment spread for them in another large room of the hotel, while the poor ladies had each a plate put into their hands, as they pensively promenaded the ball room during their absence; and shortly afterwards servants appeared bearing trays of sweetmeats, cakes, and creams. The fair creatures then sat down on a row of chairs placed round the walls, and, each making a table of her knees, began eating her sweet but sad and sulky repast. The effect was extremely comic; their gala dresses and the decorated room forming a contrast the most unaccountable with their uncomfortable and forlorn condition.

"This arrangement was owing neither to economy nor want of a room large enough to accommodate the whole party, but purely because the gentlemen liked it better. This was the answer given me when my curiosity tempted me to ask why the ladies and gentlemen did not sup together. . . ."

The separation of the sexes struck our British critic very painfully. Again and again she refers to it as making domestic life dreary through the suppression of conversation. Her instances of false delicacy and prudery growing out of this are more incredible now than anything else in her narrative; and altogether we are helped to an understanding of the boldness of her transatlantic voyager, Frances Wright (Mr. Peck seems to know no more about this historic lady than what he finds in our author), in lecturing publicly to mixed audiences, and of the scandal caused by it, as later by the anti-slavery addresses of the Grimké sisters, and by the abolitionists ignoring sex in making up committees. This prudery was to be met with on both sides of Mason and Dixon's line, and Mrs. Trollope records a manifestation of it on the borders of the Potomac:

"I once saw," she says, "a young lady who, when seated at table between a male and a female, was induced by her modesty to intrude on the chair of her female neighbor to avoid

the indelicacy of touching the elbow of a *man*. I once saw this very [same] young lady lacing her stays with the most perfect composure before a negro footman."

She cites this as an example of the Southerners' "habitual indifference to the presence of their slaves," and adds another confirmatory anecdote:

"A Virginian gentleman told me that, ever since he had been married, he had been accustomed to have a negro girl sleep in the same chamber with himself and his wife. I asked for what purpose this nocturnal attendance was necessary? 'Good heaven!' was the reply, 'if I wanted a glass of water during the night, what would become of me?'"

A dog that would fetch and carry would evidently have been as little obtrusive in that chamber, and the theory of slavery of course classed the blacks with the lower animals. This theory survives to-day in the bizarre statutes making intermarriage between white and black Americans a penal offence—untempered in accordance with the shades introduced among the slaves themselves by the amalgamating practices of their former masters.

Matters like these are not touched upon in our histories, great or small. For this reason, and because Mrs. Trollope's reflections have still a salutary lesson for us, we can but be thankful to the publishers for enabling the present generation to learn by indirection something about the development of American manners and character in our dark ages. We have but one fault to find with them, and that is that they do not admonish the reader that the asterisks which occasionally separate paragraphs are found in the original edition of 1832, and do not indicate suppressions.

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*Glimpses of Unfamiliar Japan.* By Lafcadio Hearn. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1894.

THE author of these volumes is well known as the acute and sympathetic student of the varied races of the countries bordering the Mexican Gulf. His collection of "Gumbo" or mixed-dialect proverbs and descriptive sketches of the people of Louisiana and the West Indies, showed him to be the possessor of an exuberant, almost rank, vocabulary, and a literary style that suggested rather what burst forth from the wine-press than wine mellowed by time. His excursions into distant regions of thought resulted in interesting, but, on the whole, unsatisfactory, booklets, such as 'Stray Leaves from Strange Literature,' 'Some Chinese Ghosts,' etc. Fascinated by the comparatively new field of what may be called Shinto Japan, he entered the country about four years ago, resolved to see those phases of Japanese life which are fast vanishing away. Living among a people so simple in their tastes and habits as the rural Japanese, Mr. Hearn, who suggests the literary chameleon, has absorbed the form and color of his environment. One who has read his former writings cannot but be struck at once with the subdued coloring, the refined simplicity, which have now become his habit. The former rankness is no more. One who feasts upon his book on Japan does not need, as it were, so large a napkin to wipe his lips after enjoying the good things. Between a mango, or that kind of an orange which requires finger-bowls of liberal size, and the delicate "kid-glove orange" of Japan, which one can eat without soiling the finger-tips, there is the same suggestion of difference as between Mr. Hearn's former writings and those now before us.

In one respect these volumes, by their contribution of knowledge and philosophy, mark a distinct point of progress in our acquaintance, through books, with the Japanese. While the Americans, Brown and Hepburn, first, by grammar and lexicon, blazed the way through the Japanese language, and that splendid trio of English students, Satow, Aston, and Chamberlain, with the helpful reinforcement of Lowder, McClatchie, Mounsey, Hawes, Gubbins, and Bramsen, opened Japanese chronology, history, archæology, and literature to our view, and Miss Bird—a typical name amid a host of travellers—spied out the land and brought back reports, it may be said that the psychological study of the Japanese has been chiefly the work of the Americans Lyman, Lowell, and, last and best of all, Mr. Hearn.

One will find in these volumes descriptions of travel, wonderful accounts of famous temples and neighborhoods, charming stories of personal experience, and not a few pictures which, by their marvellous accuracy and sympathetic touch, recall the natural wonders of the sea-girt Islands of the Sun; but, beyond and above those things which the skilled traveller and literary artist transfers to his pages, Mr. Hearn has succeeded in photographing, as it were, the Japanese soul. There seems to be something in his own physical and intellectual make-up that renders him sensitive on all sides to what is peculiar in the Japanese character. In studying the paintings of Wirg man, La Farge, Wores, Parsons, and other artists who have seen or dreamed in Japan, one sees faithful transcripts or ideal conceptions of Japanese life. But no other artist, paint he in words or in pigments, has so thoroughly succeeded in catching and fixing those Japanese traits which are so elusive, yet so ingrained and innate. In illustration of our thesis, one need but read the profoundly philosophical paper entitled "The Japanese Smile." Somehow or other, the author has been able to divest himself alike of conventional garments and atmosphere, and to see through a nearly unrefracting and achromatic medium. It is difficult for most persons who have no quarrel with either Christianity or with civilization to do this; and it may possibly be that the author's voluntary separation from what we call civilization, and his openly professed and radical rejection of Christianity, may have given him powers which suggest those of an especially sensitive plate which photographs the invisible. Like the man who purposely goes down into a deep well, or looks up through the colossal factory chimney, Mr. Hearn seems to be able to read in the Japanese sky what the average man, blinded by the glare of light, cannot discover.

Of the twenty-seven sketches in his book, ten have appeared in American periodicals; the remainder, forming the bulk of the work, is new. His chapters, except two or three at the beginning, which record his first keen impressions of things familiar to the tourist who lands at Yokohama, reflect the aspects of life and thought in one of the least-known portions of Japan. Over the largest part of the area of the empire Buddhism rules, and not only the ordinary resident, but even the scholar and student dwelling in Eastern Japan or at the open ports, is very apt to suppose that what he sees around him is, in general, a copy of what prevails all over the archipelago. On the contrary, Mr. Hearn shows conclusively that in the southwestern part of the main island Buddhism, despite its nearly sixteen centuries' stay in Japan, has had comparatively little success, whether we judge its missionary triumph by the parable of the mustard seed or the parable of the leaven. The Kojiki, or book of ethnic traditions of the Japanese, shows that Idzumo was the centre of the second of the three great cycles of legend and tradition which the higher criticism applied to the Japanese "Bible" has made plain. This region illustrates especially the origins of those tribes that had already reached a comparatively high grade of civilization when the Yamato immigrants, out of whose polity grew the Mikado-system, appeared on the scene. In Idzumo and the surrounding regions are the sacred ancestral seats of those men, now worshipped as gods, whose long and sonorous names are more easy to read from the printed page than to pronounce in common conversation. These names, which Mr. Hearn courageously prints for us, seem to justify that time and breath-saving invention of the Chinese phonetic system, and make us cease to wonder why the terse Chinese vocabulary, after having long ago supplanted the long-winded Japanese terms, is still so popular in Japan. In this region the old Kami-no-Michi, or Way of the Gods, later called Shintō, still holds its own, apparently intractable to and incoercible by Buddhism; and here still survive the immemorial customs which are unknown or are vanishing elsewhere. To have described these so well, to have penetrated into their innermost meaning, and to have set forth his thoughts and reflections so fascinatingly, is a notable literary triumph. With many of Mr. Hearn's conclusions the more sober student who looks around the whole subject and takes in all the considerations will not agree; but even in disagreement he will be thankful for the patient observation, clear insight, and rhetorical skill of the author. The book has no illustrations, but there is a good index.

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*The Sounds and Inflexions of the Greek Dialects:* Ionic. By Herbert Weir Smyth. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1894.

THE great treatise of Ahrens on the Doric dialect was published in 1839, the treatise on the Aeolic dialect in 1843; but in the fifty-odd years that have elapsed since then there has been no attempt to match these famous works by a comprehensive manual of the Ionic dialect—that form of speech which served as the medium of communication between the sons of Javan and their eastern neighbors, which dominates the song of Homer, which adds a special charm to the limpid flow of Herodotus's "Setting Forth of Investigation." True, much has been written on the Homeric dialect; reputations have been made and lost on the slippery field of the language of Herodotus; something has been done here and there for the inscriptions; we have had an article or two on the sham Ionic of a later period; but it has been reserved for an American scholar, fitted for his arduous task by long years of special study as a dialectologist, to give the world a book on the Ionic dialect which, by fulness of detail, by command of the documents, by painstaking research, by acuteness and suggestiveness, deserves to rank with the most memorable achievements of the closing century in the domain of Greek studies.

There are naturally few who can judge the stately volume of nearly seven hundred pages in all its myriad statements of facts and in all its solutions of complicated problems; but no man who has any claim to be a Grecian is wholly unacquainted with the enormous difficulties

that beset such a task as Prof. Smyth has absolved to the lasting honor of American scholarship. Whatever errors criticism may discover in the vast array of statements, whatever objections may be raised to some of the conclusions reached, Prof. Smyth has laid the foundations on which future students must be content to build. There is no room for the faint praise, *magnis tamen excidit ausis*. The author has won the right to enter upon "the legacy of opportunity," as he calls the unfinished work of Ahrens. One would have thought that in all these years some German would have arisen to do the work, but the great drawback has been the imperfect state of the material—a drawback greater even than the lack of special investigations, of which also Prof. Smyth justly complains. Large masses of the grammatical treatises of the early century are nearly worthless because the results repose on untrustworthy texts; and though our school-books are still full of false citations and doctored passages, those who are not mere manufacturers of merchantable manuals, those who are true scholars, know how important it is to put every statement to the most severe test. And in respect to the Ionic dialect this is not always possible because so much of Ionic literature is still inadequately edited. Still, to wait until it had all been tried in the critical furnace would have been to postpone the task another fifty years; and it is evident that the publication of Prof. Smyth's work is well calculated to hasten the good time and bring the study nearer to ideal completeness.

For obvious reasons it is impossible to give in these columns an analysis of the more technical part of the work, the treatment of accent, of the vowel system, of the consonantal system, of the declensions and conjugations. These subjects make up the great bulk of the book, and, interesting and important as they are to scholars, withdraw themselves from consideration in a journal that is not technically philological. But preface and introduction present a number of points that are of salient interest, and of these some specimens may be given so as to relieve this notice of the charge of mere vague laudation.

In the preface, Prof. Smyth tells us that he has attempted to combine the philological and linguistic methods. The philological method "seeks to determine, on the basis of tradition, the forms proper to the dialect of each author, the place occupied by him in the history of the dialect, the interrelation of the various connected styles of literary composition, and the connection between the language of artistic construction and the language of the public and private documents preserved in the inscriptions." In treating the forms as purely linguistic phenomena, Prof. Smyth has made no systematic attempt to write a comparative grammar from the point of view of Ionic, or to trace the forms back to the pre-Hellenic stage. The comparison is made throughout with other dialects, especially Attic, and the restriction seems to be wise.

In the introduction, Prof. Smyth deals with the sources of the investigation and the geographical and chronological divisions of Ionic, its great home in Miletus, its dominant position in the early centuries of Greek literature. An important chapter is devoted to the Ionic element in the language of Homer, "that highly artificial product" which baffles the attempt to make "a definitive demarcation between [its] dialectal affinities," and which Prof. Smyth finally resigns himself to call "in greater or less degree an Aiolized Ionic," reserving his proof for a later volume. Another chapter is given up to the relation of Old Attic to Ionic, in which the view is maintained that Attic and Ionic are, with all their correspondences, essentially separate and individual dialects—a view which necessarily brings about a conflict with Mr. Rutherford's well-known theory as to the identity of Old Attic and Ionic. The Ionisms of tragedy are not survivals of the Old Attic speech. They are due to the Greek law of conservation that holds each department to the dialect in which it started, so that the Ionisms of tragedy have their source in the Ionisms of iambic poetry. The history of Herodotus, says Prof. Smyth, "was originally composed, not in the pure Milesian dialect as spoken in ordinary life by the Milesians of the fifth century, but in an ennobled form of the Milesian dialect, which, gradually perfected by the predecessors of Herodotus, had received under the hands of the historian an impress due to the peculiar virtue of his genius." As the narrative rises to epic heights Homeric strains are heard, just as, in English, Biblical reminiscences are possible wherever the theme ascends, and that without destroying the essentially modern character of the composition. The practical effect of this theory, if applied to the text of Herodotus, would be to "leave undisturbed the greater part of the dialect," the chief trouble being with the open form of the pure verbs, notably those in *-εω*, which postulates that the historian "deliberately resuscitated an entire system of inflection that had passed out of actual speech nearly a century before his time, an inflection which is not the inflection found in iambic and elegiac poetry." Of course, this seems very unnatural, but it may be remarked that in this whole domain the range of possibilities is very much widened by the study of what modern writers in dialect find perfectly feasible.

The uncritical character of the editions of Hippocrates bars a thorough examination of his dialect, but one point is emphasized, that the criterion of dialect does not enable us to detect traces of spuriousness, and that there is no considerable diminution of Ionism in the treatises which criticism has assigned to a later period. A curious chapter deals with the revival of the Ionic dialect under the Empire, a revival which became crass in the time of the Greek Renascence under Hadrian. This study of Ionism, leading now to the transposition of Ionic into Attic, now to the hyper-Ionizing of Ionic texts, was a serious disadvantage to the tradition of the Ionic of the fifth century B. C., with which we are most concerned.

These are only a few of the most important subjects handled in Prof. Smyth's introduction, but they may suffice to show the variety of his themes and the reach of his views. That Prof. Smyth does not always force conviction, that his minute knowledge and his fairness of mind do not allow him to dogmatize throughout, is a trouble that is inherent in the character of the work. To be cocksure of everything in the study of dialect would be to forfeit confidence in everything. What has been accomplished in this volume quickens our eagerness for those that are to follow, especially as the author has promised to enlarge on the artistic significance of dialect. And of this artistic significance, this spiritual meaning of the whole study, Prof. Smyth has given us glimpses here and there which show very plainly that erudition has not quelled in him, but only quickened, the appreciation of the beautiful.

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*The Voyage from Lisbon to India*, 1505-'6; Being an Account and Journal by Albericus Vespuccius. Translated from the contemporary Flemish and edited with prologue and notes by C. H. Coote. London: B. F. Stevens. 1894.

Not very long ago a little black-letter pictorial quarto in Flemish, which for nearly forty years had rested unnoticed in the British Museum, was brought to the attention of scholars in the belief that it chronicled a hitherto unknown voyage to the East Indies made by Vespucci. A little later another copy of the same tract, printed, like the other, at Antwerp in December, 1508 (or so purporting), was discovered in Holland, and by and by found a resting-place on the shelves of the Carter-Brown Library in Providence. The British Museum copy has now been reproduced in facsimile, with translation, comment, and annotation. The editing is combative in spirit, to enforce confidence in a narrative which traverses the notions usually entertained about the chronology of the life of the navigator. A curious tissue of assumptions is put forth as proofs, and the editor's want of caution is apparent before he gets to his subject. He asserts, for instance, in his opening paragraphs, that only two copies of the tract are "extant." His proof is that only two are *known* to be extant. He then alleges, because of the watermarks, that the British Museum copy is "a genuine specimen of the Antwerp press of the first decade of the sixteenth century." His evidence proves the paper and not the printing to be of that age—an important defect when the authenticity of the book has been called in question.

The whole case for Vespuccius depends on this sentence, as translated by the editor: "My friend Lorenzo: I, Albericus, did write to you aforetime about my voyages to the new lands in general; now I am writing to you a true account thereof from point to point." Upon this it is assumed that the Lorenzo indicated is the Lorenzo di Pier Francisco de' Medici, and the Albericus, the Vespucci of another well-known correspondence relating to American voyages. The editor's inference may be true, but by no law of evidence is coincidence the same as identity.

The narrative gives the date of 1500 for the voyage, and it is assumed that this is an error for 1505. This change is warranted, in the editor's opinion, because he "was unable to square it with any of the known letters of Vespucci, or any of the early voyages to India of the Portuguese, which cover this period." This means that the editor preferred to make the narrative "square" with the known voyage of Almeida in 1505-6, rather than combat the evidence against the unchanged date of 1500. His proof of the validity of his change of date is that certain incidents in recognized accounts of Almeida's voyage correspond to passages in the new text; and he has no hesitancy in accepting this as evidence when he is dealing with the narrative of a man who, in his own day and since, has been notorious, to use the editor's own language, for "raising perplexing questions of uncertain chronology."

To meet the inevitable answer, that accepted statements prove an alibi for Vespucci at the time of this alleged voyage of 1505-6, he asserts that "adverse *facts* and dates" are nothing to him, since it is no object of his "to reconcile all the well-known chronological difficulties of the Vespucci question." One wonders, then, why the editing of this narrative was not left to some one who recognized the proper function of an annotator of a disputed narrative. What Mr. Coote conceives

to be "the only reasonable and tenable position" for such an editor is to avoid the issue. This position is taken on the rather singular ground that if the 'Cosmographiæ Introductio' and other printed books of the time prove an alibi for Vespucci, they are no better authorities than the new narrative. Accordingly, he prefers to believe the new view rather than to test its authenticity. Suppose the statement of the equal value of this resuscitated text be true—and we have no disposition to dispute it—it leaves the other evidence still in the way, and does nothing to establish a reconcilement of conflicting views. The counter-evidence, which the editor thus cavalierly neglects, is such as to induce Mr. Markham, in a recent volume published by the Hakluyt Society, to pronounce the unearthed tract to be "spurious" and a "fabrication." This distinguished authority believes that an alibi for Vespucci is proved whether the date is put at 1500–1 or 1505–6. It may be that statements counter to the editor's belief are false—as much of the tale-telling of Vespuccius is easily shown to be—but the question of their truth or untruth is not answered by declining to consider it.

The editor is once again amusingly inconsequential when he comes to speak of the Portuguese origin of a portion of the Ruysch map of 1508, because two names which it bears on the coasts of Africa and Asia correspond to names in the new text. This causes the assumption that the map in these eastern regions is "undoubtedly Vespuccian," ruling out all possibility of a prototype of both Ruysch and the new text. He, however, shows for once an unwonted reservation of belief when he says that a map seen by the editor of the 1508 Ptolemy was "probably" no other than one made by Vespucci.

Mr. Coote sums up thus:

"Future researches in early sixteenth-century bibliography and among MSS. may possibly bring to light new evidence respecting the text of our voyage. In the meantime, we venture to affirm that henceforth no recognized authority on Vespucci's writings will have the courage to eliminate from the Vespuccian canon this long lost specimen of the Antwerp press of 1508.

We confess to a suspicion that it requires still more courage, if not hardihood, to face the probability of an overthrow of such hazardous deductions as our editor makes. We may add, in conclusion, that it is rather curious, if not instructive, that the early detractors of Vespucci did not score him for this narrative as they did for others. Was it that these contemporaries never heard of this bantling of the Flemish press, or that for once they recognized that Vespucci told the truth?

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*Wealth against Commonwealth.* By Henry Demarest Lloyd. Harper & Bros. 1894.

THIS book is a notable example of the rhetorical blunder of over-statement. It was clearly established in 1879, by the investigation of the committee of the New York Assembly known as the Hepburn committee, that agreements had been made between the Standard Oil Company and some of the trunk lines of railway which explicitly provided that the oil company should obtain transportation at less rates than any of its competitors. Other agreements of equally unjust and illegal character were disclosed by this investigation and by subsequent ones, and a temperate and judicial statement of the evidence would have constituted a most damaging indictment. But instead of this, we have over 500 octavo pages of the wildest rant. Much learning of the Standard Oil Company has made Mr. Lloyd mad. He raves more coherently at some times than at others; but he is never perfectly sane. Even in his lucid intervals it is evident that some deep disturbing thought is at work in his brain, and that the very mention of oil will bring on an explosion. He sees the emissaries of the Standard Company lurking behind every bush. He declares, and evidently believes, that the managers of this concern have seduced or imposed upon the Czar of Russia and have influenced the action of the British Parliament. They have nearly compassed the monopoly of the light-producing substances of this globe, and we doubt if Mr. Lloyd feels that the human race is altogether secure in the possession of sunlight.

In the consummation of this monopoly no arts have been too base, no methods too criminal, for the Standard Oil Company. Their iniquitous contracts with the railroads have been already referred to, but these are only a part of a gigantic scheme of oppression and extermination. It is a policy of "Thorough." No rival in the production of refined oil is to be permitted to exist. If tribute is paid, refiners who are not members of the company may be allowed to carry on business; but if they persist in asserting their independence, they are to be ruined. If they cannot be ruined by unfair freight charges, or by reducing prices, their employees are corrupted and seduced; and if all other measures fail, their factories are set on fire or blown up. In the pursuit of their infamous ends, the Standard Oil magnates have exhibited the most diabolical malignity and the most infernal persistency. Our Legislatures and our Congress are controlled or baffled, our judges are corrupted or imposed upon, our newspapers are bought. Occasionally some oil-producers or refiners have combined to oppose this frightful despotism, but these combinations have failed. When they have not been broken down by competition, they have been broken up by treachery; for the Standard Oil Company appears to have found that the leaders in these patriotic uprisings are not all of austere integrity.

If we examine the particulars of the case presented by Mr. Lloyd, we find a number of them to be supported by questionable evidence. It is in the first place a very suspicious circumstance that Mr. Lloyd never mentions the names of the individuals whose conduct he denounces. Some of them he enables us to identify by his insinuations, but this indirect method of attack arouses our distrust. We find ourselves wondering if Mr. Lloyd stands in fear of the penalties for libel, for it is hard to understand why, if he does not, he should have abstained from the use of a most formidable weapon. It is easy and it is idle to denounce a corporation; but if a wrongful act has been committed, it must have been committed by human beings, and to suppress their names is to make condemnation ineffective. In the second place, Mr. Lloyd calls witnesses without discrimination. Some of them are crack-brained, by his own admission. Some of them testify that they were bribed to commit arson and other crimes by the mysterious leaders of the Standard Oil Company. A dog would not be hung upon such evidence. Nor can Mr. Lloyd's citations of the testimony of reputable witnesses be allowed much weight, for he is so bitter in his advocacy that it would be grossly unfair to pass judgment upon his ex-parte statement. It would be like deciding a case after hearing only the address to the jury of the plaintiff's attorney.

Upon the whole, Mr. Lloyd's book is eminently calculated to arouse incredulity in the mind of any reader who understands the nature of evidence. Were we not satisfied from evidence *aliunde* that the managers of the Standard Oil Company had violated both law and justice in their attempts to suppress competition, we should be inclined to acquit them after reading this screed. It is quite beyond belief that these men should be capable of the height and depth of wickedness attributed to them, even if they possessed the superhuman powers with which they are credited. It is plain upon Mr. Lloyd's showing that their competitors would be no better than they if they had similar opportunities, and it is impossible to arouse sympathy for men whose complaint is that they were not allowed to make enormous profits; for it appears to have been the policy of the Standard Company to buy out its rivals at reasonable rates.

It naturally occurs to the reader, as he sees it maintained that the people are absolutely at the mercy of this great monopoly, that it will be difficult to devise a remedy. If the people cannot choose legislators and judges who are incorruptible, it seems that there is no resource left. Socialism, however, Mr. Lloyd avers, will cure our ills, and he draws a comparison between the horrors of the present competitive régime and the beauties of the future Altruria. We do not find Mr. Lloyd's ideal attractive. He appears to us to exhibit in his writing such indifference to truth, such incoherency of thought, such intemperance of speech, and such violence of passion, as to make him an undesirable leader. If reform can be had only through such reformers, it is better to endure our present ills. As to the Standard Oil Company, its history remains to be written, and the economic situation which it indicates remains to be described. No episode in economic history better deserves treatment by a competent investigator, and no situation more requires calm and dispassionate consideration.

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Arrowsmith, Prof. Robert, and Whicher, G. M. First Latin Readings. American Book Co. $1.25.

Austen, Jane. Pride and Prejudice. Illustrations by Hugh Thomson. New York: Macmillan; Boston: George Allen. $2.25.

Bikélas, Demetrios. Tales from the Ægean. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.

Bird, H. E. Seinitz and Lasker Match, with Comments, Review and Original Notes. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan. 35 cents.

Biscuits and Dried Beef: A Panacea. Milwaukee: *Young Churchman* Co.

Bradshaw, John. A Concordance to the Poetical Works of John Milton. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $4.

Browning, Robert. Asolando. [Vol. XVII of Poetical Works.] Macmillan. $1.50.

Burroughs, John. Riverby. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.

Butterworth, Ezekiah. The Patriot Schoolmaster. Illustrated. Appletons. $1.50.

Cheiro's Language of the Hand. New York, 432 Fifth Avenue: The Author. $2.

Children of Circumstance. By Iota. Appletons.

Cleveland, Helen M. The Beginners' Readers. 3 vols. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. Each 10 cents.

Codman, J. T. Brook Farm: Historic and Personal Memoirs. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. $2.

Complete Poetical Works of J. G. Whittier. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.

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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER* 15, 1894.

## The Week.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND gave a characteristic exhibition of the courageous plain-speaking which has been the chief cause of his popularity, at Philadelphia on Monday, when he took occasion, at the launching of the new steamship of the American Line, to make a vigorous attack upon our absurd navigation laws. The great steamship about which all the newspapers are hurrahing would never have been built had not those laws been modified. The President reminded his hearers of that fact, and advised them to couple their rejoicings over the great event with a determination to do away with the laws entirely, and thus "set free American mechanical industry and excite American enterprise." We commend to all disciples of good Americanism the following passage from his speech:

> "I am not able to see why Americans owning ships, navigated by Americans and carrying American cargoes, should in any case be driven to the protection of a foreign flag; and it seems to me that the stars and stripes entering a port of the United States and spread over Americans and American property should never be frowned upon and repelled by American officials acting under the mandate of our navigation laws. In the interest of a revival of American commerce, so much needed, and for the honor of our flag, so dear to us all, I am willing that the defence of our Government and flag shall be accorded to all ships of American ownership, wherever built. Make our flag a more familiar sight in the ocean-carrying trade, and thus remind our citizens that a large share of the carrying trade of the world is due them, and we need have no fear that our shipbuilders, under laws giving them a fair chance, will suffer from foreign competition."

This heretical deliverance seems to have been well received in the very innermost sanctuary of protection. The Philadelphia *Ledger* praises the President's courage, and the Philadelphia *Press* says that his speech was "in the main judicious and appropriate," though "in one or two sentences he furtively and guardedly suggested his peculiar view of the pathway to enlarged commerce." It would be interesting to know what the *Press* would regard as an open and unguarded suggestion of that view.

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The overwhelming defeat of Hill is the political death and burial of the worst man in American politics. His ghost will flit in and out of the Senate for the next two years, but his power for mischief is ended. For the first time in his career, he stood solely upon his own character and record, and secured a verdict from the people which was not complicated with any other issue. He first came into prominence in 1882, swept into the Lieutenant-Governorship, as Cleveland's associate, by a "tidal wave" which he had done nothing to create. He secured his first election as Governor in 1885 through the refusal of the Blaine Republicans to support his opponent and so let a Republican carry the State which their favorite had lost. At his second election as Governor, in 1888, he was able to trade a presidency for a governorship, and also to mass the Republican as well as the Democratic liquor vote on his side through Warner Miller's championship of high-license. Fortune again came to his rescue in 1890, when the political revolution precipitated by Reed and McKinley enabled the Democrats of New York to carry the Legislature for the first time in eight years and send him to the Senate. This year, for the first time in his experience, he neither was helped by Republican treachery, nor had anything to trade, nor could float on a Democratic tide strong enough to carry everything before it. David B. Hill himself was the sole issue, and he is beaten by a majority so overwhelming that he may be dismissed from further consideration as a leader.

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Having overwhelmed Democratic rascals and bosses, the Republicans now have on their hands the job, just as imperative and even harder, of attending to their own rascals and bosses. It was inevitable, but it is none the less ominous, that the offensive and repudiated Republican bosses and intriguers of other days should now step promptly to the front. Keifer is out for the Ohio governorship, and Davis has already opened headquarters in Chicago to make a fight for the Illinois senatorship. Worst of all is the way Republican legislators and candidates for office in this State are hastening to prostrate themselves by the score at the feet of Boss Platt. He has begun to give out interviews with himself, in which he assumes that Mayor-elect Strong and Governor-elect Morton are to be simply his disbursing agents in the matter of patronage. Those gentlemen and the party must quickly decide whether they will themselves shake off this man, who is so coolly preparing to mount and ride them, or will leave it for outraged voters, two years hence, to strike down a Republican boss and corrupt ring, as they have this year brought low a Democratic boss and corrupt ring. It is a great piece of luck that the *Tribune* is now against Platt.

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When the Legislature assembled last January, Platt was a "power," because Tammany was willing to pay him almost any price if he would prevent the Legislature from instigating a thoroughgoing investigation of Tammany government. He did his utmost to prevent any investigation whatever, but public clamor became so imperious that he was obliged to "pander" to it so far as to allow an inquiry into the Police Department to be started. He tried to make this as harmless to Tammany as possible by putting a Rochester lawyer in charge of it, and it was quite harmless until Mr. Goff appeared in the court-room and took matters into his own hands. Even after the investigation had become serious, he still refused to allow it to be made general, the resolution as finally extended forbidding any inquiry outside departments connected with the police.

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Tammany rewarded Platt for this service in time of great distress by giving him two "places" on the Police Board. It will be remembered that he kept those places open by preventing the Legislature from passing a single-headed police bill. In his opposition to that bill, Platt had the zealous aid of the *Tribune*, but he was dastardly enough, after he had got his two Republicans appointed to the Police Board by Mayor Gilroy, to turn about and order them to take away from the *Tribune* the $20,000 "plum" of election advertising and give it to the *Press*. His use of the Legislature was extremely valuable to Croker, for if there had been a sweeping investigation ordered, Croker might have been involved, with other suddenly rich Tammany chiefs, and might have had to take the stand to explain where he got his money. If that had happened, Croker might not now be in a position to be talking complacently with newspaper reporters about the cause of the Tammany defeat. Of course Platt sacrificed his party's character and prospects when he made this bargain with Tammany, but that is the kind of politics he most delights to practise. If he could have had his way entirely, the revelations which Mr. Goff has made would never have been permitted. Instead of destroying Tammany, he would have spared it for "dealing" purposes. He has been overruled in this, and his occupation is completely gone. Sending out interviews with himself to the press for publication will not restore his lost power, neither will it save his two members of the Police Board. They must "go," with the regular Tammany incumbents.

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We are glad that the Committee of Seventy is going to maintain its organization and continue its work until the municipal service is rid of all the Tammany unspeakables. The plan of action agreed upon by the Committee is an admirable one. It simply constitutes that body a vigilance committee to coöperate with the new mayor in securing good government for the city, in removing from office and punishing such public servants as have proved inefficient and unfaithful, and in framing and securing the passage by

the Legislature of such laws as will establish good government on a lasting foundation. Coöperation of this kind will be of great service to the mayor, giving him not merely advice and aid, but moral support against "influence" and "pressure" of the kind which is always exerted for partisan purposes and against the public interest. Mayor Strong's great work is to enable the people of the city to take their municipal government into their own hands, and it is both fitting and necessary that in this task he should have the aid of those representatives of the people through whose efforts he was elected to office. There is an enormous mass of work to be done, and no man has the strength to do it all alone. Tammany incompetents and rascals swarm in all branches of the city service, and to root them all out is a job of such herculean proportions that the decent people of the city should combine for its accomplishment.

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The commanding position of the watchers in the service of the Good Government clubs, and the behavior of the police, were two significant phases of the recent election in this city. A year ago, anti-Tammany watchers were annoyed and ill-treated in every way, and found their worst discouragement in the very officers who were detailed to the polls ostensibly to enforce order and fair play. On November 6 all was changed, and election day, beginning with a fairer registration than usual, saw a more carefully scrutinized vote and count than ever before. The disposition to cheat and to intimidate was not absent; but in place of a universal zeal for cheating, insolently or jocularly as it pleased the inspector's humor, but always openly, there remained only a certain exercise of low cunning, and of the intimidation which black looks and bad language can effect. Neither weapon availed much against the admirably organized corps of watchers of the Good Government clubs, whose familiarity with the complicated provisions of the ballot act made them more than a match for any district tout; and whose dignified assertion of their rights (which their pocket-manual always enabled them to reinforce with legal authority), quiet manners, tact, and good humor, completely prevailed over the ignorant and profane politicians who tried to overawe them. In many instances the inspectors, appreciating their fairness and better information, even appealed to them to solve difficult questions, or to assist them in making up the tedious and complicated count.

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The transformation of the police was no less striking. In the old days the officer in charge of a polling-place was *ex officio* the head devil of all. It was he who shouldered out the too inquisitive watcher, or "ran him in" if necessary; and who, even if he committed no overt act against him, was sure to repel, with every implication of menace, an appeal to enforce the law. On November 6, however, the returning watchers came in to headquarters, each reporting, as a matter of surprising fortune, the civility, efficiency, and impartiality of the patrolmen at his polling-place; each still more astonished to learn that this had been the uniform attitude during the day of the police throughout the city. Indeed, their behavior was so uniformly excellent that one must go further than the superintendent's orders to account for it, and must regard it as an evidence of the eagerness with which the rank and file of the force welcomed the chance to show that they felt and resented the disgrace brought upon them all, even to the manliest of them, by their blackmailing superiors.

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The adoption of the new Constitution gives this State at one stroke so long a list of beneficent reforms that such good fortune seems incredible. The greatest single gain is the separation of municipal from State elections, so that, beginning with 1896, State officials will be chosen in the even-numbered years and city officials in the odd-numbered years. Most important also is the prohibition of pool-selling, book-making, and other forms of gambling, as well as lotteries. Another section of the first consequence is that which prohibits the use of public money in aid of sectarian schools. Radical changes are made in the judicial system, designed to effect the more prompt and certain administration of the laws. The long-standing abuse of the naturalization laws is abolished by a requirement that an alien must be a citizen for ninety days before voting, instead of ten, which will effectually stop the rush for papers just before election. Not only is the issue of passes and franks by railroad, telegraph, or telephone companies to public officers forbidden, but the offending official "shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall forfeit his office at the suit of the attorney-general." Other reforms include the requirement that civil-service reform principles shall be followed, the prohibition of "riders" on appropriation bills, and the requirement that legislative bills shall be printed for three days before passage; the preservation of the State forests; the abolition of the old rule that no more than $5,000 damages shall be recoverable in case of death by accident; besides many minor changes of advantage. To offset these numerous and great gains is the provision forbidding contract labor in prison, which does not go into effect until 1897, and which public sentiment must be educated to get out of the Constitution.

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The vote on the constitutional amendments, as is always the case, fell far short of the vote for State officers. The proportion of men who expressed themselves either way was small in this city, where not only did many ignorant voters refuse to use such ballots, but the number of ballots to be handled was swollen by the submission of the consolidation and rapid-transit questions. Apparently there were only about half as many votes here on the amendments as for Governor. There are curious variations throughout the state. Franklin County, for example, cast 7,610 votes for Governor, but only 2,863—or little more than a third as many—on the new Constitution. Saratoga County, on the other hand, cast 13,017 votes on Governor, and 9,119—or more than two-thirds the number—on one of the constitutional questions. As a rule, the Democrats in the interior seem to have voted more generally against all of the propositions than the Republicans for them, and not one would have been carried except for the tremendous Republican majority.

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The defeat of Chairman Wilson in the recent election is another example of the irony of fate, of which political life has so many examples. He is one of the few men in public life who have always commanded the respect of political opponents. and not seldom their sympathy as well. His career has been marked in the highest degree by zeal for the public welfare, in promoting which he has always used fair means. Nobody can say that he has ever struck a foul blow, or taken an unfair advantage, or used his position to wrong an adversary. Added to high moral qualities everybody acknowledges that he brought to the work which fell to his lot in Congress consummate ability and an industry which never flagged while his health lasted. Probably a retirement from Congress for a period will be beneficial to him by giving him opportunity for physical recuperation, which he could not otherwise gain. It would be a misfortune to the country if such a man were to be permanently removed from public life. He is another illustration of the injury inflicted on the State by compelling representatives to reside in the district.

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It is but just to say that the Republicans have accepted their great victory in an excellent spirit. Some of the little fellows bark away, of course, about the instant restoration of McKinley duties, and there is some talk about the protectionist champion's being the "logical candidate" in 1896; but, for the most part, the Republican interpretation of the elections is that they gave a verdict in favor of good government and strict party responsibility, and against machine politics, whether in city, State, or nation. There is no great eagerness for the meeting of the new Congress, as there would be if it were thought possible or wise for it to do anything in particular with the tariff. In fact, the shrewder Republican leaders are displaying no little equanimity over the fact that they will not have to formulate any policy for more than a year. The vicissitudes of the past six years have taught them to walk softly

before the people, and not to run before they are sent. Republican leadership and party discipline appeared to great advantage in 1889-90, in everything except making an egregious mistake as to what the country wanted or would stand. That leadership and discipline will doubtless prove as effective in the next Congress, and, unless the bitter fruits of experience have been tasted in vain, far wiser, far more sensitive to public opinion.

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Small politicians and petty political tricks look smaller than ever when caught in front of such monumental political demonstrations as that of Tuesday week. Think of Secretary Carlisle applying his giant intellect for four weeks to the question of Mr. Morton's coachman, in the hope of making a vote or two for Hill, and then imagine him getting word of Morton's 157,000 plurality! Think of Mr. Grace and Mr. Coudert turning such exceedingly sharp corners in order to be "regular Democrats," and then finding out that they were simply identifying themselves with the regularly smashed. Burke said that such "little arts and devices" were not to be wholly condemned, on the ground that "they diffuse occasional gayety over the severe brow of moral freedom." This is the only consolation we can offer so merry a wit as Mr. Coudert. The extraordinary amount of occasional gayety he now encounters will go far to make up for the severe brows he saw on all sides before the election.

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The Republican newspapers of Kansas are entirely frank in saying that the victory of their party in that State does not mean an endorsement of McKinleyism. "It was not the silver question, nor tariff," says the Topeka *Capital*, "that won the election for the Republicans. It was the imbecile, corrupt, and dangerous State administration of L. D. Lewelling." The *Capital* makes an interesting review of the Populist movement in Kansas, which it says "was epidemic in character and partook more or less of dementia." Men who had always been sensible citizens lost the convictions of a lifetime as to the proper functions and powers of the Government, and accepted "the socialistic idea that it was a part of the duty of the Government to provide the citizen a home and pay his debts by manufacturing an irredeemable currency and loaning it to the citizen." It was the dream of "cheap" money at 1 or 2 per cent. interest which, in the *Capital's* opinion, has kept the Populist party alive longer than such rattle-brained organizations usually live, but it seems at last to be thoroughly done for.

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The recovery of Wisconsin by the Republicans ends one of the most curious episodes in our politics. The State is normally Republican, but the Democrats carried it in 1890 and 1892, not only choosing the Governor in each year and Presidential electors in the latter, but also securing both of the United States Senators; and all this not on any national issue between the parties, but by virtue of a local question which was needlessly raised. It was the passage of the "Bennett law" which precipitated the overturn of 1890, and it was the residuum of this force which retained the State in the Democratic column two years later. The law was designed only to secure the teaching of English in all public schools, but it was so framed that it enabled the Democrats to arouse the hostility of the large Lutheran element, which had been almost solidly Republican, against their old party as responsible for what was declared to be an attempt to interfere with their control of the education of their children. As the Democrats had made no opposition in the Legislature to the passage of the law, which indeed attracted but little attention at the time, there was much demagogism in their subsequent course, but it proved effectual. The most aggravating feature of the business to the Republicans is the fact that the whole "fuss" over the school issue was utterly unnecessary. The obnoxious law was subsequently repealed with their consent, and nobody now pretends that there is the slightest danger that the English language cannot predominate without the help of any statute.

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The Atlanta *Constitution* says now that it objects to the Baltimore plan of currency reform because it makes the Government responsible for the banknotes. Its first objection was that the notes would not be as safe as Government notes. We pointed out that the Government's guarantee added to the bank's guarantee ought to make them better rather than worse than greenbacks. The *Constitution* now says:

> "The Government of the United States has no more business to lend its credit to the bankers than it had to lend its credit to the farmers. The bank scheme is as populistic as the subtreasury scheme, and both are undemocratic and dangerous."

That has a very plausible sound, but there is no substance in it whatever. When the national banking system was founded, the framers of the law said: "The first requisite of a perfect currency system is perfect confidence in the notes. We will give this perfect confidence by means of a Government guarantee, and then we will take steps so that the Government shall never lose anything by it." That is the law now. The Government does not undertake merely to apply the proceeds of the security bonds to the redemption of the notes of a failed bank. It redeems them on presentation. In a conceivable case the bonds might not sell for the full amount of the outstanding notes. Nevertheless the Government's promise to redeem them has been given, and is just as sacred as its promise to redeem greenbacks.

As regards the new loan of $50,000,000, all good citizens will sustain the efforts of the public authorities to uphold the public credit. The blame (if there be any) rests on Congress for withholding suitable and necessary powers from the Treasury Department. We hope that the Sherman amendment, or something like it, may be enacted at the coming short session. If it is not done, then whenever, in the opinion of the executive, the gold reserve is too low, there will be a ten-year loan, and the interest on it will be equal to one-half of the principal, and there will be no way to escape the interest charge except by buying back the bonds in the open market at such premium as the holders may require. This, of course, would be a losing game, yet it was much practised during the decade 1880-1890 in buying up the 4½ and 4 per cents, there being no other way to dispose of the Government's surplus. There are about $25,000,000 of extended 2 per cents outstanding which are redeemable at any time. They sell at about 95 in the market. When the Treasury again has a surplus of income, as it probably will have next year, it will probably find these the most available securities to extinguish; but its situation then will be like that of a man borrowing money at 3 per cent. in order to pay a debt which is drawing only 2 per cent. The Pacific railroad 6's mature at irregular periods up to 1899. These amount to $64,623,512 in the aggregate, and will furnish an outlet for that amount of surplus revenue, unless the railroads themselves furnish the money.

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The capture of Port Arthur by the Japanese promises the speedy close of the war. It is more important, however, as a sign of the inability of the Chinese to fight than as the loss of a great fortress and arsenal. If there was any power of resistance left in them, they would have displayed it in defending this stronghold. In fact, the success of the Japanese shows that China is at the mercy of any conqueror who chooses to invade her, and that the oldest political organization in the world is on the point of breaking up. It probably owes its long duration to its isolation. The changed condition of modern society to which the Japanese have adapted themselves in a wonderful way, finds the Chinese unready and incapable, and the result will probably be now the commencement of the process of partition through which so much of the old Oriental world has passed into Western hands. India has gone to England, Central Asia to Russia, Persia exists only in name, and Turkey is kept alive by the jealousy of the great Powers. China has led a precarious existence for years, owing to the enormous number of European and Western speculators who want to "develop her resources," and they will get at her eventually; but nobody supposed that Japan would put in the entering wedge.

*PARTIES DEFEATING THEMSELVES.*

We have now had in succession two national elections in which first one party and then the other was defeated by a tremendous majority. In 1892 the Republicans, although in possession of the Administration, secured only 145, or less than one-third, of the 444 electoral votes for President; and but 127, or barely more than one-third, of the 356 members of the House of Representatives. In 1894 the Democrats, although in possession of the Administration, have elected only about 100, or less than one-third of the House.

The most significant thing about these extraordinary results is the fact that in each election it was the doings of the party in power which defeated it, through the refusal of its members to go to the polls and continue it in power. What elected Cleveland in 1892 was not the fact that former Republicans in great numbers went to his support, but that they would not sustain Harrison. What has given the Republicans this week more than two-thirds of the next House, instead of barely one-third, is not a great rush of Democrats to the Republican side, but their refusal to vote for Democratic candidates.

When the returns of the last Presidential election came to be analyzed, it was found that, for the first time in the history of the Republican party, both in important States and in the whole country, it had, despite the increase of population, lost heavily as compared with the election four years before, while the Democratic remained almost stationary. Harrison's own State had polled 232,164 Republican votes in 1880, 238,463 in 1884, and 263,361 in 1888, but it returned only 255,615 in 1892; while Cleveland had 261,013 in 1888 and 262,740 in 1892—giving him the State in the latter year by 7,125 plurality on substantially the same vote as had lost it to him by 2,348 in 1888. New York gave the Republican candidate 555,544 votes in 1880, 562,005 in 1884, and 650,338 in 1888, but only 609,350 in 1892, while Cleveland, with no larger increase of the Democratic vote than from 635,965 to 654,868, was transformed from a loser by 14,373 plurality to a winner by 45,518. Ohio gave Garfield 375,048 votes, Blaine 400,082, and Harrison at his first election 416,054, but for reëlection only 405,187, while Cleveland, polling 396,455 in 1888, was beaten by 19,599, and in 1892, with an increase of his vote to only 404,115, came within 1,073 of carrying the State. Republican losses were far heavier in States further West, so that in the whole country Harrison's vote sank from 5,440,708 to 5,175,202, while Cleveland's rose only from 5,536,242 to 5,554,226.

It was not more Democrats at the polls that gave Cleveland his great majorities in 1892 as compared with 1888, but fewer Republicans. In like manner it is already clear that what has given the Republicans a two-thirds majority in the next House is not any swelling of the Republican vote, but only the shrinking of the Democratic vote. Leaving out of consideration New York, with its exceptional conditions arising from the Democratic revolt against Hill and Tammany, take Massachusetts and Ohio as States fairly typical of public sentiment on the seaboard and in the interior. Lacking the few votes of one small fishing town, the total for the former State in the last two elections is as follows:

| | Rep. | Dem. | Rep. majority. |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1893 | 192,613 | 156,916 | 35,697 |
| 1894 | 188,101 | 123,940 | 64,161 |

The Republican majority has been increased almost 30,000, but the Republican vote on November 6 was about 4,500 short of last year's. In other words, the Republican gains are entirely due to Democratic absentees. The Ohio returns are not yet complete, but the Columbus correspondent of the New York *Tribune* estimates that the Republican vote was at least 30,000 smaller than last year, so that the increase of more than 50,000 in the Republican majority is due to the fact that a far greater number of Democrats—probably 80,000—would not go to the polls. The same state of things existed in the strongly Democratic State of Missouri. The defeat of "Silver-Dollar" Bland was caused, not by recruits to the Republican army, but by deserters from the Democratic—1,000 such in the one county of Callaway, polling 3,620 for Cleveland in 1892.

It is thus clear that last week, as two years ago last week, the party in power defeated itself by behavior which its own voters would not endorse. The Republicans carried the country in 1888 by promising a fair revision of the tariff in the interest of protection. Instead they gave the country McKinleyism. The result was that Republicans by tens of thousands who had voted for Harrison in 1888 would not vote for him, and did not vote for anybody, in 1892. The Democrats two years ago demanded the "speedy repeal" of the silver-purchase act, and promised a straightforward low-tariff measure. Instead, it took nearly three months to repeal the Sherman act, and then almost half of the Democrats in the Senate voted against redeeming the pledge, so that repeal was carried over the Democrats and Populists only by the large majority of Republicans on the right side. Nearly nine months more were occupied in getting a tariff bill of any sort through Congress, and then it was a measure so far short of what had been pledged that the Democratic President was unwilling to give it his signature. Democrats were disgusted with the record of their party this year, as Republicans with the record of their party two years ago; and they showed their disgust in the same way—not by voting for the opposition, but by not voting for anybody.

The lesson of these two elections ought not to be mistaken by the victorious party. The country has not declared *for* the Republicans; it has simply declared *against* the Democrats. What the voters will do two years hence depends upon the developments of the next two years. If the Republicans are to win in 1896, they must show between now and then that they deserve to win. Party ties no longer bind members of either political organization to its support unless they are convinced that it ought to be supported. A more fortunate state of things for the country could not be imagined.

*THE NEXT POLITICAL ISSUES.*

Senator Sherman of Ohio has been quoted in a published interview since the election as saying that he did not consider the present result as an endorsement of the McKinley tariff, or as a demand on the part of the people for radical measures. As the interview represents, without doubt, the opinions of the party which will be in control of the House a twelvemonth hence, and probably of the Senate also, it possesses much interest at this time. Mr. Sherman said:

> "I do not regard the present result as an endorsement of the McKinley bill or a demand on the part of the people for radical tariff legislation. There will undoubtedly be some members who will regard it as such, but I hardly believe the party will enter into any extreme legislation of this kind. I would not favor any great increase of duties. On the stump in the campaign I said very plainly that I was a moderate protectionist, and wanted only such duties as would insure a fair rate of wages for the workingmen of this country. I believe in so placing the duties as to allow a healthy foreign competition. If I should see that any duty was making a monopoly, I would take that duty off. The Republicans went to an extreme on the question in 1890, because they had absolute control of all branches of the Government. If there had been any check, they would not have done so."

Mr. Sherman's views are substantially the same as those announced by ex-Speaker Reed during the campaign. They are in accord also with those of Senator Allison. Indeed, there is every reason to believe that they are in harmony with those of the thinking and reflecting members of the Republican party everywhere. It is most probable, too, that these conservative views will gain strength by time, so that when the party really becomes able to carry its views into effect, it will find the tariff issue moribund and little suited to the purposes of political discussion. It is very likely, also, that the Hawaiian Islands as a party issue will have passed out of the range of vision. If the present republic of Hawaii maintains itself, as seems likely, there will be no need for us to interfere. Most people will have forgotten the existence of Queen Liliuokalani two years hence, and all will be able to divest themselves of party prejudices in dealing with the question.

Nobody seems to expect a revival of the sectional issue in any form. The Republicans have made more inroads upon the "solid South" in the recent election than at any or all others since the carpet-baggers were thrust out. It happens that their success in the South is coincident with the repeal of the only federal election law that they depended upon to

give them a standing in that quarter of the Union. The result shows that the way to gain votes in the South is not to array blacks and whites in two hostile camps, but to divide the whites, and give them an incentive to befriend the blacks as political allies. We in the North have been a long time in learning this lesson. It was contrary to all our preconceptions. As force was required to overthrow slavery, we thought that force and nothing else would serve to give the black man his political rights. We have been thirty years in learning that force never would accomplish that result. We are now learning that as soon as force is wholly withdrawn, the problem begins to solve itself. If the Republican party were to-day in possession of Congress and the executive, it would not reënact the federal election law; still less would it seek to enact the force bill of 1890, which made such an excitement and was lost by only a single vote in the Senate.

If the tariff and the force bill are dead or dying issues, what is to take their place? Evidently the currency question is the matter of most immediate concern. It is the one which causes most uneasiness. It is the thing that is always getting us into hot water. It produced the panic of last year. It is the cause of the present depression in business. It is the rock ahead at all times. It furnishes the reason for the proposed new issue of bonds. If the Government were not charged with the task of "maintaining parity" between silver and gold, there would be no question of a bond issue. The cost of an issue of $50,000,000 5 per cent. bonds is $25,000,000, the interest charge being $2,500,000 per year for ten years. If it is really necessary, that is the end of argument. If it is not necessary, the burden ought not be put upon the taxpayers. There will be a dispute, and probably an acrimonious one, on the question of the necessity of the loan, and nobody will be quite satisfied. It goes to prove again, for the hundredth time, that the Government ought to have no concern with the money question beyond certifying to the purity of the coin and regulating the issues of the banks. These two functions are akin to each other. Both of them aim to prevent cheating, and when these ends are accomplished the Government has done all that it can usefully do.

The political party which takes this idea for its guidance will be the winning party in the next five years. This may seem to be a short time to deal with so weighty a question, but it must be borne in mind that it has been under discussion continuously ever since the close of the war. We have had experience running through a whole generation, and it may be safely said that what we have still to accomplish presents no tougher problem than the resumption of specie payments, which was resolved upon in 1875. Meanwhile there can be no doubt that the elections of Tuesday have made silver "a back number" in American politics. The Populists of Kansas, Nebraska, and Colorado have received a crushing defeat. Bland has been cast out by his own district. Bryan, who was perhaps a more ugly customer than Bland, has been rejected as a candidate for the Senate from Nebraska, and will not be in the next House. Even more significant than these results is the fact that in the only State where the Republicans adopted a worse platform than the Democrats on this question they were defeated. In the State of California there has for a long time been a neck-to-neck race between the two parties to see which of them should come nearest to Populism and Socialism. The Republicans took the lead this year and went for free coinage of silver without any safeguards, while the Democrats stipulated for parity between the two metals. California stands out as the most conspicuous if not the sole exception among the Northern States from the line of Republican victories of the year. The silver plank of the platform was particularly odious because the business community in California is more wedded to the gold standard than in any other State in the Union, having rejected greenbacks as currency during the war and being scarcely reconciled to them even now.

The matter of most importance is that the Republicans are now able to dispense with the mining camps as a political factor. The States of Nevada, Idaho, and Montana are no longer necessary to them. The threats made by their leading politicians that unless they could have free silver they would abandon the party, are no longer terrifying. The Republican centre of gravity is thrown east of the Missouri River, and this insures a predominance of sound-money views in the next Congress. It is not necessary to cultivate Populism or any kind of financial heresy in order to control the House. Moreover, no movement for silver or any other bastard currency is to be expected this winter. Even if such a movement had a chance of success in Congress, the veto of Mr. Cleveland would kill it. On the other hand, there is every reason to look for wholesome financial legislation by way of amendment to the national-banking act. As soon as it is generally recognized that silver has got its death-blow, the public mind will be ready to consider some rational scheme for currency reform, like the Baltimore plan, for example. This is a platform which anybody can stand on, since it does not run counter to any existing currency system or to any existing party creed.

## *NON-PARTISAN ADMINISTRATION.*

We fear very much that a good many people who voted on Tuesday week for Strong and a non-partisan administration have not as yet, in spite of thirty years of civil-service-reform agitation, a very clear idea of what non-partisan administration is. What many suppose to be non-partisan administration is really bi-partisan administration. That is, they think that a non-partisan administration can be set up by dividing the offices equally between the two parties; which, if any improvement at all on the old partisan system, is a very slight one. The principle for which the civil-service reformers have always contended, and which they have finally succeeded in introducing into a large portion of the civil service, is that in appointments to office the political opinions of the appointee shall not be considered or even inquired into; that nothing shall count in filling the place except *fitness*. Any attempt to divide offices between the parties keeps alive the poison of the old system; that is, the idea on the part of the employee that he has got his office *because* he is a Democrat or a Republican. A man who enters the public service with this notion in his head can only in rare cases be a faithful public servant. He is always sure to feel that he owes a higher allegiance to his party than to the Government, and that therefore, as long as he is a good party man, his defects as an official are of minor importance. The leading vice of Tammany lies in its having pushed this principle to its extreme limit. In that Society the idea that the office-holder owes anything whatever to the city has completely perished. Each office-holder thinks of himself as the employee of "the organization" solely, and it is this which makes trials of Tammany men by other Tammany men, for offences against the city, so very ludicrous. As long as it cannot be shown that they have been in some way unfaithful to the organization, they are always safe from any sort of penalty.

To attempt to divide offices equally between the parties is to keep in full activity the idea that the city is a political and not a business organization. It is against this idea that the municipal reformers have now been fighting for many years. It is in the growth and spread of the idea that the city is a business organization, and nothing else, that all hope of good municipal government in America lies. If, for example, Mr. Strong should announce his intention of dividing the offices equally between the parties, it would operate at once as notice to the bosses and machine men that there were so many offices at the disposal of the party. They would meet at once to consider the proper division of them. They would decide among themselves who had the best claims to them; and the foundation of the claims would be, almost invariably, activity in caucuses and conventions, and influence of some kind or another (generally illicit) over voters. Having settled this, they would start at once for the city hall, and the "pressure" on Mr. Strong from the two sets of bosses and workers would begin, and would be kept up until they wore out his patience and compelled him, out of regard to his health and peace, to make appointments of which his higher judgment disapproved. Not only

this, but no sooner had he made them than the Boys would rejoice over them as proofs that the pretence of non-partisanship was "bosh," that there was still something in politics for the politician; that the winning of elections was a trade like another, in which a fair livelihood was to be had by a diligent man.

A non-partisan administration of city affairs means the filling of offices for fitness only. If Mr. Strong means to administer in this way, he will manage the city precisely as he manages his bank. In fact he has promised to do so. When he has a vacancy, he will look around for a good man, and he will ask for testimonials not as a party man, but as a good clerk, or accountant, or lawyer, or engineer. That is what he does at the Central National Bank, and this is what the great bulk of those who supported him expect him to do at the city hall. If it got about that he was dividing places at the Central National according to the political views of the applicants, and with only minor reference to character and specific experience, there would, we warrant, be a very rapid withdrawal of deposits and a very rapid sale of stock. People would conclude he had gone demented. Now we want to produce a similar state of mind, if possible, on the part of the public with regard to the administration of the mayoralty. We want to make the voters consider a mayor who bestows places for other reasons than fitness as either knavish or demented. Until we have accomplished this, there will be no radical, and, above all, no permanent, improvement in the government of New York or any other American city.

To the argument that he could not do this if he tried, that the politicians would never stand it, we answer that this very objection was made a hundred times over to the placing of United States officers under the civil-service rules; but 45,000 of them are now so placed, and even if the politicians have not become outwardly reconciled to the change, they now never think of resisting it. So, also, when Mayor Grace appointed General Newton to the office of commissioner of public works, on account of his eminent fitness for the place now held by Mike Daly, who cried out or objected? Hundreds of wretched creatures like Daly doubtless sighed for the salary, but what sensible or decent citizen found fault with Mayor Grace's disposal of it? Over in Brooklyn, in fact, we see the plan in full operation amid general applause. The great bulk of the patronage in that city is in the hands of the commissioner of public works. Well, whom did Mayor Schieren appoint to that office? Why, Alfred T. White, an Independent and a philanthropist of long experience in public improvements. The minor offices have been filled in much the same way, with competent men, without reference to their politics, and the proof is that Mayor Schieren is abhorred to-day by the machines of both parties, but admired and applauded by men who really care for their city.

The greatest obstacle to the reform is the public's want of familiarity with it and consequent doubts about its feasibility. But this is an objection to all changes for the better. If we succumbed to it, we should have to abandon civilization itself and go back to our wigwams and deerskins. For civilization consists in improvements, and improvements are always novelties. To do nothing or attempt nothing that people are not used to would make a China of the United States. To accustom his countrymen to better ways is the highest work of every one who loves his country.

## *THE FUTURE OF TAMMANY.*

THERE is a good deal of talk just now of reorganizing Tammany, and it has a good deal of interest for all classes of citizens, for even if Tammany should disappear, the possibility of Tammany will always remain unless there should be a complete disappearance of political partisanship among its opponents. It must not be forgotten that Tammany on November 6 polled 108,000 votes, in spite of all the exposures of the last six months. These 108,000 are a very formidable factor in city affairs. They show that there is among us a very large body of persons who do not care particularly for good government, who do not object to government by corruption or intrigue, to whom ignorance and vice are not blemishes in public officials, and on whom discussion and exposure do not make any impression. We must remember that Tweed was reëlected in his district after all his frauds and thefts had been laid before the public. The Tammany voters are now controlled, and always have been controlled, by Tammany by means of the police and police justices, and by the offices. Through the offices Tammany secures competent "district leaders"; through the police and police justices, it keeps the rank and file in order, partly by threats, partly by persecution, and partly by intercession at the police courts and civil justices' courts. A district leader often spends his whole mornings at the police courts, furnishing "pulls" and bail for drunkards and other disorderly and criminal persons.

This body is not likely to diminish in this city. It is fed by immigration, by the drift of adventurers and broken-down men from the country, and by what theologians call the "natural depravity" of the human species. It will stand ready to jump into power again every year of the next fifty. It likes power and the good things which power gives, and it has no scruples about modes of getting power. It will therefore furnish a constant temptation to the class of politicians who rule Tammany to try their old games over again. It is what we might call the raw material of their trade. In three years after the fall of Tweed, which blew the wigwam to atoms, the Tammany society was reorganized and ready for action, and had induced large numbers of people to believe that it was going to be decent this time, etc., etc.

Now this very thing will happen over again, and sooner than most people now imagine, unless there is a complete change of heart among partisans on both sides about city affairs. The Committee of Seventy has shown what can be done by union against the common enemy, but so did the Committee of Seventy of 1871. Nevertheless, the practice of running party candidates for the mayoralty on federal issues began again as early as 1880, and was continued steadily until 1890, Tammany gaining ground all the time, until in 1888 a Tammany liquor-dealer and "sport" was actually welcomed as a deliverer of the city. The Democrats said, "This is a Democratic city: why should we not have the mayoralty?" The Republicans said, "We have 100,000 votes: why should we always be the ones to yield?" Whenever there was any sign or prospect of a secession of decent Democrats from Tammany, the Republican machine always marshalled its forces to rush in at the breach. At last the city was treated to six solid years of Tammany, and we know with what result.

We cannot help hoping that we have reached the end of these mistakes and delusions. The Committee of Seventy have shown, more conspicuously than ever before, the power which, even in this city of many nationalities and creeds, lies in the union of good people. We believe the Good Government clubs are doing invaluable work in turning the lesson to account. They are spreading the non-partisan (not bi-partisan) view of city affairs. It is especially important that they should hammer it into the brains of the young, for the men who have conducted this campaign against Tammany will be gone from the stage in twenty years, as the men of 1871 are now, and in about twenty years Tammany regains its old strength. Tammany will surely come again, unless young and old get into the way of looking at the city as they look at their bank, and think no more about the mayor's politics than they think about the politics of the cashier who keeps their accounts. All the well-governed cities of the world are governed on this business plan, all the badly governed, on the other.

The plan of going down among the rank and file of Tammany with books and pamphlets, and University Settlements, and popular lectures, we know has merit. It is a work of humanity and civilization which is always in order. But they deceive themselves who think the city can be saved by any such missionary work. What Tammany offers to the ignorant and poor is always something more palpable and succulent than enlightenment, or free reading-rooms, or cheap coffee. It can never be met and vanquished except by union among the honest, industrious, and intelligent. These are now in a majority and have always been in a majority. A great commercial city like New York

could not exist and prosper if they were not in a majority. Whenever they cease to be in a majority, capital and labor will both begin to move away from Manhattan Island.

## POSTERS IN LONDON.

LONDON, October 23, 1894.

AMONG collectors, the poster is the latest fad; and this in New York as in London and Paris. Attention has already been called to it and its artistic possibilities by an article in the *Century*. I do not doubt that shows of American collections have already been held. But the first English exhibition has just been opened at the Royal Aquarium in London. Within its limits, it is so thoroughly representative that from it one cannot fail to learn what has been done, and what is being done, to justify the prevailing interest in modern methods of street decoration.

I say within its limits, since, as the editor of the catalogue explains, the collection has been all but entirely restricted to French and English work. There is nothing from Germany, nothing from America—an omission much to be regretted. But, after all, it was in France that the artistic treatment of the *affiche* was first accepted seriously, and the French artists who have had such an influence upon the designers of other countries have been here gathered together in full force. On the unaccustomed walls of the Aquarium hang almost all of Chéret's most famous designs, almost all of Grasset's and Willette's. Lautrec challenges comparison with Ibels, Guillaume with Steinlen. So little favoritism has been shown that from Aman-Jean and the Rosicrucians you may pass on to Lunel and the Realists, from Anquetin to Bonnard, from Vallaton to Boutet-de-Monvel. Not one man of note or pretension has been overlooked. And the English series is as complete. If opportunity be given to study the really admirable achievements of Dudley Hardy and Beardsley, whose inspiration is frankly French, you are also confronted with the failures of Herkomer and Walter Crane, who, had they been less independent, might have proved more successful; while even the promising cartoons of men whose names are as yet unknown have been included. A collection so exhaustive must give to the least observant some idea of the present condition of the art it illustrates.

Due allowance may be made for indifferent hanging—the posters are unnecessarily crowded, without the smallest space between—and for the drawback of seeing indoors designs intended to be looked at in the open street; but even then it cannot be denied that the impression received is, in a measure, one of disappointment. For, though just now in Paris the system of out-door advertising is carried to such an excess that one foresees the inevitable reaction in the immediate future, the exhibition proves indisputably that artists are only beginning to realize what a poster should be. There was a time, but two or three years ago, when Chéret was believed to have brought it to the highest possible degree of perfection. He came honestly by his reputation; for if he was not the first to design posters (you may see now at the "Exposition du Livre" examples published in France far earlier in the century), if he was not the first to consider their artistic as well as commercial requirements (Fred Walker's poster for the "Woman in White," hanging at the Aquarium, and Herkomer's early attempts in the same direction, anticipated him in this respect), to him still belongs the credit of having created a demand for the artistic, as opposed to the purely commercial, variety. His designs, however, already seem miniature and experimental when compared to the work of men whose master he virtually was.

The reason is not far to seek. There are three all-important essentials to be remembered in designing a poster: it must draw and hold the attention in the very streets and squares and stations where the attention is most readily distracted; it must fulfil its commercial purpose by explaining its meaning at a glance; it must accomplish its artistic end by its beauty of color and line, and the manner in which the given space is filled. What happens when the commercial needs are unduly emphasized, it is needless to point out: whoever has waited for a train in an English railway station, or passed by the hoardings of London streets, knows to his cost. But, so far as the poster is concerned, failure is well-nigh as disastrous when the artistic interest preponderates. Take, for instance, Aman-Jean's fine design to advertise the Rose-Croix exhibition; what did its loveliness of line and tenderness of tone avail when it was called upon to compete with gay announcements of a new pill, and florid invitations to the Moulin Rouge? Or, again, take two of the most delightful examples in the collection: Bonnard's *affiches* for the *Revue Blanche* and 'France Champagne'; in the first, a delicate harmony in gray, the inscription (commercially foremost in importance) is so fantastically lettered that it is all but impossible to read; in the second, the tender ambers and subtle curves and twirls with which the feeling of champagne has been carried throughout, would not tell in the least when seen from the necessary distance. Chéret has not erred by going to either extreme; but in the ugliness and vulgarity of lettering he has made too great concession to commerce—in the elaboration of detail, too great concession to art. His "Loie Fuller," with the swirl of its rainbow-hued drapery; his Saxoleine, with its well studied rendering of reflected light; his "Pastilles Géraudel," with its gayety and grace—all too familiar now to need description—could not well be surpassed. But even in them is something of that confusion, due to excessive detail, which is now felt to be a defect in the majority of his designs, as well as in those of Grasset, for all their stateliness and elegance. Lautrec, more almost than any one, has shown what can be done by intelligent leaving out. His simple, flat surfaces, his sharp, well-defined outlines, his broad masses are, in the end, far more effective than Chéret's careful modelling and lingering regard for tone and atmosphere. The simple figure of "Aristide Bruant," for example, silhouetted against a dead-white background, leaps out from the wall, while Chéret's nymphs and dancers, by contrast, become confused and shadowy. Certain violence there must be; thus, Lautrec's own *affiches* for "L'Estampe Originale" and "Confetti," charming as they are, because of their more refined color and composition, lose, when placed by the side of his "Moulin Rouge" and brutal, but fine, "Reine de Joie."

The importance of the silhouette in the poster, thanks chiefly to Lautrec, is being more and more realized—the younger men are using it almost exclusively. Certainly, the best designs in the show are those in which it has been adopted. Probably there is not one that answers its purpose as advertisement better than Gausson's "Lessive Figaro." In the well-known *affiches* of Ibels and Guillaume and Steinlen, the silhouette is also accentuated; and again, though not quite simplified enough, in Willette's girl in purple against a rich wall-paper, which she might be supposed to advertise rather than the cocoa she is meant to force upon you.

But while a tremendous stride in advance has been made since Chéret led the way, the cleverest and most distinguished French designers have still much to learn. They do not seem as yet to understand, as the Japanese understand, the value of beauty and grace in long flowing lines; they have not yet developed that wonderful sense of proportion and balance which delights in the simplest kakemono and woodcut. Nor, indeed, have they mastered the first principles of artistic lettering. Boutet-de-Monvel alone realizes that the inscription should be part of the design, and this realization makes his little red-and-rose poster for some one's dentifrice far more satisfactory to the eye than the more ambitious "Bruant" by Lautrec, or "Yvette Guilbert" by Ibels.

Lettering really is better appreciated in England. Merpes and Steer both turn it to good account in the posters designed by themselves for their own shows; posters, unfortunately, which have no other merit. But the English designers mostly reveal the same virtues and vices as the French, from whom they have borrowed so largely, and this is the reason why I may seem to have less to say about them. Of course I do not mean Walter Crane, who, pursuing his own methods and filling his poster for the Paris Hippodrome with detail that would not be out of place in an illustration, is so absolutely ineffective that, had I not consulted my catalogue, I should not have discovered his presence—nor of Prof. Herkomer, who, though to be applauded as a pioneer, has not known how to express his sometimes excellent ideas. But Dudley Hardy, in the yellow figure, with its amusing angular outlines, that announces *To-Day*, in his mass of red skirts that advertise the "Gaiety Girl," like Lautrec, gains his effects by the strength and simplicity of his silhouette—like Lautrec, mars it by the commonplace of his inscription. And so again with Greiffenhagen, whose vivid red figure against yellow proclaims the existence of the *Pall Mall Budget*, and with Raven-Hill, who introduces "Pick-Me Up" by somewhat similar means; and so again with Beardsley, who balances his simple spaces of color on a white background with a dexterity that lends new interest to the "Pseudonym" and "Autonym Libraries," to which he invites notice.

However, so far in England nothing at once so original and effective has been done as the designs of Messrs. Beggarstaff, the name by which the two young artists choose to be introduced to the public, and so far, naturally, no man of business has had the courage to publish them. These designers also rely upon the silhouette, but they have simplified it still further. Thus, in one cartoon, for the "Blue" of the first manufacturer who has the sense to see its good points, a black figure is outlined in white against a black background, and the only color is the one spot—a large spot—of blue in the tub at her feet. It is badly hung in the Aquarium, and the Steinlens and the little Gausson are not far away. But it asserts itself with unmistakable power, and is as distinguished as vigorous. The other three are only less striking, and the artists, once the chance to decorate the hoardings is offered, seem destined to inaugurate a new departure in the art of poster-designing. N. N.

## BAEDEKER AND THE BERGAMASK.

ALASSIO, October 5, 1894.

A NOTE in the *Nation* of August 16, relative to the photographs taken by Lotze of the art treasures at Bergamo, set me to thinking that I knew very little of that city. A visit made there many years ago had been cut short by untoward circumstances—circumstances that had somewhat spoiled such memories as remained to me, and left me with a distaste for the very name of Bergamo. But prejudices burn themselves out, and this note had the effect of sending me to revise my impressions.

Needless to say that revision meant revulsion. The ancient town, situated on the last spur of the Bergamask Alps, and looking southward over the boundless Lombard plain, could not fail to impress deeply any lover of landscape. The plain has the majesty and the infinite variety of the sea, and its northern boundary is broken into numberless headlands with interlying valleys rich in culture, and everywhere, bedded among the trees, the campanili and antique towers of a long civilization, for Bergamo boasts of having been before Rome was.

The moment was propitious for seeing the place at its best. It was lovely September weather and the annual fair was going on. The curious miniature city solidly built in stone for this recurring market, at other times shut and desolate, was now alive—a rectangular citylet, with all streets crossing at right angles, and, at their ends, rather pompous gates in the taste of the eighteenth century, as are also the 600 shops, arranged according to a predetermined plan, stamped with the formal dignity which that century has impressed upon such of its creations as, for example, Turin. The fair has lost its importance, and most of its streets are as empty as Tadmor in the wilderness. Only the two central ones are full—chiefly with various sorts of Cheap-John concerns—but they are a very pleasant sight, with their clashing of gay colors, their throngs, the awnings stretched quite across the street (in old Italian fashion), turning them into galleries of tempered light, with far-away glimpses at the end of the hot glare outside, and, in the centre, at the meeting of the two ways, a fountain where fantastic beasts make a coolness with the plashing of many water jets.

The fair, however, seems still to draw a good many people, and Bergamo has in general the animation of a much larger city. The cafés are doing a "roaring" trade, the theatre gives an extra season with "Dinorah" and Ponchielli's "Gioconda," to say nothing of a circus and many minor shows. To crown the bustle, it is the moment of the autumn conscription, and bands of country youth, with feathers and gay ribbons in their hats and invariably the paper bearing the number they have drawn, are strolling about the town celebrating the good or evil fortune of the day. Sometimes they are singing a bacchic strain interrupted by screams, sometimes, to the accompaniment of concertinas, they go waltzing two and two along the double line of flagstones in the middle of the street, and sometimes a dozen, arm in arm, stretching from sidewalk to sidewalk, go thundering a chorus, so sure, so strong, and so sweet, that, what with the beauty and the pathos that is never absent from conscriptions, the sound brings the sudden tears and keeps the eyes blurred with them as long as it can be heard.

And the treasures of art mentioned by the *Nation* are all here, with many others equally worth knowing, but for all that much less known than they ought to be. There are various indications of this last fact, *e. g.*, the inns of the old-fashioned Italian type, quite sufficient in their way so long as fine weather and good health last, but with no hint of the superfluities with which the modern "grand hotel" satisfies the demands of the tourist; or, again, the uniform helpfulness and courtesy of the people, who have not yet learned small extortions nor the money value of kind offices.

Of course there is a reason for this idyllic state of things, and, whatever it may be, the guide-book contributes to its continuance. The judicious Baedeker, by whose light most of our countrymen now travel, is deplorably insufficient with regard to Bergamo. Gsell-Fels (who tells you that half a day is enough!) is fuller, but this author is subject to such surprising incursions of the marvellous as to make one look upon him with suspicion. (Thus, writing of the place from which I date, he says that it has a deaf-and-dumb asylum, shipbuilding yard, and a coral fishery! Heaven knows where he found a warrant for any of the three statements. He goes on to say that in our gardens are seen the *first* date palms. Where does such an observer keep his eyes?) Better than either is the 'Guide Joanne,' and, with the combined aid of this and the Gsell-Fels, one may manage to see most of the sights of Bergamo. The Baedeker may be left at the bottom of your trunk.

For those, however, who are hapless enough to find themselves dependent on the aid of this last, it may not be amiss to give here a bit of supplement: it may help such as would have an adequate idea of the riches of Bergamo and of what is their special distinction. In a general way this idea is given in the admirable note of the *Nation*, but I hope to show that it is worth while to complete that. "Cariani and Previtali can be studied there alone, and no other one place in the world is so rich in Lottos and Moronis." It will add to the admiration excited by the first-named master to know that two beautiful portraits in the Galleria Lochis, ascribed by their labels and by the catalogue to Sebastiano del Piombo, are really, according to Morelli and the excellent director of the museum, by Cariani. They will be so ascribed in the next edition of the catalogue, though the labels, from respect for the conditions imposed by the testator of the collection, must remain unchanged. As for Lotto, not only is Bergamo richer in the number of his pictures than any other city of Europe, but they are the work of his best years, from about 1513 to 1525, so that nowhere else can he be studied to equal advantage. In his earlier years he painted in the manner of Gian Bellini, examples of which time may be seen in the Louvre and in London. Afterwards, says Vasari, he attached himself to the manner of Giorgione; but it is doubtful if he was ever in relations with Giorgione, and Vasari, who never saw the works executed at Bergamo and does not mention them in his Life, judged Lotto only from his earliest and his latest performances. What we see at Bergamo, done in the fulness of his power, may suggest at times Giorgione or Leonardo, simply (according to Morelli) as a result of similar development in the three men and inspiration of the same *Zeitgeist*. The real affinity of Lotto would seem to be with Correggio. One often vividly suggests the other, probably merely because of a certain kinship of nature affected by like circumstances.

The portraits by Moroni are a most delightful feature of the Accademia Carrara, but then fine portraits by Moroni are to be found in many galleries. Just so with some other masters, as, *e. g.*, Borgognone, who is here in force. The great effect, the peculiar *bouquet*, so to speak, is given to the place by Lotto. It is said that there are more than twenty authentic pictures of his in Bergamo, and still others in the neighborhood. Notably at Alzano, a drive of seven kilometres from the city, there is a superb altarpiece of the death of St. Peter Martyr. I shall have occasion to mention this church in another connection.

Perhaps the most peculiar treat of all is that given at Trescorre Balneareo, a place not mentioned in Baedeker although it has been for hundreds of years a frequented resort, to say nothing of its unique treasure, sufficient in itself to make the place one of pilgrimage. There is here a little chapel attached to the villa of Count Suardi, the walls and ceiling of which (excepting the altar-niche, done by an earlier hand) are entirely covered with frescoes by Lotto. The works in oil left by the master are numerous enough, but in fresco—aside from some late works at Recanati and some examples in and about Bergamo, more or less damaged or more or less apocryphal—this is all that we have by which to judge him. It is but a tiny place, only about eight metres long by half as many in breadth. On one windowless side there is in the middle a life-sized figure of the Redeemer, and at his feet the family Suardi, who commissioned the work. The rest of this side, excepting a frieze of alternate prophets and sibyls that runs around the chapel, is occupied by the history of St. Barbara—the figures small, of course, some of them minute, but all of them full of expression. On the opposite side, painted, it seems to me, with more simplicity and largeness of manner, is the story of St. Chiara. The west end, unfortunately damaged, contains the martyrdom of St. Catherine and what appears to be a scene from the life of Mary Magdalene. The ceiling, between rude rafters, is covered with vines, through which little angels are peeping, suggesting irresistibly the famous parlor of the Benedictine convent at Parma, done by Correggio; the more as the infants of Lotto smile as sweetly and are as graceful as those of his better-known contemporary. It will at once be seen that the importance of this chapel is not small; its omission in Baedeker is unaccountable, considering that both Gsell-Fels and the 'Guide Joanne' speak of it. A beautiful monograph by Prof. Pasino Locatelli has been printed for the Count Suardi, but the edition—limited to 300 numbered copies—was only for private circulation, and is, of course, difficult to find.

Those who may be induced by the mention in Baedeker to go to see the Lotto at Alzano will be rewarded beyond their expectation. Not only is the altar-piece of Lotto worth the journey, but the church, profusely adorned, contains a good Tintoretto, and a chapel with three pictures by Tiepolo, pallid in color but graceful and elegant in their mannerism. You were unprepared for these, but there is more to come. There are three sacristies. In the first, the cupboards for the vestments and articles of church use are superb examples of seventeenth-century (1662) carving by a Bergamask artist, Fantoni. In the second the presses were done by the Fantoni sons. They are of incredible richness, surmounted by a series of medallions and full reliefs of such exquisite workmanship that they are sheltered by glass cases. In the third is beautiful inlaid work by a woman, the *figlia Caniani*, daughter of an artist who contributed to the adornment of this church, as also to that of the Cap-

pella Colleoni at Bergamo. A series of pilasters ornamented with leaves and fruits naturalistically treated are very fine, as also the bases with birds and foliage. The same artist did four of the intervening panels, and then lost her eyesight from the strain put upon it by the delicate work.

After seeing so many things unnoted in one's Baedeker, it will scarcely be wondered at that he should make no mention of the churches of St. Andrea, where there are two good Previtalis and a fine Moretto (badly seen by morning light), of St. Michele al Pozzobianco (another of the rare frescoes of Lotto), of St. Grata and of the Carmine (Salmeggia and others), of St. Agostino (late Gothic façade), nor of the charming frescoes by Tiepolo in the Cappella Colleoni, nor of many important works in Santa Maria Maggiore. He indeed says that there are ancient mural paintings, much injured, under a tapestry. It is therefore a pleasant surprise when one finds a most characteristic work dated 1347, what there is left of it well preserved. It must be seen on a bright morning toward noon, when the sacristan will open the south doors to let in enough light to illuminate the wall while he lifts aside the tapestry. Neither Baedeker nor any other guide mentions several other interesting remains of fresco of the same period in different parts of the church; all in out-of-the-way places, and, to be got at, requiring the intervention of the sacristan. S. K.

# Correspondence.

## OUR POLITICAL FLUCTUATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There is no doubt that the disappointment of spoils-seekers has something to do with the political reactions which follow the introduction of a new party into power, as you point out in the *Nation* for November 8. This is not enough, however, to account for the magnitude of the "tidal waves" which have followed changes of administration in so many instances. The true explanation is to be found in the same disposition on the part of the voters which, in the case of gamblers, leads them to "hedge." In case of any large political movement there is a considerable body of voters who are startled at the possible consequences of changes, and, because of pure timidity, and without reference to the merits of the case, at once block the wheels. They are in a state of mind that leads them to be easily affected by scares, and they magnify every possible evil, until they go, like a runaway horse, plunging into they know not what, simply because they are afraid of something, they know not what.

At present the point at issue is the tariff, and these voters, frightened at the possible consequences of the McKinley act, went over to the opposition in flocks and droves, and then, startled at the possible consequences and the apparent magnitude of the results of their own action, went back again in like manner. It is pure ignorance and timidity on the part of well-meaning people that leads to these extraordinary apparent fluctuations in the trend of popular sentiment. It requires but little inquiry among the voters in any community to find that there are hundreds who admit frankly that they do not know anything about the questions at issue, but are simply feeling their way as best they can. The consequent fluctuations in the expression of popular sentiment at the polls do not represent intelligent and well-grounded convictions, but simply the timidity growing out of consciousness of ignorance and incompetence.

So far as the tariff is concerned, these fluctuations of sentiment will continue until it becomes clear to the masses of the people what are the real effects of such legislation upon the interests of the country as a whole, whereupon action based upon knowledge will take the place of inexplicable changes based upon fear.

Yours truly, M. A. Veeder.

Lyons, N. Y., November 9, 1894.

[There is something in this explanation, no doubt, and certainly it would be difficult for the Republican Congressmen-elect to define just what mandate they have received from the electors. It will be still more difficult a year hence, when they become invested with the power of shaping a policy. The most potent cause of these fluctuations, apart from the evident weakening of party bonds all over the country, is, in our opinion, precisely the absurdly long interval between election and taking office. This insures a want of continuity between feeling and action, without a counterbalancing advantage in a period for reflection and deliberation.—Ed. Nation.]

## THE LOUISVILLE UPRISING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: New York city is not the only place where good citizens have a right to congratulate themselves upon having broken the hold of an infamous and conscienceless clique of tyrants. Gang rule has been the bane of Louisville for many years. "The Buckingham," a low variety theatre, has been our Tammany, and has kept a corresponding place in our local affairs. John Wallen holds locally the dignity corresponding to Croker's in Tammany. The people's disgust with public officials serving in the name of the city, but in reality under the leadership of the above worthy, was shown in the result of yesterday's election. The Louisville district is safely Democratic by at least 8,000 votes, and we doubt if even Mr. Evans, the Republican Congressman-elect, would dispute this. In his interviews published in to-day's papers he attributes his election to Democratic votes, and thanks his Democratic friends for the confidence exhibited in him.

It is not far to find the cause of the overwhelming reversal that changed this Democratic majority into a majority of 4,596 votes for the Republican candidate. The Democratic primary held in this city on September 18 was conducted with the grossest irregularities, and nominations were made by the most flagrant and shameless corruption, fraud, and violence. The Republican nominations were made without excitement or bitterness, and all the nominees were clean men. The nominees, for Congress, Evans; for Judge of Court of Appeals, St. John Boyle; and County Judge, Chas. G. Ritchie, are men of high ability. A short campaign followed, ending yesterday. Louisville has about 8,000 registered negro voters, all of whom were of course expected to vote the Republican ticket. The Democratic campaign managers, with methods worthy of Tammany, and with the assistance of a servile county judge and the ever-ready police tools, undertook to "purge" the registration of alleged frauds. More than 2,000 negroes were summoned to appear before the august tribunal above named to vindicate their right of citizenship. Of course, many could not answer without losing their day's work, and few were ever actually served with process. The election day came before the work was finished, but out of 435 whose names were marked doubtful or entirely stricken off, only 13 had been actually served with notice. The manifest purpose of this proceeding (and indeed such was the open boast) was to prevent a full negro vote being polled at the election.

This was intended to be, and was, accomplished in this manner: This drum-head court, practically without hearing, marked as doubtful voters a large number of registered negroes. The negroes marked doubtful were challenged upon entering the voting-booths. The voting was delayed to try the right of each of such negroes offering to vote; and as all the negroes lived principally in some half-a-dozen precincts, it was thereby hoped that the result would be, as it actually was, to prevent at least one-half of them from voting on account of the delay occasioned by this ruse. Ridiculous and disgraceful police interference added to the confusion and delay. But the negro's right to vote was vindicated by respectable white Democrats, who, while still faithful to Democratic principles, would not consent to stand idly by and see such an outrage perpetrated. The result was that the vote of the respectable element of the city was heavier than ever before, and was cast principally for the Republican nominees.

Another outrage that contributed largely to the rebellion was the fact that on the eve of the election the county judge removed without notice or excuse a large number of Republican inspectors, judges, and clerks of election, and gave their offices to others presumably more servile to the Democratic interests. The storm engendered by these various outrages became irresistible, and swept the Democrats of this district into the maelstrom of defeat. Of course, other causes, such as hard times and business dissatisfaction, caused some changes, but not enough to have lost the election.

The exact extent of the influence of the A. P. A. is difficult to measure. Pflanz, the Democratic nominee for sheriff, and the only one on that whole ticket saved from the wreck, is a Catholic. His vote was 15,017; that of his Republican opponent, also a Catholic was 11,460; while the independent candidate endorsed by the A. P. A. received over 8,000 votes. His vote does not seem to me to be a fair test. A juster estimate of the strength of this organization would be to see how far McDermott, the Catholic Democratic candidate, ran behind Evans, the Republican nominee and a Protestant, in comparison with the rest of the ticket. Evans, on an average, ran less than 2,500 votes ahead of his own ticket; and as the dissatisfaction of the Democrats on all scores probably resulted in their voting a straight Republican ticket, this 2,500 excess of Evans over his companion Republicans would seem to indicate something of the real strength of the A. P. A. organization. McDermott received 1,000 votes less than the Democratic Sheriff Pflanz, who is also a Catholic. These votes he could not have lost through A. P. A. sentiments. We might, therefore, properly reduce our figure of 2,500, but let it stand. It is so easy to exaggerate the strength of secret organizations that it is gratifying to get at something tangible which shows the A. P. A. to be so weak as to have cast only 2,500 votes

in an election where 35,000 out of our 40,000 registered votes are cast. A DEMOCRAT.

LOUISVILLE, November 7, 1894.

## THE REBUKE IN MISSOURI.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As an object-lesson, let me call your attention to the election of Seth Cobb as Democratic Congressman from Missouri, amid the phenomenal wreck the party has suffered here. He is the only Democrat elected by an increased majority, and was the only Democrat from Missouri in the last House of Representatives who voted for the unconditional repeal of the Sherman act, and who was the consistent supporter of President Cleveland's policy. In many of the county Democratic conventions in this State it was the custom this summer to "endorse our Senators and Representatives in Congress *except Cobb*."

Our splendid Democratic majority in this State has disappeared and has been replaced by a Republican majority. Our delegation in the last Congress, which was entirely Democratic with one exception, and our delegation in the preceding Congress, which was unanimously Democratic, are now exchanged for a delegation at least two-thirds Republican. Had all of our Congressmen followed Mr. Cobb's example, may we not logically reason they also would have been returned with increased majorities instead of meeting, as most of them have done, such contemptuous rejection by the people?

If you have tears, prepare to shed them now: "Silver Dick" Bland is defeated. The Democracy, I believe, will be stronger and better at the next election here for the lesson just taught it.—Yours,

A CLEVELAND DEMOCRAT.

ST LOUIS, November, 8, 1894.

## WHAT HILL STOOD FOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been a regular reader of the *Nation* for a number of years, and in that time, and prior to the political contest which ended yesterday, had learned to respect both its judgment and its principles. I have been unable to reconcile its past course with its conduct during that contest. Will you kindly explain, for the benefit of myself and many other readers, in what way you advanced the cause of tariff reform by aiding in the defeat of the Democratic party and Democratic Congressmen in the State of New York and elsewhere?—for the fact that the party would probably be defeated in New York, it seems to be conceded, affected the results in other States. That Hill represented the principle of tariff reform and Morton that of tariff "deform," although standing for State office, has not, I believe, been questioned. Nor can it be denied that Morton represented Platt and the Republican machine in New York, as Hill did the Democratic machine. To a looker-on, it appears that in running from the devil you have thrown yourself into the deep sea, and at the same time aided in dealing the cause of tariff reform a most dangerous and crippling if not fatal wound. It would seem that you have displayed most indifferent judgment, or knowingly thrown over the cause of tariff reform to gratify a dislike for the person of a candidate, when there was no choice, practically, between the machine affiliations and influences surrounding him and his opponent.

Kindly point out where my conclusions are wrong.—Respectfully yours,

SAMUEL J. GRAHAM.

PITTSBURGH, November 7, 1894.

[You do not seem to have read the account given of Hill and his adherents by the Tariff-Reform Democrats in 1893. Here is some of it:

"In 1892 they very nearly led the party to disaster in the national election.

"In 1893 they have actually brought it to defeat in this State.

"In 1892, by fraudulent caucuses and dishonest political methods, they undertook to mislead the Democratic National Convention as to the real choice of the Democrats of this State.

"In 1893 control of the State Convention was again secured by unfair and illegal use of the party machinery, and a ticket was presented to the people containing, as its most prominent candidate, one already discredited with the people, and for whose nomination no better reason was offered than that it was necessary in order to 'vindicate' certain party leaders. No time was given for organized opposition within the party to this most improper selection, and the party was forced before the people with the candidates selected at the unrepresentative State Convention.

"Under such circumstances our defeat should surprise no one.

"But it is not alone by their despotic use of self-chosen and self-perpetuating party committees to control caucuses and conventions, in defiance and contempt of the wishes of the majority, that these unfaithful leaders have brought scandal upon the party.

"They have prostituted the name of Democracy to the vilest ends.

"Municipalities have been looted and have been denied the right of self government.

"Offices have been bestowed upon unworthy persons as rewards for disreputable political services and as tributes to personal friendship.

"The laws of the State have been violated, the mandates of its courts defied, and common decency outraged. All these crimes have been committed, in the name of Democracy, by men whose sole claim to power and consideration is that they proclaim themselves to be Democrats."

Nor do you seem to be familiar with the great rule of political morals which forbids you to put, or assist in putting, liars, cheats, and thieves in high places in order to improve a system of taxation.—ED. NATION.]

## ANTICS OF HABEAS CORPUS IN TEXAS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You say in your issue of October 25 last that "for the first time, unless we are greatly mistaken, since the writ of habeas corpus was introduced into Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence, a judge last week in this city [Judge Lacombe] found that a man brought before him under it [Mr. Morton's coachman] was unlawfully deprived of his liberty, and yet remanded him to the custody of his captor." I write to say that in these later days justice is often administered in a way that the public little wots of, and that the miscarriage of justice noted by you is not the first time that a judge has found that a person brought before him by the writ of habeas corpus was illegally deprived of his liberty, and yet remanded him to the custody of his captor.

The instance of a miscarriage of justice for which I claim precedence over the case noted by the *Nation* occurred in the year 1892, and in the Circuit Court of the United States for the Eastern District of Texas at Galveston, Judge David E. Bryant presiding. The case is as follows: One Arthur O. Upham was indicted and convicted in a State court, and a fine of $450 was assessed against him. The judgment of the court is that the State have and recover of the defendant the amount of the fine and costs, and that he be committed to the county jail until the fine and costs are paid. The convict in such cases is by the statute to be credited on the fine at the rate of three dollars per day. The convict was committed to the county jail in default of payment of the fine and costs—the costs being the sum of $206.

A general statute authorizes the County Commissioners of each county to establish a county farm for the purpose of utilizing the labor of convicts who have been adjudged to pay a pecuniary fine and are unable to do so. This statute authorizes the County Commissioners to confine such county convicts upon the county farm, and to compel them to labor there not less than eight hours per day, and to credit them on the fine at 50 cents a day for each day they labor. Under this statute A. O. Upham was taken from the county jail and was committed to the county farm, whereupon he sued out a writ of habeas corpus returnable before the Circuit Court of the United States for the Eastern District of Texas at Galveston.

The ground of the application for the writ, which was granted, was that the statute by authority of which the relator was committed to the county farm is not due process of law within the meaning of the fourteenth amendment of the Constitution of the United States, and that it is not due process of law in this, that it authorizes the confinement of the relator in a place not designated by the judgment of the court, and imposes a punishment not assessed by the verdict of a jury, and authorizes a longer period of confinement than that prescribed by the law under which the judgment was rendered; and that, according to the due course of the law of the land, no punishment can be meted out to a convict other than that adjudged against him by the sentence of a court, nor can he be confined in any place other than the place to which he has been committed by the judgment of a court, since the term "due process of law" imports that a person's life, liberty, or property can be taken only in the due administration of the law by the judicial tribunals of the country.

The writ was served upon the superintendent of the county farm as the custodian of the prisoner, and, upon the hearing, the judge presiding announced from the bench that the statute under which the relator was committed to the county farm was unconstitutional, and found that the prisoner had been taken from the custody of the sheriff and was illegally restrained of his liberty by the respondent; and yet Judge Bryant remanded the prisoner to be put to labor on the county farm under a statute which he knew to be and had pronounced to be unconstitutional.

Nor is this all of this unprecedented proceeding. The relator, by his counsel, gave notice of appeal to the Supreme Court of the United States, and asked for an order that, pending his appeal, the prisoner be enlarged upon his recognizance under Rule 34 of the Supreme Court. This rule found no more favor with Judge Bryant than did the fourteenth amendment; and in disregard of this rule he refused to take the recognizance of the relator, which was offered, and remanded the prisoner back to the county farm, thus denying him the common justice embodied in the rule that, pending his appeal, a prisoner should not be deprived of his liberty and punished.

It may well be asked, Could lawlessness in a court of justice further go? That mob law or

lynch law often asserts itself where the courts have failed or refused to enforce the law of the land has come to be, it must be admitted, a melancholy truth. We will now see where mob law takes this memorable case in hand and turns the prisoner Upham loose, *nemine contradicente*.

Upon the argument of this case it began to dawn upon the County Commissioners of Galveston County that possibly the legal existence of the county farm might be in jeopardy. They resolved that the prisoner's appeal to the Supreme Court must be cut off; a decision of that august and enlightened tribunal must not be had. The prisoner by this time had grown to be an elephant on the farm, and it came to be feared that said elephant might do some damage to the farm and it might become too expensive to keep him any longer, and the County Commissioners came to the conclusion that they ought to get rid of him as soon as possible. The cry arose, "Turn him loose." The prisoner having been committed to the county farm by authority of a statute, and having been sent back there by the judgment of a federal court, there was of course no legal way of turning the prisoner loose except by the writ of habeas corpus or the executive pardon. Still the cry continued: "Turn the prisoner loose," "Cut off his appeal," "Save the farm."

It is needless to say that when a clamor of this sort arises, the means of carrying out the purpose becomes a matter of small consequence. Without more ado, and without the sanction of any law, the County Commissioners arose in their fright and incontinently turned the prisoner loose. L. E. TREZEVANT.

GALVESTON, TEXAS, November 5, 1894.

## FARMING IN MARYLAND ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "J. M. V." rightly points out the infection of the pastures with garlic as the great impediment to dairying in Maryland. This is one most urgent reason why the State should have a thoroughly equipped experiment station. Some efficient means for eradicating the garlic weed from the land, or the device of a method for treating the milk so as to eliminate the obnoxious flavor, would be worth more to Maryland than it would cost to establish and run ten experimental stations. And it is by no means out of the question to solve this problem. Modern dairy science distinctly indicates the way to make good butter of garlic-infected milk; and all that is needed to accomplish that result is knowledge, perseverance, and means to carry out the experiments to a successful end.

J. D. FREDERIKSEN.

LITTLE FALLS, N. Y., November 9, 1894.

## THE AMERICAN WORD *BAYOU*.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Some English words, derived from the languages of the American Indians, that were once erroneously referred to kin beyond the sea—"barbecue," "canoe," and "hammock" (a swinging bed) are fair examples—have been, one by one, released from outlandish servitude, and are now restored to their ancestral rights. A few still linger in the limbo of fanciful etymology.

Our latest and best authorities, namely, the 'New English Dictionary,' the 'Century Dictionary,' and the 'International Dictionary,' continue to say, with more or less positiveness, that the American word "bayou" is a corruption of the French *boyau*, 'a gut.' This explanation is prima facie improbable, because, first, if we may trust the vigilant scrutiny of M. Littré, the word *boyau* was never used by the French at home in the sense of a channel of water; and, secondly, there is no historical proof that the early French settlers on the Mississippi River and the Gulf coast ever used the word in this sense or changed it into "bayou."

The first quotation in the N. E. D. illustrating the use of the word "bayou" is taken from Cobbett's book entitled 'A Year's Residence in the United States of America' (London, 1822, p, 273), and reads as follows: "Johnson's Ferry, a place where a Bayou (Boyau) of the Wabash is crossed. This Bayou is a run out of the main river, round a flat portion of land." These words of Cobbett furnish, possibly, the starting-point of the current false etymology. If it should prove to be true that good Americans have trustfully accepted as sound etymology the flighty conjecture of that ferocious hater of all good things American, William Cobbett, the fact would serve as another lively illustration of the irony of fate.

If guesswork were allowable at all, some good Americans would, perhaps, prefer the rash etymologizing of the American geographer William Darby, who, in his 'Geographical Description of Louisiana' (2d ed., New York, 1817, p. 353), asserts without qualification that the word "bayou" is "originally Spanish, and signifies the diminutive of bay" (*bahia* or *baya*). This is a trifle less ridiculous than the received explanation, because the Spanish *bahia* does, at all events, connotate a body of water.

But the true source of the word "bayou" is not very far to seek. Among the first tribes of Indians that Le Moyne d'Iberville met in 1699, after he reached the northern shore of the Gulf of Mexico near the mouths of the Mississippi, were the Bayogoula. This name Bayogoula runs with other Choctaw names still existent on the Gulf coast, namely Pascagoula, properly *Pask-okla*, 'the bread people': Pensacola, properly *Pansh-okla*, 'the hairy people'; Apalachicola, properly *Apelach-okla*, 'the helping people,' 'the allies,' and with some that have now passed out. It may be of interest to note the fact, in passing, that, in each of the names above enumerated, the glide from *k* to *l* in the Choctaw word *okla*, 'people,' has been developed by the white people into a full vowel-sound, which has now become the soul of the word.

The Bayogoula—Le Page du Pratz writes the name in full, "les Bayouc-ogoulas"—were "the people of the bayouc" or "bayou." The following extracts from the narratives of some of the early settlers and travellers in Louisiana explain sufficiently what a *bayouc* was, and show, besides, that the word is of Indian and not of French origin:

"À cinq lieues plus loin en tournant tousjours à la gauche sur le lac [Pontchartrain] on trouve une eau dormante, que les Sauvages appellent *Bayouque*. C'est un esgout des eaux qui tombent des terres hautes." (*Relation de Jean Pénicaut* in Pierre Margry's *Découvertes et Etablissements des Français dans l'ouest et dans le sud de l'Amérique Septentrionale, cinquième partie*. Paris, 1887, p. 385.) Pénicaut was a ship-carpenter who came over with D'Iberville in 1699, and remained in Louisiana twenty-two years.

"Au Midi de ce Lac [Pontchartrain] est un grand *Bayouc*, que l'on nomme le Bayouc S. Jean. *Bayouc* est un grand ruisseau d'eau morte, où on ne voit que très peu, ou même presque point de courant" (*Histoire de la Louisiane par M. Le Page du Pratz*. Paris, 1758, *tome premier*, p. 45.)

"A league beyond it [New Orleans] towards the northeast, there is a small river called *le Bayouc de Saint Jean*, or the Creek of Saint John, *Bayouc* in the Indian language signifying a rivulet, which, at the end of two leagues, discharges itself into the lake Pontchartrain." (*Journal of a Voyage to North America in a Series of Letters to the Duchess of Lesdiguières, translated from the French of P. de Charlevoix*. London. 1761. Vol. ii., p. 289.)

W. S. WYMAN.

UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA, November 3, 1894.

# Notes.

ROBERTS BROS. will publish this week, besides the Letters of Emily Dickinson, 'A Child of the Age,' by the late Francis Adams; 'The Power of the Will; or Success,' by H. Risborough Sharman; a second series of 'The Thought of God in Hymns and Poems,' by F. L. Hosmer and W. C. Gannett; and 'Father Goose's Melodies,' by Adelaide F. Samuels.

Copeland & Day have nearly ready 'The Wooing of Martha Pitkin,' by Charles Knowles Bolton; the 'Love Sonnets' of Wilfrid S. Blunt; and a volume of poems by Prof. John B. Tabb.

D. Appleton & Co.'s additional announcements include Maspero's 'Dawn of Civilization,' edited by Prof. Sayce and translated by M. L. McClure; Nordau's 'Degeneracy'; 'The Life and Correspondence of William Buckland, D.D.,' Dean of Westminster, by his daughter, Mrs. Gordon; 'The Land of the Sun,' by Christian Reid; 'General Hancock,' by Gen. Francis A. Walker; 'The Education of the Greek People, and its Influence on Civilization,' by Thomas Davidson; 'The Evolution of the Massachusetts Public-School System,' by George D. Martin; and "The Criminology Series," edited by Douglas Morrison, beginning with Lombroso's 'Criminal Woman.'

A series of handbooks on the History of Religions, edited by Prof. Morris Jastrow, jr., of the University of Pennsylvania, is to be issued by Ginn & Co. 'The Religions of India,' by Prof. E. W. Hopkins of Bryn Mawr, will lead off.

F. Tennyson Neely, Chicago, has in preparation a 'David Swing Memorial Volume,' compiled by his daughter, Mrs. Starring. It will consist mainly of the preacher's corrected sermons, and will be sold only by subscription.

B. Westermann & Co. will publish immediately the fourth part, "Morphology," of the translation of Karl Brugmann's 'Elements of a Comparative Grammar of the Indo-Germanic Languages.' The index will form the fifth and concluding volume.

The third part of Prof. J. B. Thayer's 'Cases on Constitutional Law' has just been published by Charles W. Sever, Cambridge, Mass., and the fourth and last is promised by February 1. At the close of the work will be found the only copy yet in print of the recent important Massachusetts Supreme Court decision on the collateral inheritance tax.

The ninth of the Filson Club Publications (Louisville: John P. Morton & Co.) treats of the Political Club of Danville, Ky., and is from the pen of Thomas Speed, whose ancestors were members of the club during its short life (1786-'90). This publication deservedly rescues a notable organization from complete obscurity. An account of its organization and proceedings is preceded by an interesting retrospect of the early settlement and condition of Kentucky. The club discussed the new Constitution of the United States, hot from the press, and would have expunged the clause

prohibiting Congress from summarily abolishing the slave-trade. (One member emancipated his slaves at his death in 1837.) The club also voted against the office of Vice-President. (One member, Baker Ewing, was ancestor of our actual Vice-President Stevenson.) On another occasion it was decided not to encourage intermarriage with Indians. The Filson Club announces for No. 10 'The Life and Writings of Constantine Samuel Rafinesque,' by Richard Ellsworth Call. A reprint of Rafinesque's 'Fishes of the River Ohio,' edited by Dr. Call, will be issued by J. P. Morton & Co. in February next.

A book eleven inches broad in the back might well daunt the reviewer, and such is the English 'Reference Catalogue of Current Literature' for 1894 (London: Whitaker; New York: *Publishers' Weekly*). It is, however, the analogue of our 'Publishers' Trade-List Annual,' or, in other words, a congeries of booksellers' catalogues, alphabetically arranged, but with the addition of an index. In five years this book which is, in one sense, no book, has added an inch to its breadth, 26 to its 130 publishers, 111 pages to its index, and nearly 20,000 to its 68,000 index references. These figures are eloquent enough, and seem to cry out for a division of this excessive bulk. But the undertakers say no: a single volume is fundamental to the idea of such a trade tool. A temporary compromise might be found in the adoption of an octavo page, but this would be more costly to the individual houses than the extra binding for a second volume.

Perfunctory indeed is Mr. Austin Dobson's "introduction" to 'Old English Songs from Various Sources' (Macmillan), which owes its compilation to the illustrator, Mr. Hugh Thomson. And the designs themselves might be called perfunctory, for not a few are fairly wrung out of the couplets or quatrains which serve as a pretext for them. Each illustration has a page to itself, and faces the verse it belongs to; and, thus chopped up, the songs themselves lose in interest. Mr. Thomson affers comparison at various points with Abbey and with Caldecott, but fails to reach their level, while sometimes falling below his own. The book is prettily bound in green and gold.

Mr. Thomson appears to better advantage in another comely volume, with a gorgeous peacock cover, from the same house, 'Pride and Prejudice.' For this reprint Mr. George Saintsbury has been called in to furnish some prefatory remarks, which consist in a contention for this novel as the best of Miss Austen's, and a running commentary on the characters. It is a serious disquisition, and because of its anticipations it ought, of course, to be read last, not first.

A companionable little edition of 'The Christian Year' bears Keble's portrait and Macmillan's imprint on the title-page. It is meant not for show but for popular acceptance, and has the external neatness of the Golden Treasury Series which it extends.

The Scribners continue their handsome reissue, of English manufacture, of Henry Kingsley's novels with 'Austin Elliott' in one volume and 'The Recollections of Geoffry Hamlyn' in two. Good taste and judgment have presided over this enterprise.

Messrs. Putnam send us two volumes of their "Ariel Shakspere," of which we lately noticed the completion, as examples of the cheapest style (out of four). They are bound in garnet cloth, and to our thinking they are quite as presentable as the leather-bound of the next higher grade.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have brought out in good shape, with an excellent portrait of the author, Sir Edwin Arnold's 'Light of Asia,' fit for hand and pocket or for the shelf.

Prof. Hales is editing for Macmillan & Co. a series of students' handbooks covering the most important periods of English literature. The ages of Chaucer and Shakspere are to be undertaken by the general editor, that of Dryden by Mr. Garnett, and others by less well-known but capable scholars. The first of the series to appear is the 'Age of Pope,' a compact and neatly printed little volume of two hundred and fifty pages, by Mr. John Dennis. The style is clear, the treatment full, accurate, and sensible, the matter always interesting, though rarely in any way original. Two defects alone arrest the attention. Like most English writers on the same or similar subjects, the author is inclined to till his plot of soil after a somewhat conventional fashion. The age of Pope is to him an isolated unit, incapable of further subdivision and unrelated to its predecessors, its contemporaries, or its successors. He scarcely takes account, for instance, of the growing signs of romanticism in the very stronghold of English classicism, nor gives himself the trouble to outline the main principles of that general period of European classicism to which the age of Pope is but a corollary. Nor, again, does he give the student more than the slightest bibliographical information. A handbook of this sort can scarcely be expected to contain everything, but it should help the reader to a fairly complete conception of what the works are to which he should turn to supplement his knowledge.

Prof. Hempl of the University of Michigan has prepared a thirty-page manual, 'Chaucer's Pronunciation and the Spelling of the Ellesmere MS.' (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.), which will be of great assistance to teachers and students, and, indeed, to everybody who is not content to read Chaucer in a slovenly way. The subject is treated with admirable clearness and method. Trifling distinctions of sound are properly subordinated, and the main features of Chaucer's vowel and consonant system are well brought out. Prof. Hempl's well-known skill as a phonetician is a sufficient guaranty of the accuracy of the book.

Unhappy must be the candidates for "the Leaving Certificate, the University Local, and other Public Examinations" for whom Mr. J. Logie Robertson of Edinburgh Ladies' College prepared his 'History of English Literature' (Harpers). It is a genuine specimen of a race of text-books, now happily fast disappearing, in which history means a multitude of dates, and literature a multitude of names. Pope and Burns fall into the same period, and Mr. Saintsbury has twice as much space allotted to him as D. G. Rossetti. Of the latter the author merely relates (p. 332) that, "born in London, son of a Professor of Italian in King's College, [he] was a painter and poet of the pre-Raphaelite school." Apparently no attempt has been made to stimulate the pupil's love for literature, to give him important and necessary ideas in regard to the rise and general characteristics of the chief periods of our literature, or to train his mind by presenting to him a thoroughly organized and scientific but simple treatment of the subject. Worse yet, Mr. Robertson's style is dull and awkward and his literary vision limited.

Of an entirely different character is Mr. Pancoast's 'Introduction to English Literature' (Henry Holt & Co.), an adaptation for general use in high schools and academies of the same author's 'Representative English Literature,' which we noticed with approval on its appearance two years ago. In its earlier form it undertook to furnish the student with typical selections from various authors as well as with the matter necessary in a text-book on the history of our literature. The result was a somewhat bulky volume, likely to be of service particularly in schools without libraries. The present edition omits the extracts and expands the text, rendering the book more compact and increasing greatly its value. At times the treatment of particular men or books is evidently superficial, noticeably so in the case of Steele, whom the author declines to view through other eyes than those of Thackeray. It would be foolish, however, to expect faultless excellence in a work of this sort. It is enough that it treats the history of English literature as closely connected with general history, that the style is interesting, the conception broad and clear, the biographical details nicely subordinated to matters more important, and that, as we said of the book in its earlier form, not even the dullest pupil can study it without feeling the historical and logical continuity of English literature.

The late J. A. Symonds's 'Giovanni Boccaccio as Man and Author' (Charles Scribner's Sons), although scarcely more than an essay in book form, is evidently designed as a work of much the same sort as the same author's 'Introduction to the Study of Dante,' although it is much less elaborate and ambitious. In contents and form it is clearly an expansion of his well-known chapter on Boccaccio in the 'Renaissance in Italy,' with which, indeed, it has a number of pages in common. Like most of Mr. Symonds's historical work, especially that relating to the earlier centuries of Italian literature, this essay is written with accuracy in all essential matters, and with that unusual breadth of view, simplicity of outline, and clearness of style which have made the 'Renaissance in Italy' far more popular in England and America than, in the opinion of many experts, the author's rank as a scholar or an investigator deserved. It is probably due to Mr. Symonds's sudden death that the present volume is unprovided with what makes a book of this kind most useful, a good bibliography, or at least references to other works with the help of which the reader, fresh from the stimulus of this, will be glad to continue his study of the author under review.

'The American Army in the War of Secession' is the title of the translation of the report made to the French Government by Gen. de Chanal in 1865 (Leavenworth, Kansas: George A. Spooner). It has been very well translated by Lieut. M. J. O'Brien, Fifth U. S. Infantry, and is a well-digested and clear analysis of the organization of the army during the war of the Rebellion. Its special interest lies in the frank comparison of our army with the French and other European organizations, and the very high appreciation of the qualities which gave it efficiency. It affords the best possible evidence that the French expert found our army fully equal in practical usefulness and in actual warfare to any other, while in some respects he places its organization, its methods, and its value exceptionally high. As a comparative study the book will be a most useful one, and it is certainly a very encouraging one to the American soldier.

'Hoofs, Claws, and Antlers of the Rocky Mountains, by the Camera,' is the title of a striking series of photographic reproductions from life of large wild animals, with an introduction by Theodore Roosevelt, published by Frank S. Thayer at Denver, Col. Most of the photographs were taken by Mr. and Mrs. A. G.

Walliban. The difficulty of enlarging the views from the original negatives, and reproducing them by the half-tone process, has been measurably overcome, with the result of giving us some of the most lifelike pictures we have ever seen. Among the subjects treated are the black-tail or mule deer, the wapiti or elk, the antelope, buffalo, mountain sheep, mountain goat, wolf, bear, cougar, and beaver. One has to study such pictures as these to realize how far from nature are the conventional likenesses of animals in ordinary works on zoology. It will be as astonishing to most persons as were the results of the Muybridge process of instantaneous photographs of moving objects, which taught us that few persons know how even a horse uses his legs. Judging by the pictures now before us, we are more inclined than we were before to judge that Wolf of England has of all artists drawn animals most true to nature. To our eye, the plate of the buffalo cow and calf is the finest portrait in the book; but they are all extremely good, and the scenes in which the animals themselves are hardly more than specks on a broad expanse of prairie, give us decidedly novel as well as pleasurable sensations.

The Napiers and Nelson give a strong military and naval flavor to the fortieth volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan), to say nothing of minor admirals like Myngs and soldiers like the General Neill who lashed the Sepoys into licking up the blood-stains of Cawnpore, and then hung them. Nelson's story is told in nineteen pages, and is second in extent only to Newton's. The enormous Nelsonian "literature" is pronounced almost wholly untrustworthy. Newton, in his famous controversy with Leibnitz, is acquitted of all borrowing. A famous line of engineers, the Mylnes, is commemorated here, along with James Nasmyth, inventor of the steam-hammer, and also of that "flexible shaft, consisting of a close-coiled spiral wire, for driving small drills," which has been several times reinvented, and "is now in general use by dentists as a supposed American contrivance." The work is carried on in this volume to Nicholls.

A man of no literary pretensions, yet the writer of a very great book—a second-rate artist who thought himself a prodigious master—such was Benvenuto Cellini. His name is immortal, and he deserves, if ever a man did, to be ranked among "Artistes Célèbres"; and yet as M. Molinier shows once more in his monograph in that series (Paris: Librairie de *l'Art*), what remains of his authentic work does not at all justify his colossal reputation. "His works in sculpture," says M. Molinier, "are figures fit for the decoration of a salt-cellar, and—his salt-cellar is too much a work of sculpture." This epigrammatic judgment is eminently just, and places Cellini in his true rank. It is as the writer of his bragging and inimitable autobiography that the Florentine goldsmith and swashbuckler will always be known among the most picturesque figures of the literature of the world; and it is the vivid extracts from this autobiography that give the present work its savor.

Admirers of Rembrandt (which to-day is as much as to say all the world) will be interested in the publication by the Berlin (and New York) Photographic Company of a portfolio of seventeen photogravures from the pictures of the master in the gallery at Cassel. This museum is a little out of the beaten track of the tourist, but its collection of Rembrandt's works is known by students and critics to be one of the most important and interesting in existence, and it has never before been so adequately reproduced. Some of the plates are a little violent in light and shade, and lack the Rembrandtesque mellowness of tone; but they will prove a most welcome addition to the means of comparative study of the methods of the sombre poet of Amsterdam.

We have received from Wm. Heinemann, London, a 'Catalogue of the Accademia delle Belle Arti at Venice,' compiled by E. M. Keary, who describes the pictures themselves and sketches the lives of the painters. At the end are grouped good process cuts of twenty canvases by Bellini, Carpaccio, Mantegna, Tintoretto, Veronese, Titian, and other masters. This is the first English catalogue ever attempted for the Academy, and the publisher has in preparation a Catalogue of the Museo del Prado at Madrid, where the English-speaking visitor is even worse off than in Venice. The arrangement and accessories of the Keary Catalogue leave no hing to be desired.

Since September 30 M. Paul Verlaine has been publishing his "confessions" in the unspeakable *Fin de Siècle*. He had given before some pages of his life in his little book 'Mes Prisons.' So far, his later chapters are made up of poetic remembrances of childhood and early youth, which stand out, delicate as violets, in the midst of very odd surroundings.

There is a rapidly growing sentiment in favor of popular libraries in Germany, and efforts are making to secure their widespread establishment. A plan is on foot for a German periodical index on the plan of 'Poole.' It is in contemplation also to publish a German edition of W. I. Fletcher's 'Public Libraries in America,' lately brought out by Roberts Bros. in their "Columbian Knowledge Series."

—It is pleasant to find, in the *Atlantic* of this month, Dr. Birkbeck Hill, whose name is more familiar on scholarly bookshelves than at the end of magazine articles, discoursing on the characteristic theme of "Boswell's Proof-Sheets," and genially explaining to his American audience why the devout Johnsonian will, like himself, "henceforth have to cross the Atlantic and end his pilgrimage on the pleasant shores of Lake Erie." The leisurely pace and admiring vein of the comment on the sheets in question, show the spirit of Boswell himself animating the pen of an indefatigable editor and commentator, and help to revive the conviction, almost extinguished by constant contradiction, that time is long. At the opposite pole of literary handling, the brief monograph on the Emperor Hadrian's briefest of odes achieves its success by scrupulous simplification of its critical method; the end intended — a fresh translation of the strange lyric—being kept well in sight from first paragraph to last. Some studies in Japanese character and manners, by Lafcadio Hearn, are excessively easy to read, owing to their lightness of touch and versatility of form. They will probably prove equally easy to forget, owing to their general vagueness and lack of solidity of substance. On the side of good citizenship, a vigorous writer, under the oracular title of "Tammany Points the Way," attempts to reform the point of view of the reformers, or at least of those reformers who overlook some primal human instincts, and put their faith in cunningly devised systems of city government, in purified primaries, in the education of the masses, or even in the political value of the self-interest of those who are already "the educated." His case in favor of reliance upon the force of personal leadership, and of enthusiasm for a common cause, is worthy the consideration of the thoughtful, though the logic of events since the printing of the paper may call for a reconsideration of some of its premises. The retrospective side of public affairs is treated with an able grasp by Mr. Bancroft, who writes of Seward's political attitude in 1860–1861. Of the leading article of the number, a story by Mary Hallock Foote, the proof will be in the finishing next month.

—There is less matter in *Harper's* that tempts to prolixity of comment. Apart from "A Painter's Impressions of Rajpootana," and Poultney Bigelow's less laboriously descriptive account of "The Cossack as Cowboy, Soldier, and Citizen"—both, it is needless to say, well and amply illustrated—the number, where it is not fiction or verse (poetry by stretch of courtesy), is given up to a persistent adherence to homebred themes. Extremes of such themes as wide as from Mr. Janvier's "Sea-Robbers of New York" to "The Religion of the Sioux" meet between the covers, but the impression of homogeneity nevertheless remains. Of the fiction perhaps the less said the better, although this remark is not applicable to the conclusion of Mr. Warner's "Golden House," of which there will be more in another place.

—Sameness of another sort—a uniform thinness of quality—is the pervading quality of *Scribner's*, with the proverbial exception to the rule. "Election Night in a Newspaper Office" jumps well with the moment, and the really admirable illustrations, from photographs, to "English Railroad Methods," are worthy of all praise. But when the former has been characterized as brisk and timely, the last word has been said in its favor, and the latter need a letterpress on a par with themselves. "The American Girls' Art Club in Paris" may be accepted as the necessary recognition, in one form or another, of the woman student's present importance, and "True Pictures among the Poor" may stand to the complaisant reader for a contribution to another subject that an editor cannot now afford to overlook. But genuine satisfaction with the number must be derived from its wolf story, than which, in its kind, nothing better could be desired. The destroyer and biographer of the "King of Currumpaw" has used an artist's self-restraint in keeping himself in the background. Life in a corner of northern New Mexico becomes incidentally vivid in his narrative, and it is his final triumph as a story-teller that, when superior human cunning has at last prevailed, the entrapped hero is still permitted to keep the reader's admiration and interest on his side.

—A better article on a sadder theme than Mr. Riis has written in the *Century*, the reader of current literature need not expect often to meet with. "The Making of Thieves in New York" is its pregnant title—a title which would still hold good if it should be amplified and altered for the worse to "an exposure of the failure on a colossal scale of one of our vaunted democratic institutions," inasmuch as it is no other than a failure in the working of the public-school system that is responsible for the wholesale turning out of youthful criminals. What school boards leave undone in this direction the government of reformatories does not fail to do. Mr. Riis fortunately does not expose abuses without showing ways of correcting them. The only missing link is between men and means. The cuts which accompany his article are of the grimly

expository kind, as far removed as possible from the pretty presentment of the magazine picture. To turn to a brighter side, there is still another glimpse here of the family group of the Hawthornes, elder and juvenile, portrayed chiefly by the rainbow-hued pen of Mrs. Hawthorne, with Lenox in the background. The editing of this fresh batch of letters is by Rose Hawthorne Lathrop, and their welcome is assured in advance. An M.P.'s lively and picturesque recollections of the way the Chinese work and live in the city of Canton finds the curiosity of the reading world at its flood, while the account of "Washington in Lincoln's Time" supplies the proper modicum of American historical study to an agreeably varied number, in which the curtain finally falls upon Mrs. Burton Harrison's "Bachelor Maid." Prof. William M. Sloane's "Life of Napoleon Bonaparte" begins its course, on the contrary; but its preluding does not provoke one to prophesy of great things or otherwise.

—An interesting movement toward uniformity in at least one branch of preparatory study has probably proved entirely successful. A year ago the association of the colleges and preparatory schools in the Middle States and Maryland appointed a joint committee of college professors and preparatory-school teachers to present a scheme of uniform requirements in English for admission to colleges in the Middle States and Maryland. This committee was fortunately able to act in unison with a similar committee appointed by the corresponding association in New England, and with a third committee from the New England Commission of Colleges. Their joint recommendations have within the last few weeks been adopted by both the New England bodies, and are soon, with every prospect of approval, to be brought before the association in the Middle States. Meanwhile a similar movement in the Northern Central States, originating in the universities of Chicago, Michigan, and Wisconsin, has reached practically the same conclusions. The result, one of the first tangible fruits of the recommendations of the national committee, will in all probability be the adoption of substantially the same requirements in English for entrance to colleges throughout the greater part of the country, and will undoubtedly exert a strong unifying and stimulating influence on the teaching of English in all secondary schools. The suggested requirements throw greater stress on the study of English literature, and tend to place the entrance examinations in English on a par with those in Latin and Greek, to which from time immemorial they have in most institutions been subordinated.

—London has been steadily ranging itself into two camps for the great School Board fight on November 22 over the religious question. The operation of the compulsory-education clauses, passed in 1876, is another subject on which opinion may hereafter be divided. Compulsion is already declared by some a dead-letter because (1) the School Board officers whose duty it is to beat up children who attend no school, or attend too irregularly to receive any benefit, are not responsible either to the teachers or to the school managers, but merely fill up forms which are sent to a body so far removed from the district and so busy as the London School Board. (2.) When cases of parents refusing to send their children to school are tried before the London magistrates, these almost invariably give a decision against the School Board and in favor of recalcitrant parents. In a word, the magistrates seem to be opposed to a national system of education, and cast their vote in favor of the "liberty" of parents. (3.) But the gravest reason for the failure of compulsion is the inability of the Board to provide sufficient accommodation for the children. These numbered in 1893 close upon 575,000, and every year there is a notable increase in the population. In the same year there was a deficiency of school-places in the borough of Chelsea of 5,500; in Hackney, 8,800. In six London districts there was a total deficiency of 32,000 places. Since education was declared free in September, 1892, there has been an enormous increase throughout the kingdom of young children between three and five attending the schools. As no economy was effected by keeping these "youths" at home, some 40,000 or 50,000 found their way to the infants' department, and have doubtless contributed to the difficulties of Boards in providing places for the children. The classes are of enormous size. A member of the present Board found fifty-three classes in nine schools; the number of scholars ranged from 80 to 112, a single teacher undertaking each class. The expenditure of the London School Board is some £2,500,000 per annum.

—The National Gallery has within the few months of its new Directorship made some valuable additions to the Italian, Flemish, and English schools, the promptness in exhibiting which deserves all praise. The new Italian pictures of note are from the collections of Lord Northbrook and Lady Eastlake:

"The 'Agony in the Garden,' by Mantegna," writes a correspondent, "is perhaps the most important. At a first glance one is struck by a resemblance of the design to Giovanni Bellini's picture of this subject in the adjoining room; but when one comes to compare the two, one sees that it is the general character of the country, the treatment of the rocks especially, and the intensity of feeling in the figures, that suggest a resemblance, the arrangement of the subject differing entirely. It is, however, affirmed by some authorities on Italian art that Bellini painted this very picture from a design in Mantegna's sketch-book. The 'St. Jerome in his Study,' by Antonello da Messina, is a gem of the most minute and perfect execution, only a foot square in size. The Saint is seated at his desk reading in a little wooden room within a larger marble hall, with a colonnade on either side, wherein the lion wanders at ease, while peacocks are picking up grain in the foreground, and delightful peeps of distant country show through the columns. The panelling of the Saint's room is full of comfortable contrivances. There are shelves in which books and pots are stowed; his towel hangs on a nail, his hat, of the same red as his gown, is on a chair beside him; every detail is painted with extreme love and care, though all are fused in admirable general effect, showing that although Antonello was the first Italian painter who learned to paint in oil from the Flemish masters, none ever surpassed him. A Filippino Lippi from Lady Eastlake's collection is very lovely in design—a Madonna and infant Christ offering seeds from a pomegranate to the little St. John. The 'Portrait of a Gentleman' by Terborch is an excellent example of this master, and illustrates the best qualities of the Dutch school. The gentleman, in a black suit of various materials, stands against a background of gray wall with a red table at his side, and chair to match. The painting is solemn and dignified in its simplicity of color and the head is very full of character. Rembrandt's 'Christ before Pilate' is a brown monochrome study very forcible in light and shade. 'Tasting,' by Le Nain, is the only French addition, while in the English section we have 'Christ Washing Peter's Feet,' by Ford Madox Brown, a picture of immense vigor and originality in its color and in its design. A precursor of the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood, in this picture Madox Brown has introduced portraits of several of that body as disciples, viz., D. G. Rossetti, William Rossetti, Holman Hunt, Deverell, F. G. Stephen, etc. The head of Christ is full of feeling, and compares well with the robust aquiline type of Peter, whose feet he is wiping The copper bowl in the foreground gives the highest note of color, which is kept up throughout in great intensity. The realistic qualities of this work and its freshness of conception and sincerity are very striking, and they seem to combine modern aspirations with the earnest spirit of early Italian masters. 'Pegwell Bay,' by William Dyce, R.A., is well known to those who have taken any interest in the art movement in England in the earlier part of this century. It is a very carefully painted study of sands, rocks, and sea shore, with people in the costume of the time, crinoline and pork-pie hats, gathering mussels, but very gray and cold in its general aspect. Another picture of W. Dyce lately added is 'St. John leading the Virgin Mary from the Tomb.' It is not without tenderness of expression and a certain affinity with Italian masters in its simplicity of design and purity of color, but it is a weak composition, which does not show Dyce to have been as remarkable an artist as he really was. Another English artist now represented here is John Lewis, R.A., the painter of Eastern landscape. 'Edfou, Upper Egypt,' is the work which has found its way into the National Collection. It is characteristic enough of the artist's dry, hard manner of depicting Oriental scenes."

## MONRO'S GREEK MUSIC.

*The Modes of Ancient Greek Music.* By D. B. Monro. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1894. Pp. xvi, 144.

THERE are subjects in archæology of which we know next to nothing; and although we may regret our ignorance in a general way, we do not greatly fret over it. There are others about which we know so much that we cannot bear to know so little. Greek music belongs to the latter class. It is a subject so well known to specialists that they are able to compose under the rules and in some of the scales peculiar to ancient music; and yet there are, in our knowledge of it, gaps and vexatious questions peculiarly distressing to those who do not share with Mr. Monro the pessimistic view that "possibly a large portion of what has passed into the domain of 'well authenticated' fact is complete misapprehension."

One of the most vexatious, and certainly the most vexed, questions in Greek music concerns the nature of the Greek modes. Were they analogous to what we call modes in modern music, or were they something quite different? In modern music we have but two modes, a major mode and a minor mode, which latter is by some regarded as two modes because its descending scale uses different notes from the ascending scale. If we start an upward octave scale at C, the major scale proceeds by seven steps to the next higher C, and each step is one tone higher than its predecessor, except the fourth and the eighth, which are only a semitone higher. If we start a minor ascending scale, the semi-tones will be the third and the eighth. Modern modes, then, differ in the position occupied by the semi-tones within the octave. From any note, black or white, on the piano scale, a scale may be run in either of these modes without changing the character of the mode, which is therefore seen to have nothing to do with pitch.

Most scholars, and among them such eminent names as Boeckh, Westphal, Gevaert, Von Jan, Reinach, and Donkin, are agreed on the following propositions: that the ancient Greek modes were perfectly analogous to our modes; that their essential characteristic was the position of the fractional tones or, in

other words, the internal structure of the octave; that their modality was independent of the pitch of the octave scale; that the names Dorian, Phrygian, Lydian, etc., first used to distinguish the modes, *i. e.*, the internal structure of the octave, were afterward also used to distinguish what we call keys, *i. e.*, scales of a different pitch irrespective of their internal structure. For we must never lose sight of the fact that a scale fixed as to pitch may be of any mode, in our modern sense; and a scale fixed as to mode may be of any pitch, just as a black horse may be of any weight and a heavy horse may be of any color. The two classifications cover different ground and do not interfere. On the other side Mr. Monro holds (p. 5) that the names Dorian, etc., were not applied to modes as well as keys; that in the earlier periods of Greek music the scales in use, whether called τόνοι or ἁρμονίαι, differed primarily in pitch.

What makes this abstract question peculiarly interesting is the fact that Plato and Aristotle approve of some modes and disapprove of others, for educational purposes, because of their moral influence for better or for worse. The concrete question, as debated between the group of scholars first named and the author of this book, is whether Plato and Aristotle objected to or approved of certain music because of its pitch or because of its modality—*i. e.*, the internal structure of its scale.

There are, we presume, few, if any, musicians who will not feel that in this form the question answers itself. The proposition that the peculiar effect of a piece of music upon the hearer's soul depends on its pitch rather than on the internal structure of its scale, will strike most musical persons as simply preposterous. We know that even among skilled musicians there are many who could not with absolute certainty name notes of a familiar scale heard singly; and we may boldly assert that very few piano-tuners carry concert pitch so truly in their ear that they would venture to tune an untuned piano without referring to tuning-fork or pipe, or could tell the difference in pitch of two pianos heard at a considerable interval of time. To most ears "Yankee Doodle" in G does not differ in character from the same tune in C; and that is a considerably larger interval than anybody claims for the older Greek modes. On the other hand, there are few persons with any music in them who would not instantly detect a great difference in character between "Yankee Doodle" in its own major mode and "Yankee Doodle" played in the minor. The minor mode has such a peculiar *ethos* that very sensitive children are sometimes moved to tears by it, and even babes have been known to cease their play and look desolate when a few minor chords were struck on the piano. A high soprano singing a sad tune in the highest register of the human voice does not thereby give it a gay or lively character, nor does a rollicking song sound melancholy when sung by a basso profundo; but in either case a change from major to minor, or vice versa, would alter the whole character of the music.

If we, trained as we are to a fixed and absolute pitch determined scientifically by the number of its vibrations, find it impossible to be sure of the pitch of a note heard casually, it must have been far more difficult for a Greek to do this in the absence of any standard pitch; quite impossible, for example, to say whether a tune was pitched in the Dorian key of D flat or in the Hypolydian key of C, which differ by a single semitone. On the other hand, it seems incredible that a difference in character which even our babies apprehend should have been either unperceived or considered as of no account by a people so æsthetic and so sensitive in matters of art as the ancient Greeks.

We therefore approach Mr. Monro's argument with a feeling that he will find it very difficult to prove his case. This is our bias, and we freely confess it. Let us now premise such examination as we can give to the author's reasoning, with the remark that he too approaches the question with a bias at least equally strong, and that this bias not only affects his judgment, but even his translations of ancient texts, which he unconsciously colors into harmony with his own preconceived theory. The passages quoted and discussed are taken from authors representing the better part of six centuries, from Pratinas (B. C. 500) to Plutarch (A. D. 80). A full discussion of them is, of course, impossible here. They fall naturally into two groups, those anterior to Aristoxenus, who, as a pupil of Aristotle, belongs to the latter half of the fourth century, and those subsequent to the reforms introduced by him in the musical art. Dismissing the passage from Pratinas, which may be translated to support either theory, the first passage of the earlier group is that in the 'Republic' of Plato, quoted on p. 7. There Socrates objects to certain ἁρμονίαι as plaintive and to others as "soft and convivial," while he approves of the Dorian and Phrygian as conducive to manliness. When we reflect that the difference in pitch between the Dorian and some of the rejected modes was considerably less than that between the "concert pitch" of to day and the "classical pitch" of Beethoven's day, we fail to see how such a difference could even be discerned, to say nothing of its supposed influence on the ethos of the music. Yet the author insists on translating χαλαραί "low-pitched," whereas Liddell and Scott translate it "loose, languid, effeminate"—in short the Latin *mollis*, a word which has passed into the terminology of music in some European languages to denote the flattening of a note, in German to denote the minor mode, but nowhere the transposition of a scale. Now, if χαλαραί refers to pitch at all, it is far more credible to refer it, as Von Jan does ('Baumeister Denkmäler,' p. 978), to the flattening of particular notes in the octave. Such new modes would naturally be called flat modes, just as the minor is called *Moll* by the Germans on account of its diminished third.

It is curious that the author should have overlooked what seems to us a glaring contradiction in his argument. Plato objects to the Ionian as χαλαρά. Our author interprets this "low-pitched." The Dorian, therefore, which is not objected to, should be higher-pitched. Now Mr. Monro regards ἁρμονία and τόνος as "two different names for the same thing" (p. 28, 29), and in the table given on page 128 the Ionian τόνος is not lower, as it should be, but higher by a semitone than the Dorian. The same is true of the Lydian, also one of the χαλαραὶ ἁρμονίαι, which, in the same table and also in the one on p. 127, appears to be a full major-third higher than the Dorian.

The author's treatment of the next witness, Heraclides Ponticus (390 B. C.), is quite characteristic. Heraclides is an ugly witness; he qualifies a certain mode as not a mode at all, but τρόπον τινὰ θαυμαστὸν σχήματος ἁρμονίας, "a wondrous sort of modification of the scheme of a *harmonia*"; and if *harmonia* means pitch, no one will deny that the "modification of the scheme of a pitch" must indeed be a wondrous thing. But he is still more perverse; he protests "against those who do not appreciate differences of kind (τὰς κατ' εἶδος διαφοράς) and are guided only by the high or low pitch of the notes (τῇ τῶν φθόγγων ὀξύτητι καὶ βαρύτητι), and declares that a mode ought to have a distinct moral or emotional character (εἶδος ἤθους ἢ πάθους). All this is dead against our author's views, and terribly hard to get rid of. Mr. Monro's bias is equal to the occasion. He simply denies the authority of Heraclides—chiefly, as it seems, because Heraclides refuses to regard the Lydian as a mode. And yet, a few pages further, pp. 13, 14, when Aristotle, whom he regards as his own witness, quotes without disapproval the views of some who thought that there were but two real modes, the Dorian and the Phrygian, this does not seem to disqualify the Stagirite as a witness in such matters. As to all that Heraclides says of the εἶδος, it is brushed aside with the remark that he did not necessarily use εἶδος in the technical sense of "species" of the octave, that is, as what we regard as the Greek modes. This is about as reasonable as if one should say that the word "gravity" in a work on physics should be understood to mean "an inaptitude for laughter." For Heraclides is a scientific person writing in a purely technical way. If we are at liberty to explain away such a writer's statements as made in some Pickwickian sense that does not clash with our theories, then all appeals to testimony are fundamentally nugatory.

The author is equally unsatisfactory in dealing with Aristotle's profound remark that melodies reflect the moral temper of men, ἐν δὲ τοῖς μέλεσιν αὐτοῖς ἐστι μιμήματα τῶν ἠθῶν. If we all recognize the truth that a people's music reflects its character, we also know and feel that it is not a difference of pitch that makes the Hungarian, the Polish, the Scotch music so characteristic. In the last-named, for example, we all know that it is the pentatonic scale that gives to the old Scotch melodies, however pitched, their peculiar ἦθος, and that the same effects may be produced by composing new ones on the same scale.

We have given only a few specimens, out of a very great number noted by us, of Mr. Monro's methods and his too evident bias. No more could be required of a reviewer with limited space at his command. We must now briefly consider his treatment of Aristoxenus. This writer wrote a treatise on music, in which the chapter on keys, which has mostly perished, follows a chapter on systems, "by which he means a scale consisting of a certain succession of intervals." "Such a system," says Mr. Monro, "may vary in absolute pitch, and the τόνοι, or keys, are simply the different degrees at which a particular system is taken." This, though loosely expressed, is all true enough; but Mr. Monro does not appear to us to see what it leads to. A system (a word of very comprehensive meaning) in which the relative pitch of the notes is settled is nothing but a fixed scale, similar, in this, to our piano scale. Now, such a fixed scale, apart from the question of γένος, which has no place here, must either proceed by seven steps to the octave, or else it must divide the octave into its thirteen semitones. In the latter case the keys, *i. e.*, "the degrees of pitch at which the system is taken" (p. 16), would be, one and all, what we call the chromatic scale, a mere succession of semitones. The keys of Aristoxenus are nothing of the sort; they proceed by varying intervals. If, on the other hand, the system is based on the octave by seven steps, a shift from one note to another would give a different εἶδος each time. This, too, we find not to be the case. All the tones of Aristoxenus are in

one and the same mode, the Hypophrygian, having the semitones in the third and sixth place. What, then, did Aristoxenus do? We think it was this: he formed a complete system by semitones, thirteen to each octave, and taught the musicians of his day which ones out of the thirteen were to be used when they wished to play a given mode in that system beginning on different notes, and left a complete diagram for one mode to show his method. This is precisely what we have to learn when we wish to play major or minor scales on different keys. We learn what notes of the fixed piano-scale, black and white, must be taken into our scale, and we signify our choice by either sharpening or flattening certain of the white notes, which alone have names or places on the stave to connote them, by certain signs. If we used twelve letters or signs instead of seven letters combined with signs for flat and sharp, we should get just such keys or scales as Aristoxenus has left us in each of our two modes. This is what he means when he complains that his predecessors have not discussed the subject of keys, or directed how they should be taken—*τίνα τρόπον ληπτέον*.

When he adds that musicians assign the place of scales variously, what else can he mean than that they give different names to them, as if one should call B flat Dorian and G flat Hypophrygian? For, if keys are simply different starting-points on a given scale, there can evidently be no question of place that is not a question as to the assignment of names. There are clear evidences in Aristoxenus of his recognition of modality as distinct from pitch. Thus, when he points out the incompleteness of former theories (p. 49), he complains that the writers have treated only of systems in the enharmonic genus, omitting the diatonic and chromatic, and he adds: *περὶ δὲ τῶν ἄλλων γενῶν τε καὶ σχημάτων ἐν αὐτῷ τε τῷ γένει τούτῳ καὶ τοῖς λοιποῖς οὐδ' ἐπεχείρει οὐδεὶς καταμανθάνειν*. That is, they omitted the other genera and also the *schemata* in this and the other genera. So that, in his view, there were three things of which to take note —system, genus, and *schema;* and it is hard to say what *schema* means if it be not an equivalent for modality. Again, in speaking of the work of Eratocles, he says plainly enough that unless the pentachord and tetrachord (of which, when conjoint, the octave consists) are first determined as to form, *i. e.*, modality, the schemes are more than seven; and, in fact, as each pentachord may have its semitone in any of five places, and each tetrachord in any of four, and the two have one note in common, the possible combinations are fifteen.

Mr. Monro treats Plutarch in the same remarkable way. The only passage from Plutarch which has much bearing on the mode question is one in which it is stated that Lamprocles of Athens noticed that, in the Mixolydian, the disjunctive tone was at the upper end of the scale, and reformed the scale accordingly. This statement, quoted by Plutarch from a certain Lysis, possibly the Pythagorean philosopher of that name, is of course flatly opposed to Mr. Monro's theories that modes and keys were the same thing; and he deals with this witness as he dealt with Heraclides Ponticus. He challenges the authority of Lysis because "nothing else seems to be known of him." Not a few received facts in archæology rest ultimately on the authority of persons equally unknown; and Plutarch in no way distinguishes the authority of this writer from that of many whom he merely quotes by name, as, for example, Glaucus the Italian.

We have confined our remarks to that part of Mr. Monro's book which answers to its title. There are, scattered through the volume, many valuable remarks on other points in Greek music. The author is a very learned man and an excellent Hellenist, and whatever he says when he is not riding his particular hobby is worthy of the most respectful attention. Besides the two tables already referred to, the appendix contains the music of the "Orestes" of Euripides, vv. 338–344, the musical part of the Seikelos inscription, and the hymns recently discovered at Delphi, an account of which was given in the *Nation* of May 10, 1894. The book has a table of contents and a list of passages quoted, but lacks a general index, which would have been particularly useful because the author's statements with regard to any given point are often scattered through different parts of the volume, and are somewhat difficult to collate.

## A MOUNTAIN ENTHUSIAST.

*The Mountains of California.* By John Muir. The Century Co. Pp. 381.

Mr. Muir's delightful volume, which comes to jaded city-prisoners like a breeze from a mountain cañon, will at once take its place as a California classic by the side of Whitney's book on the Yosemite Valley, and Clarence King's 'Mountaineering in the Sierra Nevada.' More than any other Californian of the past or present is he qualified by knowledge, sympathy, and personal experience, combined with the habit of scientific observation and the gift of a poetic style, to write a monograph on what he pronounces the "most divinely beautiful" of all the mountain chains he has seen. For a quarter of a century the Sierra Nevada Mountains have been his haunt in summer, often in winter, too. "Going to the mountains" is to him "like going home"; sometimes, even as the bees and butterflies, he is "too richly and homogeneously joy-filled to be capable of partial thought"; at other times he finds in regard to the influence of these surroundings that "instead of producing a dissipated condition, the mind is fertilized and stimulated and developed like sun-fed plants." He is his own guide and cook; his outfit consists of a bag of bread, a package of tea, a cup, an ice-axe. No need of blankets or hammocks where one can, in the meadows, lie down almost anywhere. "And what glorious botanical beds I had!" he exclaims. "Oftentimes on awaking I would find several new species leaning over me and looking me full in the face, so that my studies would begin before rising." In the higher regions there are natural pine thickets, or one can make beds of the boughs of the red fir, compared with which, "even in the matter of sensuous ease, any combination of cloth, steel-springs, and feathers seems vulgar"; in these alone one can enjoy the "clear, deathlike sleep of the tired mountaineer." The pine thickets, where the branches form a roof overhead and are bent down around the sides, "are the best bed-chambers the high mountains afford—snug as squirrel-nests, well ventilated, full of spicy odors, and with plenty of wind-played needles to sing one to sleep." In the highest regions he takes a hint from the animals and their choice of the dwarf pine as a dormitory: "During stormy nights I have often camped snugly beneath the interlacing arches of this little pine. The needles, which have accumulated for centuries, make fine beds, a fact well known to other mountaineers, such as deer and wild sheep, who paw out oval hollows and lie beneath the larger trees in safe and comfortable concealment."

These details regarding the author's personal habits are scattered incidentally throughout the book. Mr. Muir never poses like Thoreau, whom he otherwise resembles in his worship of nature and intimacy with wild animals; he keeps his personality in the background, nor does he, like Thoreau, constantly drag in human analogies, and moralizings on man and his ways. The beauties and sublimities of the California mountains have for him such an absorbing fascination that man is crowded out, and even the writer usually disappears from sight. We have here nature pure and unadulterated, in chapters on the chain as a whole, the glaciers, the snow, the passes, the glacier lakes, the glacier meadows, the forests, the Douglas squirrel, wind-storms in the forests, the river floods, Sierra thunder-storms, the water-ouzel, wild sheep, the foothills, the bee pastures—sixteen chapters, each a gem of landscape or animal painting.

Mr. Muir believes that the Yosemite Valley was once a lake, and that it was carved originally, like all the Sierra scenery, by the ice which in the last glacial age covered this region perhaps more than a mile in average depth. The glaciers carved the mountain sides and the passes, and in gradually receding they left the glacier lakes, whose place, again, was taken by the glacier meadows, looking smooth as cultivated lawns, yet without their "painful, licked, nipped, repressed appearance"; for their graceful grasses and flowers respond to the caresses of every breeze. Until the discovery of the Black Mountain glacier by Mr. Muir in 1871, it was not known that there were any glaciers left in the Sierra. Now it is known they exist all the way down from the great Muir glacier, in Alaska, with its two hundred tributaries, to the much smaller ones of the Sierra, Mt. Shasta having three. The highest of all the peaks, nevertheless, Mt. Whitney, has not been able to preserve any of its ice-rivers from the rays of the southern sun, even at its altitude of 14,898 feet. Summer after summer did Mr. Muir hunt for new glaciers, driving in stakes to measure their rate of motion, which he found to be very slow—in the Maclure Glacier only an inch a day, whereas that of the Muir Glacier in Alaska is from five to ten feet. The lowest Sierra glacier is at an elevation of 9,500 feet.

Most of the sublime phenomena witnessed by Mr. Muir are accessible to any one who will spend a summer and a winter in the Sierra Nevada. But there are some of which he only can make sure who is willing, like our author, to give up half his life to intercourse with the mountains. Ninety-nine tourists in a hundred see the Sierra only in summer, but Mr. Muir used to "look forward with delight to the approaching winter, with its wondrous storms," when he would be warmly snow-bound in his Yosemite cabin, with plenty of bread and books. Thus it happened that (in 1873) he witnessed a perfect display of what he pronounces the most magnificent of all storm phenomena he ever saw—silvery banners of snow dust attached to the peaks of the Merced group like streamers at a masthead, each "from half a mile to a mile in length, slender at the point of attachment, then widening gradually as it extended from the peak until it was about 1,000 or 1,500 feet in breadth." Some of these snow banners extended from peak to peak, while others overlapped.

The mountains of California are a region of

startling contrasts and amazing climatic juxtapositions. While some places are buried forty feet under snow, while avalanches crash from the heights, making wide paths of desolation on the forested slopes, and while the low pine boughs are frozen so stiff that a horseman can ride safely over them, the sun may come out for days, inviting birds and squirrels to gambol and flowers to bloom. "It often happens that while one side of a lake basin is hopelessly snow-buried and frozen, the other, enjoying sunshine, is adorned with beautiful flower gardens. Some of the smaller lakes are extinguished in an instant by a heavy avalanche either of rocks or snow." But there are plenty left. In Mr. Muir's opinion, every lake in the Sierra is a glacier lake, and he estimates their number at 1,500, the Merced River Basin alone having 131. There are no fish in these lakes, but plenty of frogs. Glacier meadows have now taken the place of about 3,000 of these former lakes, and furnish ideal camping-places and a botanists' paradise. We read of larkspurs seven or eight feet high. "Here," writes Mr. Muir of one place, "the lilies were higher than my head, and the sunshine was warm enough for palms. Yet the snow around the arctic willows was plainly visible only four miles away, and between were narrow specimen zones of all the principal climates of the globe." Even in the glacial regions the sparseness and repressed character of the vegetation "is caused more by want of soil than by harshness of climate," for wherever a few rods of well-ground moraine chips have been dumped, there we find groves of spruce and pine, patches of willows and huckleberry bushes.

"A Wind-Storm in the Forests" is one of the most delightful prose-poems ever penned. Mr. Muir describes what he saw and felt during a violent storm when he had climbed, on a Douglas spruce, a hundred feet high, to the summit of a lofty ridge, clinging to its elastic top for hours, describing with it arcs of twenty to thirty degrees. What he saw in his "travels on a tree top," and what he heard—each tree "singing its own song, and making its own peculiar gesture"—the reader must look for in the book itself; but we cannot refrain from quoting his admirable analysis of Sierra mountain air—the delicious fragrance that intoxicates all the fortunate visitors to the Yosemite:

"The fragrance of the woods was less marked than that produced during warm rain, when so many balsamic buds and leaves are steeped like tea: but, from the chafing of resiny branches against each other, and the incessant attrition of myriads of needles, the gale was spiced to a very tonic degree. And besides the fragrance from these local sources there were traces of scents brought from afar. For this wind came first from the sea, rubbing against its fresh, briny waves, then distilled through the redwoods, threading rich, ferny gulches, and spreading itself in broad, undulating currents over many a flower enamelled ridge of the coast mountains, then across the golden plains, up the purple foothills, and into these piny woods with the varied incense gathered by the way."

Twenty illustrations of various mountain trees—ranging from the graceful, slender *Pinus tuberculata* to the giant Sequoia—add to the interest of the long chapter on the forests, in which the section on the Big Trees occupies a prominent place. In the opinion of Mr. Muir, these Big Trees might continue to excite the awe and admiration of man for ever, were it not for man's own depredations. Their vitality is practically inexhaustible. They produce abundance of seeds, millions being ripened annually by the same tree; he has found eighty-six saplings in the soil of an uprooted tree; groups are widely scattered—as widely as ever, as he gives good reason for believing; drought does not hurt them, as they withstand it best of all trees; but they suffer most of all trees from fires, especially those set by the sheep-herders; and unless protective measures are speedily taken, in a few decades nothing but scarred monuments will be left.

Mr. Muir defends the mountains of California from the charge that there is hardly any animal life in them. The dusty tourist who goes to the Yosemite in a noisy stage will, indeed, see little of life. But if he will, Thoreau-like, or Muir-like, make his home in the woods, he will soon find himself surrounded by animal friends. He will make the pleasing discovery that wild sheep are less timid than the tame. Mr. Muir was once snowbound on Mount Shasta for three days, and when the storm abated he found that a band of wild sheep had weathered the storm under a group of dwarf pines a few yards above his storm nest. To these animals he devotes a separate chapter, and another to the water-ouzel, which makes its home near the waterfalls, never leaving them, and which, like the mocking-bird, always has new strains in its song. Very amusing is his biography of the bold and omnipresent Douglas squirrel, who handles one-half of all the cones; he throws them on the ground, and is often obliged to hasten down and drive away lazy pilferers below. He is not good for food: "eating his flesh is like chewing gum." Then there are the humming-birds, woodpeckers, grouse, quails, crows, jays, and many other birds; deer, bears, beavers digging chambers in the glacier meadows, etc. Of bears Mr. Muir has no fear—like them, going through thickets on all fours; and in following the bear trails he "often found tufts of hair on the bushes, where they had forced themselves through." Indians, too, he has met occasionally—Mono Indians, clad in geological dirt and rabbit skins, begging whiskey and tobacco, on their way to the Yosemite to get acorns and a trout supper; or gathering the wild rye, which grows to a height of six to eight feet, or the pine nuts, of which one man can gather thirty to forty bushels in a season—food for man, horse, dog, as well as for birds and squirrels. The crop is larger than the State's wheat crop, but hardly a bushel in a thousand is ever gathered. White men have been killed by Indians for cutting down these bread trees—a penalty which would have been more justifiable in the case of the murderers of the venerable Sequoias.

Among the fifty-three illustrations in this volume there are many beauties; that of Mt. Hood alone does not seem to us a good likeness. The *Century* articles on the Greater Yosemite are not included in this volume, which makes one hope that there will be another.

## RECENT LAW BOOKS.

Mr. Frank J. Goodnow's work on 'Comparative Administrative Law' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) is the first general work on the subject in the English language. Special branches have been treated in much detail in English and American works on constitutional law, taxation, public corporations and officers; and there is a rich Continental literature. Mr. Goodnow deals, in a large way, with the administrative systems, national and local, of the United States, England, France, and Germany. The work is not, and does not profess to be, exhaustive. It is intended especially for the use and encouragement of beginners in the study of the subject. As the author states, the great problems of public law with which the present age has to deal are administrative rather than constitutional in character; and this is specially true of the problems awaiting solution in the United States. It is, therefore, highly important that the study of the subject should be assisted, and a comparison like that here instituted is obviously the scientific and interesting way of presenting it. In style, method, and scope, the book seems to be well calculated to accomplish its purpose.

Prof. Joseph H. Beale, jr., of the Harvard Law School, has prepared 'Cases on Criminal Law' (Cambridge: *Harvard Law Review* Publishing Association), a selection intended chiefly for the use of classes in law schools. As in the other collections used at the Harvard Law School, the headnotes of cases are omitted, that the student may be taught to extract the principle of a case for himself; and to render the book useful to the practitioner an index of the authorities on each subject has been added. The cases are chronologically arranged and are carefully classified under appropriate headings and sub-headings. The work of selection and classification has been excellently done, and the book is admirably adapted to exhibit the historical development of the law of crimes and to assist the student to understand the evolution of legal principles. The method of study which this book is designed to serve, proceeds upon the theory that in order thoroughly to understand an existing principle of law it is necessary to know its origin and growth. It is not a quick and easy method, but it has borne good fruit at the institution from which Mr. Beale's work emanates.

'The Historical Development of the Jury System,' by Maximus A. Lesser (Rochester, N. Y.: Lawyers' Publishing Company), is a concise history of the English jury. It contains brief sketches of similar or related institutions of the Greeks, Romans, Germans, Britons, Anglo-Saxons, and Normans; a statement of the growth of the English system from the time of Henry II.; and a somewhat desultory discussion of the system as it now exists. It lays claim to "originality in the treatment and presentation of the materials at hand, rather than originality of research." It does not possess any considerable value for the specialist; but as a compendium of references to and extracts from the works of the leading and older authorities on the subject, it should be helpful to the general reader.

One would have supposed that the excellent works of Lewis and Mills on eminent domain rendered another work on that subject one of supererogation; but an examination of Mr. C. F. Randolph's treatise, 'The Law of Eminent Domain in the United States' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), shows it to have a peculiar value. As a digest of the authorities it may not serve the practitioner as well as the much larger book of Lewis; nor does it deal as fully with the constitutional side of the subject. On the other hand, it has the merit—so rare in current legal literature—of being a clear, compact, and philosophical statement of the law, supported by the leading and latest adjudications.

Mr. B. J. Shipman has prepared an excellent 'Hand-book of Common-Law Pleading' (St. Paul: West Publishing Co.). The old common-law system, so admirable for its logical accuracy and completeness, is no longer used, in its entirety, anywhere. Even England, its mother, has abandoned it. Yet it is the foundation upon which the various reformed systems in use where English law prevails have been built. Some knowledge of the common-

law system is, therefore, indispensable to a thorough understanding of the systems derived from it. Mr. Shipman has stated, clearly and concisely, those common-law rules which are still recognized and applied in this country, and those which, although they have become obsolete in practice, underlie the method now in use. He has very wisely followed the arrangement and adopted the rules found in Stephen on Pleading—the classic of this branch of the law and one of the best text-books ever written. We may add that Mr. Shipman's work, like that of Stephen, contains—what its title does not indicate—much valuable matter relating to questions of practice and substantive law.

'Browne's Kent's Commentaries' (St. Paul: West Publishing Co.) is the text of Kent, much altered and condensed by the editor, with catchwords prefixed to each paragraph, and without annotations. The editor believes that the notes "confuse the student and general reader, and tend to divert and lessen their interest in the subject." This edition is not to be compared with the accurate and scholarly editions of Comstock and Holmes; and the attempt to condense Kent is not more successful than similar attempts with other legal classics have been.

A third and carefully revised edition of 'Taylor on Private Corporations' (Philadelphia: Kay & Bro.) should be favorably received as a decided improvement of a book well known in the profession as a logical and accurate exposition of the law, and as a law-book which is something more than a digest of cases.

'The Art of Winning Cases,' by Mr. Henry Hardwicke of the New York Bar (Albany: Banks & Bros.), is a bulky book, whose contents hardly justify its alluring title. It is so diffuse in style and full of quotation that, looking at the somewhat jocose anecdotes scattered through it, and the doggerel case in rhyme at the very end, one might suppose the author had intended writing merely for the leisure hours of elderly attorneys. On the other hand, the real gravity with which he has set out, in full, somebody's "Fifty Rules in regard to Professional Deportment," and much other serious advice quoted similarly *in extenso*, suggests that the book was really meant to teach the winning of cases. It is a pity that such a doubt should arise over a treatise evincing wide reading among the best law-books and a most industrious gathering together of legal commentary, often from the highest sources, much of which is entertaining and much generally instructive, supplemented by intelligent comment of the author's own. Mr. Hardwicke's selective powers, however, seem not to have been quite adequate to his task. One rises from his book with a confused sense of having read a quantity of brilliant dicta by the great masters of the law, all, no doubt, improving, but failing, individually and collectively, "to tell us of the road," hinted at in the title, "which, to discover, we must travel, too." We mistrust, moreover, the judgment of a writer who puts together that curious list of names (at page 29), some singularly misspelled, which he presents to his readers as those of "the brightest ornaments of the ablest bar in the United States."

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*When We were Strolling Players in the East.* By Louise Jordan Miln. With illustrations. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894.

THE author of this book is cosmopolitan. Born in a slave State, bred in California, educated at Vassar, married to an Englishman, she has figured as an actress in four continents. The present volume chronicles mainly her career in India, though not without episodes, or tentative endeavors, in Burmah, China, and Japan. Her husband's theatrical troupe sometimes swelled to seven and twenty and anon dwindled to four. They played in a new theatre the night after their arrival from Australia in Colombo, and, without landing in Southern India, steamed to Calcutta. In that city they acted during Christmas holidays, but the year is not stated. Lady travellers are as shy of telling the years of their journeys as those of their own age, but they betray both unawares. No year is mentioned in the movements of Mrs. Miln till the last fourth of her volume (p. 273). Long before that, however, we learn that the Calcutta Christmas was in 1890, for we find it was in the winter before the Tsesarevitch was assaulted in Otsu, which all the world knows was in 1891.

The theatrical adventurers tried their fortune in Burmah at Rangoon and Mandelay; in China at Shamien and Shanghai; and in Japan at Nagasaki, Yokohama, and Tokio. In Tokio they narrowly missed, as they thought, a great success. Mrs. Miln—always the better half of her husband—says: "We were ambitious to play the 'Merchant of Venice' before his imperial Majesty; and so, with nights of plotting and days of diplomacy, brought to bear an influence we thought not inconsiderable." Among other expedients she sought aid from a Vassar Japanese schoolmate whom she found a potential personage at the Mikado's court. But the attack on the Tsesarevitch was a death-blow to her hopes. After all, her party played "Julius Cæsar"—in English, of course—to two Japanese audiences. They also performed in the European theatre. Returning to India, they acted at Darjeeling high in the Himalayas, and here and there throughout the northern provinces even to the Afghan frontier, bidding the Orient farewell at Karachi. Their Shaksperian repertory included (besides "The Merchant of Venice") "Julius Cæsar," "Hamlet," and "Othello."

Financially, the expedition could not have been lucrative, especially as Mrs. Miln never saw a curio without entering into temptation, and was also ill for six months, not without expense, in the hill country inland from Bombay. Audiences were small, for English was Greek to all but a select few. But Mrs. Miln was a born traveller, and must hold the sorrows of travel to be sweeter than all other joys. This feeling she proclaims on her first page in place of a preface, in words which will waken echoes in the heart of every one who has found his chief joy while "going to and fro in the earth." She has written a better book than she would have made had her dramatic venture been more triumphant and her health more uniform. Owing to distressful vicissitudes—and even to the death of two of her children—she saw and could describe in truthful lines more varieties of Oriental life. "The hand of little employment hath the daintier sense." Had her professional life been more crowded, had she known no invalidism, her book would lack many local traits to which she was sensitive and which she had leisure to write out. Hers was an insatiable and adventurous curiosity. Many are her confessions of sins, sometimes unpardonable, against local usage and conventional etiquette. She penetrated where no European woman had been. She was in jails, in leper hospitals, in midnight bazaars; voyaged in native house-boats on Chinese canals, ventured alone on a jinriksha country ride, did her best to enter the Khyber Pass. In all these scenes, however, the risk was really *nil*, as the present reviewer knows by experience. But the imaginary was great.

The forte of Mrs. Miln is in describing Eastern costumes and culinaries. As to these matters, as none have had better opportunities to learn, so none have written better. More than one-fourth of her chapters are headed Oriental nuptials or obsequies, with their feasts and robes. One chapter is entitled "Chinese Shoes." Her profession was second only to the physician's in opening for her the doors of jealously guarded native penetralia wherever English speech was understood. At Patiala her sesame opened the palace and purse of the Sikh Maharajah, master of two million subjects, with one European wife, and surrounded by a coterie of Europeans. She says: "We played merely for him and his guests—at whatever hour pleased him—and we were paid whether we played or not. The scenes we did from Shakspere his Highness demanded over and over. He often surprised my husband by a long and correctly quoted passage from the dramatist." But it was in out-of-the-way British garrisons that the players strolled with most zest. In those retreats they were welcomed by spectators crazy for something outside their monotonous routine, and sometimes discovered amateurs who for the nonce would and could fill out the depleted ranks of the troupe.

The impressions of Mrs. Miln during two years of Oriental strolling she has written out in a narrative effusive—we had almost said diffusive—and superfusive. The information afforded by it is small compared with what is stored in W. S. Caine's 'Picturesque India,' or Wells Williams's 'Middle Kingdom,' or Mrs. Bird's 'Japan.' Yet her work is more readable than either of them, and so will give more to many a reader than he will take from better books. Her strollings will lie on holiday tables and furnish matter enough for holiday perusal—light reading for lighter hours.

Critical readers, however, will not be quite satisfied. The spelling of Sir William Hunter, the recognized Oriental authority, was unknown or unheeded by Mrs. Miln. She mistakes the Persian tongue for Sanskrit. The foreign residents in Shamien, whom she reckons at four-score, are at least three hundred. On the other hand, the five hundred statues of Chinese sages she multiplies tenfold. In order to go into Canton, she says, "the residents must have a pass, which must be shown to the guards at the city gate" (p. 139). The present writer was there in the same year with Mrs. Miln, and went in and out often, always without a pass, and needed none. The horse-shoe shape of sepulchral monuments, which she thinks peculiar to the rich, he there saw on the graves of the poorest. She must herself be vexed to see among manifold misprints the home of her childhood persistently misspelled as Los Angelos. Regarding Burmah we encounter divers hard sayings. "The Burmese do not believe in immortality" (p. 88). A rhapsodical chapter describes marriage as doing its most perfect work in Burmah, where it is always leap year, and yet it appears an utter failure in the palace of the King. Mrs. Miln indulges in a skit against missionaries, as if she knew more than they about the religions of the East, and yet betrays the densest ignorance of their work. She says: "A heathen man sometimes deserts the heathen gods—a heathen woman does so almost never" (p. 241). She cannot point to a mission where female converts are not counted by hundreds,

while males are numbered by tens. One is reminded of the personally conducted Cook globe-trotter, who declared there were no missions in the Orient, for he had been everywhere and had seen none. The pictures, thinly scattered to make up a show, sometimes illustrate nothing and sometimes show places unmentioned in the letter-press, as Delhi and Siam.

After all, the blunders of the book will be forgotten in reading not a few amusing incidents like this: Mrs. Miln and a Japanese lady, neither of them a smoker, and neither speaking the other's language, sat in a tête-à-tête. Each thought the other fond of cigarettes and smoked not a few out of politeness to her companion. As a natural result one of them suffered a sick headache, and the other was excruciated with something perhaps worse.

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*General Lee.* By Fitzhugh Lee. [Great Commanders.] D. Appleton & Co. 12mo, pp. 433.

An authoritative Life of Robert E. Lee is much to be desired, and it would seem that his nephew and cavalry commander must be the man to write it. To so near a relative the family papers are no doubt freely opened, and to a distinguished officer in constant and close military association his campaigns were very familiar. Then the publishers have given extra space to the work, and by reduction of margins and of type, and by a considerable increase of pages, have, without destroying the external symmetry of the series, produced a volume containing much more matter than is found in most of the other "Commanders." The advantage of free access to Lee's private correspondence is seen chiefly in the chapters on Lee's life before 1861, and many interesting letters assist greatly in forming a vivid picture of his character and personal traits. We wish that he could speak for himself in the same way throughout his career, but quotations from private letters become infrequent after the war period is fairly entered.

Gen. Fitzhugh Lee has told the story of the campaigns in Virginia and Maryland from the Confederate standpoint with clearness and force, and is a model of modesty in hiding his own part in those stirring events. Indeed, it may be thought that he has gone too far in this direction, for the form of personal testimony to important occurrences is almost demanded of him in his office of biographer and would have been gladly received by his readers. The few instances in which he has quoted General Lee's conversations with himself have added weight from this fact. Most of the book is of course made up of the campaigns of 1862-65. The line of distinction between a general military history of a campaign and the personal biography of the commander is a rather subtle one, hard to draw, and requiring great skill to draw it successfully. We long to see and know the man himself in the performance of his public duties. It is not enough to attribute every success to him and to close the chapter on a battle with some strong phrases of eulogy. We would rather let the work of his own brain and will show for itself and speak his praises, while we get all that can be given us of his looks, his words, his actions and his life behind the scenes. We fear it must be said that the author has elaborated the general history to the point of obscuring the real personality of the subject of the memoir.

In some important particulars worse than this has happened. The fourth chapter is devoted to the causes which led to the civil war and to Lee's reasons for resigning from the United States Army. To the student of his life this is the crisis. We have the right to ask his biographer that both his words and his conduct shall be here given without gloss or paraphrase. What did Robert E. Lee then think and believe, and what did he do? What Fitzhugh Lee and other young men who went hotly into secession thought and did, would be interesting, but it is the proper subject of another book. Yet instead of giving Gen. Lee's words and acts in this crisis, the author has given a disquisition of his own on the formation of the Constitution of the United States and on the so-called reserved rights of the States. By stating that "Robert Lee knew all this" (p. 80), without giving any expressed opinion of Lee's, he assumes that Robert E. Lee agreed with his conclusions. Worse still, on the next page he declares that "the study of the early history of his country convinced Lee that, while the secession of a State from the Union might not be a remedy, it was not a violation of the Constitution so far as the original thirteen States were concerned." He then adds several paragraphs in the same vein, telling what Lee "probably found, also, in the anxious study he was then making," what "he might have noticed" in the Constitution, what he "had probably read, too," in regard to the Hartford Convention of 1814, what "he might have seen" of Northern advocacy of secession, and concludes: "The more Robert E. Lee thought upon the subject, the more he became convinced, first, that Virginia in seceding from the Union was exercising the right she had reserved when she entered it."

Such a taking of liberties with Lee's memory is simply astounding. It is done without the quotation of a word from Lee's lips or pen which supports or justifies it; nay, it is done in clearest and most explicit contradiction of what Lee himself said. The only letter of Lee's which is quoted in this connection itself contradicts the statement of the text. It is a letter to his wife of January, 1861, in which he says that if the border States join the seceding Gulf States, they will be "dragged into the gulf of revolution" (p. 84). Here was no talk of acting upon legally reserved constitutional rights, for the word "revolution" was the recognized shibboleth of the nationalists as against the secessionists. It told where he stood as well as a flag would have done.

But we are not confined to such brief, if satisfactory, statements of his position. In the same month of January, 1861, "in the anxious study he was then making," he wrote to his son, who, in his early manhood, had also to choose his course. The letter is printed in Gen. Long's Life of Lee, and has been some seven years before the public. In it Lee records the result of his study with an explicitness which leaves no room for debate:

> "Secession is nothing but revolution. The framers of our Constitution never exhausted so much labor, wisdom, and forbearance in its formation and surrounded it with so many guards and securities, if it was intended to be broken up by every member of the confederacy at will. It is intended for 'perpetual union,' so expressed in the preamble, and for the establishment of a government, not a compact, which can only be dissolved by revolution or the consent of all the people in convention assembled. It is idle to talk of secession."

Where shall we find in biography another so bold an example of a biographer explicitly inverting the statement of principles held by his subject in the great crisis of his life?

The family affections and interests, the personal ties, the local influences that made Lee "go with his State" against his own convictions are not hard to understand. He tells this story also in his correspondence, and charitable hearts will sympathize with his embarrassment and will not rail at his decision. But his principles and opinions were maturely formed and clearly expressed, and when we find the biography changing them into their opposites, all faith in the book is destroyed.

In the military narrative the sectional standpoint of the writer is most noticeable in the laudatory and friendly treatment of the national officers who did not hurt the Confederacy, and the hostile interpretation of the conduct of Lincoln's administration of military affairs and of those commanders who pushed the war with vigor. The "ears of the groundlings" are again tickled with the oft-refuted sarcasm that Pope announced "headquarters in the saddle." Instead of going to the published official records for the numerical forces of Lee's armies and those opposed to him, he uses vague estimates of his own or of others, such as Col. Taylor in his 'Four Years with Lee' published many years since. He thus states Lee's forces at Antietam to have been 35,000 men instead of nearly 60,000, and at Gettysburg to have been 62,000 instead of nearly 80,000. He seems to be unaware of the critical analysis of the actual returns which has been made as the official records have been put in print. This mode of writing history cannot satisfy intelligent men of the present generation. It is only a survival of the blind partisanship of the war period. Lee's abilities as a general were great enough to need no fictions about the odds at which he fought. The time has fully come when exaggeration will hurt rather than help an historical reputation, and when no book can hold a place in historical literature that is not written with recognized methods of thorough research.

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*The History of Trade-Unionism.* By Sidney and Beatrice Webb. Longmans, Green & Co. 1894.

The point of view from which these authors have surveyed their subject is that of advanced socialism, or collectivism, as it is the fashion to call it in England. As the title warns us, we are not to look here for a description of trade-unions, an account of their progress, or a summary of their regulations, although a chapter is devoted to the present "Trade-Union World," and many interesting particulars are given, showing the manner in which these organizations conduct their routine affairs. But the aim of the book is to trace the progress of ideas; to follow the course of a "movement" in its connection with the political history of England. The history of trade-unionism is "the history of a state within our state, and one so jealously democratic that to know it well is to know the English workingman as no reader of middle-class histories can know him."

A trade-union, as the term is used here, is a continuous association of wage-earners for the purpose of maintaining or improving the conditions of their employment. The authors consider that whatever associations of this kind may have existed upon the continent of Europe have had no influence upon the development of the English unions. Nor do they admit that any continuous associations of this kind are to be recognized in England before the eighteenth century. By a strict application of their definition they exclude all supposed mediæval instances or prototypes, as embracing employers as well as workmen. If workmen were admitted to membership in the trade-guilds of the Middle Ages, it was because

they were expected in due time to rise to be employers. The apprenticed journeyman in the skilled handicrafts belonged to the same social grade as his employer, and was indeed usually the son of a master in the same or an analogous trade. What distinguishes the modern era and the modern trade-union is the development of a caste of "wage-servants." In short, there was once a time when a workman might expect to rise from the position of a receiver of wages to that of a giver; from the ranks of labor to those of capital. That time, according to the theory of these writers, has past. Once a workman always a workman, is their principle; and it was after the time—whenever it was—when this change in industrial conditions took place, that the modern trade-union came into existence.

In accordance with this theory, obnoxious facts are ignored or condemned. The rise of workmen to the position of employers has been one of the striking features of the industrial development of England, as Mr. Smiles's biographies testify, and the number of coöperative establishments has been, and is, very great. Our authors maintain, however, that, "fortunately for the trade-union movement" (it might rather be said, for their theory of it), these experiments have resulted uniformly in commercial failure. We believe this statement to be contrary to the evidence, although it is undeniable that the coöperative movement has not justified the hopes of its advocates. But, as we are discussing theories rather than facts, the point is not material. The theory of trade-unionism is that industrial society was once divided vertically, trade by trade, while it is now divided horizontally into employers and wage-earners, and this history is written to illustrate that theory.

Within the limits imposed by this assumption, the authors seem to us to have done their work well. Their account of the origin, application, and repeal of the laws against combinations of laborers is clear and interesting. It is an effective way of putting the case to say that in the new system of industry a single employer is himself equivalent to a numerous combination. As Lord Jeffrey had it, "a single master was at liberty at any time to turn off the whole of his workmen at once—100 or 1,000 in number—if they would not accept of the wages he chose to offer. But it was made an offence for the whole of the workmen to leave that master at once if he refused to give the wages they chose to require." The prohibition of combination bore, therefore, with very unequal force upon employers and workmen. For many reasons the law was not very often carried out, and it was repealed, in connection with the adoption of a measure legalizing trade-societies, in 1824.

Half a century passed, however, before the demands of the trade-unions for free action in their disputes were conceded. So long as the conspiracy laws endured, under which an act not penal if performed by an individual of his own motion became so when performed by the agreement of several persons, the unions felt themselves hampered in fighting employers. But in 1875 they procured legislation abolishing imprisonment as a punishment for breach of contract, permitting "picketing," and abolishing the common-law rule of conspiracy. Meanwhile the unions had succeeded in obtaining protection for their funds without subjecting themselves to liability to civil actions. Since 1875, it may be said, the unions have had no complaints to make of laws discriminating against them; they have rather assumed the offensive and demanded discrimination in their favor.

These new demands, of course, deny the right of any workman to follow a trade except as a member of the trade union. The enforcement of membership stands upon the same footing as the enforcement of citizenship. There was a time when some influential trade-unionists talked of "the Englishman's right to freedom of contract"; but this talk, according to the authors of this history, was perilously near cant, and it is heard no more. All attempts to regulate wages by any "sliding scale" are also condemned. The "standard of life" is to be maintained by compulsion, in bad times as well as good. In this struggle no faith is to be kept with employers. If they exact promises from those whom they employ, it is by "duress," and promises so extorted carry with them "little legal and still less moral obligation." Upon the whole, this book must be commended for its frank statement of the purposes of the new trade-unionism, and the authors can regard it with a complacency marred by only one regret—that they did not delay publication until the work could be crowned with the record of the complete capture of the last trade-union congress by the collectivists.

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*The Protected Princes of India.* By William Lee-Warner, C.S.I. Macmillan. 1894. 8vo, pp. xii, 384.

THE author of this book was distinguished at Cambridge University a generation ago, and his "Star of India" shows that he is a valued civil servant of the Empress of India. He has employed his furlough in drawing up a comprehensive account—which he truly says does not exist elsewhere—of the relation which her Government holds to many hundred native States, large and small, oddly interspersed among those directly subject to the Governor-General.

He begins with a brief historical summary, divided into three periods: (1) what he calls the period of the "ring fence," when the East India Company treated all Powers outside its own borders as independent nations; (2) that of "subordinate isolation," when the native Powers were kept apart from each other, and constantly warned by precept and practice that annexation to the Company's dominions would be the penalty for misgovernment at home; (3) that of an imperial protectorate, where such home rule as the native princes retain is held in an undefined subjection to the "suzerain"—this functionary being called Kaiser-i-Hind, "the Cæsar of India," a woman of German blood, exercising imperial authority to the east of Alexander's farthest march, from an island of which we first hear through the Roman proconsul whose name she uses, writing nineteen centuries ago! The summary is followed by an attempt to classify and explain the different energies and responsibilities of the supreme and subordinate governments—Great Britain and the Rajahs.

The author is so high-minded in himself and so painstaking in his work that it would be an agreeable task to praise it; but this is not easy. The style is arid even beyond the wont of books on India; the author constantly repeats himself without gaining an inch. Again and again, for instance, an illustration is drawn from the creation of the State of Sattara; yet there is never a hint that it was no creation at all, but a resuscitation of the parent State of the Marathas, which had once given laws to the Gaekwar and the Peishwa, to Gwalior and Indore. Mr. Lee-Warner's position as a civil servant prevents his investigating the rights as well as the facts of subordination, annexation, and protection. He has to fall back on "imperial interests," and speaks of every act of Parliament as a finality, a sacred mystery which may not be questioned; and in fact, in so many words, disclaims the dangerous work of inquiry into the "mysteries of statesmanship." Hence there has hardly been a work since Auber's 'British Power in India' appeared, which seems so instinct with the theory, "The British Raj can do no wrong."

This view becomes positively ludicrous when the author actually raises the question how far the constitutions of the United States of America and the confederated cantons of Switzerland correspond to the tie that unites the Nizam of Haiderabad and the Maharajah of Jaipur to the Government of the Queen-Empress. They cannot coin money; the mint at Calcutta does it all. Just so, he tells us, the individual States of the American Union have surrendered the power of coining to the central Government. He quotes again and again the preamble of our Constitution as far as its objects are concerned; yet he seems never to have apprehended that the words, "We, the people of the United States, do ordain this Constitution," simply place it in a different order of existence from the imperial sway of Great Britain, and make any apparent coincidence in some practical details purely futile.

When the author finally retires with well-earned honors as Sir William Lee-Warner, K.S.I., it is to be hoped he will rewrite his book, and tell us not merely what the overlords have done but how far they did right. He has a heart and a conscience equal to the task; and his intellect will work all the better for giving them free range undeterred by the "subordinate isolation" of a civil servant.

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*Wimples and Crisping-Pins.* By Theodore Child. Illustrated. Harper & Bros. [1895.]

IT is not easy to see with what portion of the sex into whose face the Prophet once hurled the list of its vanities, this volume is just now expected to find favor. Revolted daughters and lady-cyclists will hardly be pleased to hear that there is still some one who "would fain see women loaded with jewelry like idols, with diamonds and ear-plates on their heads, long droppers in their ears, their bosoms glittering with necklaces, their waists encircled with girdles of glory, their arms stiff with bracelets, and their ankles bedecked with rings that would jingle as they walked." Maidens whose fate hinges on the expenses of matrimony will not kindle at the suggestion that, except "the Arab women of the Ouled Naïl tribe and the Nautch girls of India, no modern woman wears enough jewelry and ornaments of gold." It is a trifle too reactionary to announce to a generation of mothers and wives ready to step up to the polls that for "a woman gifted with beauty the ideal occupation is to wear beautiful clothes and ornaments, and look charming"; while most of the "thousands and thousands of ladies who dress divinely" will probably be averse to the praise of blonde hair-dye, even under the euphuism of the "arte biondeggiante."

The sober-minded plodder seeking the hidden reason of things will also be put to it to discover why (apart from the baser motives of book-making) essays of such high dilution as these should have got into boards and cloth. Charm of style or originality of theme would, of course, have left no room for question. Of

the former there is unhappily no more than is inherent in magazine English, while almost every publisher's list must now show a history of dress, including dressing of the hair. As letterpress to the numerous reproductions of heads of statues and portraits, they might also have found ample justification of their being, if only the illustrations themselves had been more worthy of existence. But in spite of the grace of the well-selected examples of Botticelli and Watteau, it is impossible, unless one is determined to push leniency of judgment to an extreme, to accept cordially artistic work so coarsely and crudely carried out, or a volume altogether so eloquent of cheap processes of machinery and undiscriminating bookbuyers.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Daughter of the King. F. Tennyson Neely. $1.25.
Allen, Grant. At Market Value. F. Tennyson Neely. $1.25.
Atchison, Mrs. Rena M. Un-American Immigration: Its Present Effects and Future Perils. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co
Baker, James. Pictures from Bohemia, Drawn with Pen and Pencil. London: Religious Tract Society; New York: F. H. Revell Co. $3.20.
Bandello, Matteo. Twelve Stories. London: J. C. Nimmo.
Becke, Louis. By Reef and Palm. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Baring-Gould, S. A Book of Fairy Tales. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Baring-Gould, S. The Deserts of Southern France. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. $8.
Barnett, Mrs. S. A. The Making of the Body; A Children's Book on Anatomy and Physiology. Longmans, Green & Co. 60 cents.
Bellamy, William. A Century of Charades. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Boothby, Guy. In Strange Company: A Story of Chili and the Southern Seas. F. Tennyson Neely. $1.25.
Buet, Charles. Le Péché. Paris: Ollendorff.
Buchanan, Robert. Rachel Dene. F. Tennyson Neely. $1.25.
Byron, Lord. Childe Harold's Pilgrimage. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75 cents.
Carus, Paul. The Gospel of Buddha according to Old Records. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. $1.50.
Cary, Edward. George William Curtis. [American Men of Letters.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Commelin, Anna O. Of Such is the Kingdom, and Other Poems. Fowler & Wells Co. $1.50.
Coppée, F. Contes Tout Simples. Paris: Lemerre; New York: Meyer Bros.
D'Alviella, Count Goblet. The Migration of Symbols. London: Archibald Constable & Co.
Dickens, Charles. A Tale of Two Cities. 2 vols. Illustrated. Dodd, Mead & Co. $3.50.
Dickinson, Mrs. Mary L. Three Times and Out. Hunt & Eaton. 75 cents.
Dumas, Alexandre. Napoleon. Putnams. $1.50.
Durand, John. The Life and Times of A. B. Durand. Scribners. $6.
Dwight, Prof. T. W. Commentaries on the Law of Persons and Personal Property. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $6.
Fischer, Wilhelm. Die Wandelnde Glocke. Maynard, Merrill & Co.
Fouard, Rev. Constant. Saint Paul and his Mission. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Gaulot, Paul. Henriette Busseuil. Paris: Ollendorff.
Gladstone, W. E. The Odes of Horace Translated into English. Scribners. $1.50.
Goethe's Faust. From the German by John Anster. Dodd, Mead & Co. $3.50.
Grossmann, Mrs. Edwina Booth. Edwin Booth. Century Co. $3.
Harben, W. N. The Land of the Changing Sun. Merriam Co. 75 cents.
Harrison, Mrs. Burton. A Bachelor Maid. Century Co. $1.25.
Henley, W. E., and Whibley, C. A Book of English Prose, 1387—1649.
Heussey, Vicomte Robert du Pontavice de. Villiers de l'Isle Adam. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.50.
Hole, Rev. S. R. More Memories: Being Thoughts about England Spoken in America. Macmillan. $2 25.
Holst, Prof. H. von. The French Revolution Tested by Mirabeau's Career. 2 vols. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.
Housman, Lawrence. A Farm in Fairyland. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Index Kewensis Plantarum Phanerogamarum. Fasiculus III. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Johnson, Lionel. The Art of Thomas Hardy. London: Mathews & Lane; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Kimball, A. R. The Blue Ribbon: What Thomas E. Murphy has Done for the Promotion of Personal Temperance. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Kingsley, C. Hypatia. 2 vols. Harpers. $7.
Kingsley, Henry. The Recollections of Geoffry Hamlyn. 2 vols. Scribners. $2.
Kirby, W. F. The Hero of Esthonia, and Other Studies in the Romantic Literature of that Country. 2 vols. London: J. C. Nimmo.
Kirk, Ellen O. The Story of Lawrence Garthe. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Lawless, Hon. Emily. Maelcho: A Sixteenth Century Narrative. Appletons.
Linton, Mrs. E. L. The One Too Many. F. Tennyson Neely. $1.25.
Linton, W. J. Three Score and Ten Years: 1820 to 1890. Recollections. Scribners. $2.
Luckock, Rev. H. M. The History of Marriage, Jewish and Christian, in relation to Divorce and Certain Forbidden Degrees. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Maël, Pierre. Un Roman de Femme. Paris: Ollendorff.
Marks, H. S. Pen and Pencil Sketches. 2 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Masson, Frédéric. Napoleon at Home. 2 vols. London: H. Grevel & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
May, Fanny. Saint and Sinner. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Memoirs of the Duchess de Gontaut. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. $5.
Montbard, G. The Land of the Sphinx. Dodd, Mead & Co. $4.
Murdoch, W. G B. From Edinburgh to the Antarctic. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Newth, G. S. A Text-Book of Inorganic Chemistry. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Oliphant, Mrs. The Victorian Age of English Literature. 2 vols. Lovell, Coryell & Co.
Oliphant, Mrs. Who was Lost and is Found. Harpers. $1.50.
Oppenheim, E. P. A Monk of Cruta. F. Tennyson Neely. $1.25.
Pickard, S. T. Life and Letters of John Greenleaf Whittier. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Pompéry, Mlle. E. de. Ce qu'on Voit. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 20 cents.
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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 22, 1894.*

## The Week.

THE comments made in some of the newspapers about the withdrawal of gold from the Treasury for the purpose of paying for the new Government bonds are extremely infantile. They are based upon the assumption that the Government ought to be paid in something better than its own demand notes, and that a subscriber to the loan who uses for this purpose the money which the Government itself has forced upon him, is taking an unfair advantage. Another assumption, equally ill founded, is that the redemption of the Government's demand notes in gold, although not restricted by law to any particular class, is understood to exclude persons who subscribe for a Government loan. If this conception were generally entertained it would lead to a premium on gold, greater or less, and that would be the very condition which the bond issue aims to prevent and avoid. The Government ought not to set a higher value on any kind of money than on its own legal-tender notes. In point of fact, every subscriber to the new loan has the legal right to pay for those bonds with the notes, and it cannot make a cent's difference to the Government whether they are paid with the one or with the other. The new loan has had one good effect, quite unexpectedly. It has opened people's eyes to the absurdity, the inconveniences, and the costliness of Government note issues, which require the Treasury to provide the ultimate gold reserve of the nation. This is a business function purely. It ought to devolve upon the banks, and would devolve upon them if the Government would retire its own notes and simply step out of the way. There is cumulative evidence that public opinion is tending toward that conclusion.

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It must be considered doubtful if any beneficial financial legislation can be had at the coming short session of Congress, no matter what the President may recommend. Whatever measures might be whipped through the House would be almost certain to be asphyxiated in the Senate, where silver will still lie a-bleeding. Nor can it be hoped that even the severe surgical operation of November 6 has got the idea into the heads of the silverites that their antics were a prime cause of the country's disgust, and that it was to guard against a repetition of them that Congress was turned bottom upwards. With stupidity the gods themselves contend in vain. Already the Atlanta *Constitution* is urging the passage of a free-coinage law as the sovereign remedy for Democratic ills, and we have no doubt that "Silver Dick" is fully persuaded that he must work all the harder for cheap money in the brief term left of his congressional career. There might be some hope from the Republicans, were it not for the fact that it would never do for them to support a financial law urged by a Democratic President. In times of panic, or for the sake of taunting and dividing the Democrats, such a thing may be done lawfully, but on the eve of coming into power themselves we fear the temptation will be strong to insist that all law-making of that sort must be left over. It is none the less the President's duty to urge upon Congress needed reforms in our monetary and banking laws, and his initiative will have great weight.

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The New York State Bankers' Association at their session in this city last week endorsed the Baltimore plan of currency reform, and it is now said that the comptroller of the currency and President Cleveland will refer to it favorably in their next communications to Congress. The only note of discord heard is that of the Populists and silverites. These say that the Baltimore plan is a scheme of bankers, by bankers, for bankers. If that were true, we should consider it high time to take it up, when we consider the dreadful mess that the silverites have made of our currency during the past fifteen years. The bankers, during all this time, have remained silent. They have taken no step, except now and then to protest against schemes for depreciating the money standard. At last, after the silver men, Populists, and Coxeyites had done all that they could do, and had brought on a panic which compelled even their own sympathizers to vote for stopping silver purchases, the bankers took the subject in their own hands, not to benefit themselves in particular, but to bring order out of chaos. The charge that they are seeking to introduce a new and untried principle into our currency system is made only by ignoramuses. The principle of "banking on assets" as distinguished from banking on bonds was the distinguishing feature of the best banks we had before the war, and it is safe to say that the *best* ones we had before the war were of unsurpassed excellence. It is the principle of the Scotch system and of the Canadian system, and of the banks of France and Germany.

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Never in the history of our politics were so many demagogues laid out in one day as in the elections of a fortnight ago. Hill, Lewelling, Waite, Bland, and Holman are only a small part of the number. In Minnesota, Ignatius Donnelly was disposed of—that State's perennial nuisance, who hoped to become United States Senator through the choice of a fusion Legislature, and was even beaten as a candidate for the Legislature in his own county, which has always returned him before, no matter with which party he acted—and he has tried all of them. So, too, Iowa has got rid of its standing nuisance, Weaver, Populist candidate for President in 1892, who was so badly beaten as a fusion candidate for Congress that he is going to leave the State and abandon politics.

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The total vote of New Jersey shows that the Democrats of that State hung themselves with neatness and despatch. The Republican vote reveals slight changes from that of 1892, while the Democratic falls off from 171,000 to 115,000—or nearly one-third. A fairer comparison would perhaps be with the vote of 1890, when the Republican vote was 114,000 and the Democratic 128,000. It is evident that the great Republican majority in the State this year was the work of Democrats. Thousands of them refrained from voting at all, and thousands more voted the Republican ticket. As in New York, the unexpected magnitude of the victory is proving embarrassing to the Republican bosses. With only a working majority in the Legislature, Boss Sewell would be certain to be elected United States Senator. As it is, the almost solid Republican Legislature has encouraged other candidates to come forward. It ought to be evident to New Jersey Republicans that they are now as much on probation as the other party has been for two years past, and that as swift and terrible a punishment will be visited upon them for abuse of power as has stricken down their opponents. A resolute effort to rescue the party from Sewell's clutches would, whether immediately successful or not, be worth many thousands of votes to it in coming elections.

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The official returns confirm the first reports that the Republicans have carried Missouri on the popular vote by a narrow but sufficient margin. This result is important as reversing the precedents of a quarter of a century, for the Republicans have not carried the State on a straight issue between the two parties since Grant's first election in 1868. The canvass shows that the Republicans won this year through Democratic losses rather than through gains for their own party, the figures for the last two elections comparing as follows:

| | Rep. | Dem. | Pop. | Pro. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1892..... | 226,916 | 268,398 | 41,213 | 4,331 |
| 1894..... | 229,641 | 226,547 | 42,463 | 3,099 |

It will be seen that the Republicans have increased their poll by less than 3,000, while the Democrats have lost nearly 42,000. But while Democratic absenteeism caused the election of the Republican candidate for Supreme Court judge, it is a

great gain for the latter party to carry the State in any way, for the first time in the memory of many voters, because it is always easier to secure the "floating vote" for a party which has once shown that it at least stands some chance of success.

The closeness of the contest for the Tennessee governorship has served to show the strength of the sentiment for honest elections in that State. When it first became evident that the Republican candidate had won by a very small majority, there were some intimations that he would be "counted out" by the Democratic officials who control the returns, but the suggestion was promptly repudiated by everybody of authority in the party. The chairman of the Democratic State committee announced that "there has not been and will not be the slightest irregularity countenanced," and such representative organs as the Nashville *American* declared that "if Evans has been fairly and legally elected, he should be, and no doubt will be, duly inaugurated." In Tennessee, as everywhere else in the South, the sentiment against election frauds has never been so strong as since the repeal of the federal election laws. Moreover, the fact should not escape notice that, while the Republicans never carried Tennessee on a square issue between the two parties so long as those laws were on the statute-book, they have secured the governorship at the first election after their repeal.

The results of the election in Nebraska and California show the growing independence of voters. In each State a majority of the ballots cast on the congressional issue were for the Republican candidate, while in each the Republican nominee for Governor failed of election because some thousands of voters in his party who supported the rest of the ticket would not sustain the man whose name stood at the head. The Australian ballot law helps very much in encouraging this spirit of independence. The chairman of the Democratic State central committee in Kentucky frankly acknowledges this effect of the system. "The election," he says, "will be a valuable lesson, as well as a warning, to the party. A secret ballot makes voters more independent, and if the party expects even in a sound Democratic State like this to poll its full vote, it must deal fairly and honestly with the voters, and especially in local races must nominate capable and worthy men."

There was a most remarkable and gratifying exhibition of the power of the independent voter in Cincinnati on Tuesday week. In the national election the Republicans carried the city by an immense majority; in the local election, seven days later, the Republican candidate for judge of the insolvency court was defeated by several thousand majority. This was a new office, created by a bill which was "sneaked" through the Legislature in its closing hours, and which was so hastily and carelessly drawn as to require its filling by a special election, on November 13, at an extra cost of $10,000, instead of on the regular day for voting last week. For this place Boss Cox, the ex-saloon-keeper who runs the Republican machine, picked out one Von Seggern, a lawyer of meagre ability, dubious character, and unsavory record, who was declared unfit for the office by an impartial and non-partisan committee of the most eminent members of his profession. The boss relied upon the more than 20,000 majority of last week to pull through his tool, and there were Republican newspapers hide-bound enough to support Cox in his contempt of decency, but the voters rebelled, and Von Suggern was beaten by about 3,000 majority.

Of the three States which recently voted on the question of calling a convention to revise the constitution, one went overwhelmingly for such action; in the second the proposition failed because there was so little popular interest that most voters neglected the matter; and in the third the convention was voted down at the polls, but through fraudulent counting is returned as carried. The difficulties of changing the constitution are probably greater in Delaware than in any other State of the Union, since it is requisite that the affirmative vote shall exceed a majority of the highest vote cast for representatives in the Legislature at any one of the three previous general elections. Over and over again this severe requirement has defeated action, even when a good majority of the votes actually cast were favorable to a convention. But public sentiment at last grew so nearly unanimous that at the recent election the vote stood 22,842 for to 2,364 against; and although only about two-thirds of those who declared themselves for Governor paid any attention to the constitutional question, the affirmative vote largely exceeds the requisite number. In New Hampshire, on the other hand, so little interest was felt in the matter of a new constitution that but few voters recorded themselves either way, and the proposition failed really from inattention. In South Carolina, the Tillmanites favored a convention, but they were outvoted by about 10,000 through the opposition of anti-Tillman Democrats and Republicans; yet the Tillmanites have "counted out" the opposition, and returned the proposition as carried by about 2,000. This is the most barefaced fraud ever committed, even in South Carolina, and it has excited intense indignation.

There has been a good deal of talk about some sort of testimonial to Dr. Parkhurst, and he richly deserves one. But it ought to be something strictly personal—books, pictures, silver, or furniture. At all events it ought by no means to be a public monument set up in the streets, for such a monument would, of course, commemorate our shame as well as his services. It must not be forgotten that he has not delivered us from a foreign tyrant or oppressor, or from an apparently good ruler who turned out badly after he got into power. He has delivered us from the yoke of men deliberately chosen and rechosen by our own popular vote, after we knew all about them and had seen many specimens of their work. Grant was as well known in 1890 as he is to-day. So was Gilroy in 1892. He had issued from the sheriff's office in its most corrupt and degraded period, and had in 1890, when appointed commissioner of public works, immediately made Barney Martin, an old grogshop-keeper, who had been indicted for bribery, his deputy. Our oppressors, in short, did not get hold of power by a *coup d'état* or by force of arms. They got it by the choice of the people. We have honored Grant as much as we have honored any of his predecessors, if not more. Therefore Dr. Parkhurst's testimonial should be something for himself and his family and not for the public sight-seer. This Tammany hallucination of 1888-'92 will always be an interesting historical episode, but not a thing to commemorate in brass or marble.

A prominent member of the Hawaiian Government, Mr. Damon, told his fellow-councillors a few weeks ago: "If we wait for the United States to give us annexation, we shall have to wait a long time. What is to be done, we must do ourselves." This doctrine is now "treason" among the Hawaiian extremists. They must have annexation immediately, and there is no use in talking about establishing a government on any other basis. Yet there is evidently a growing conviction among the revolutionists that they must continue to hold their own dog by the ears for some time to come. This conviction will not be weakened by the growing indifference of the Republicans to poor outraged Hawaii. When the furious Boutelle tries to annex by resolution in the next Congress, he will find Speaker Reed as stubborn and noisy with the gavel as ever Speaker Crisp was.

That the art of war in modern times is more and more reducing itself to the art of finance, we have lately had many facts to remind us afresh. War, in truth, is only another name for financial speculation on a great scale. If Japan whips China, she stands to win $200,000,000, which she will exact as "indemnity"—that is, as a return on her investment. Military glory continues to be a fine thing in the eyes of mankind, but, without an accompaniment of hard cash when all is over, it partakes too much of the nature of a barren ideality. At any rate the finance ministers who have to provide the funds for securing the glory,

keep a sharp eye on the gold which they hope to get along with it, and, if it comes to a choice between the two, are disposed to say with Omar Khayyám, "Take the cash and waive the rest." Even such "war scares" as those caused by the death of the Czar, when it was first seen to be impending, or the threat of complications between France and England, or the troubles of the French in Madagascar, throw the stock markets into a shiver, and show how war in a commercial and industrial world is like blood-poisoning in the body. When hot-heads begin to talk about the need of fighting off Russian assaults on Afghanistan, the bankers and merchants at once begin to ask who is to provide the $20,000,000 necessary to send a British army there, or the $100,000,000 which would be required to keep it there a few months. Down go the stocks until the official assurance comes that there is "nothing in it."

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A writer in the *Investors' Review*, commenting on this intimate connection of finance and war, asks why the "swaggering fire-eaters" can never be got to look on this side of the picture. He truthfully says, anticipating what Lord Rosebery substantially declared the other night at the lord mayor's banquet, that "the editor's room is often worse than a barrack-room for its blatant display of we-can-lick-creation, brainless insolence." For a nation that lives by commerce and is owed money by three-quarters of the world, this bloody-bones style of talk is not only contemptible, but dangerous. A great war would promptly ruin half the investors in England, and probably cost Great Britain half her empire. The writer in the *Review* would be glad to see a Government official stationed behind the chair of every Jingo editor, constantly putting to him the question, "How are you going to pay your income tax of three shillings in the pound with half the banks broken and consols at 80?" But the editor would have a complete answer ready. He would either deny that he ever had any income tax to pay, or would affirm that he could easily make up the difference by the immense profits on his war extras. The only thorough-going remedy is the one we have long advocated—namely, a law compelling all fighting-editors to go at once to the front, and be given as near a view as possible of that "hell of death and destruction" to which distance lends, in their eyes, such enchantment.

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Lord Rosebery is "catching it," both from the Radicals, the Liberal Unionists, and the Irish. The Irish, who really have his official existence in their hands, are growing more and more impatient over the way in which home rule has apparently been relegated to the rear. Redmond, who commands the Parnellite ten votes, demands an immediate dissolution on the home-rule issue simply and solely, so as to get a plébiscite on it, and ridicules the anti-Parnellites for their willingness to wait till Rosebery "mends" the House of Lords; and the anti-Parnellites have not much to say in defence. The Radicals, on the other hand, led by Labouchere and the *Chronicle*, flout him because he is a peer and because he does not appear to have much mind of his own. The Liberal Unionists sneer at him because, although he attacks the House of Lords, he does not say how he is to get rid of it, or what he is going to substitute for it. He probably does not know what had better be done; but what just now seems most probable is a dissolution on the question of the Lords. If he got "a plain popular mandate" to "mend or end" the Lords, he could then take some decided step in the Commons against them, but hardly otherwise. The step most talked of is a resolution of the Commons declaring themselves the paramount legislative body, but if the Lords chose to disregard this and throw out a Commons bill, would such a bill be accepted by the country as law? Neither party seems to like to face a situation of this sort, and yet it has to be faced if anything is to be done. Mr. Chamberlain has, in the meantime, come forward with some positive measures for the Liberal Unionists, which have been received with general ridicule. Construction is evidently not his forte, though he did prove a very successful administrator as mayor of Birmingham.

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A very remarkable episode in parliamentary government is approaching a crisis in the little colony of Newfoundland. One year ago this month, the party in power went to the country on the legal expiration of the Legislature. The chances at the polls were heavily against the ministry and the electoral contest was bitter. But Premier Whiteway and his lieutenants, as was afterwards fully proved in court, used the Public Works Department most effectively to purchase votes. Written agreements by the ministers awarding road-building contracts on the promise of political support have since been placed in evidence. The ministry won, electing twenty-five members out of the total thirty-seven. Three months later the Opposition began legal proceedings against the successful bribe-givers. Evidence was overwhelming, and although the colonial judges were of the ministry's own party, fifteen of the twenty-five "Whitewayites," including the premier himself, were formally unseated. The Whiteway ministry thereupon resigned, their purpose being to force a general election and secure the return of the disqualified legislators. This plan failed. The Governor-General, acting under advice from the British ministry, prorogued the Parliament three successive times, and eventually adopted the extreme measure of collecting the customs revenue without a legislative appropriation bill. By these bold expedients, in the face of actual rioting, the bye-elections were put off until the fall, when it was hoped that public sentiment would be thoroughly aroused against the corruptionists. But the hope has not been justified. The six most important bye-elections for the seats of the disqualified members have now been held, and the Whiteway candidates have won by heavily increased majorities. The unseated corruptionists could not, of course, stand personally for this Parliament; but the plainly avowed plan is to organize a new Whiteway ministry, vote it down by its own supporters, and thus force a general election through which the culprits of 1893 may all return. As the moral force of the British Government is publicly enlisted against the now victorious Newfoundland party, the outcome will be interesting.

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M. Numa Droz, several times President of the Swiss Confederation, and at present one of the most considerable figures in Switzerland, has lately published in the *Bibliothèque Universelle* his views on the working of the referendum and the initiative. They will not encourage the eager people who are bent on saving our own country by transplanting here those political contrivances. M. Droz concludes, after observing the drift of things for many years, that the conservative democracy of Switzerland is in danger of losing the moderation which has so long been the admiration of Europe, and of taking a plunge into unrestrained demagogy. The sole principle of authority in the Swiss Government resides in its representative character, and the initative tends all the while to destroy this and transform legislators into mere electric buttons for the people to press. Tracing the history of politics in his own land, M. Droz remarks that the referendum "furnished of itself a base of operations for demagogy," but that only half the mischief could be done by its aid. By it popular whim could paralyze legislation, but could not itself legislate. So the initiative was devised to change the wooden sword into one of steel, and now, according to the ex-President, "the Government is in a fair way to be pushed aside, in all important matters, and to pass into the hands of political committees." He refuses to be comforted even by the recent rejection of the ridiculous law, brought to vote through the initiative, affirming the "right to work." This only shows, he says, that the Swiss people are not at present inclined to socialism, not that they are opposed to absurd and noxious laws as such. He instances the anti-Semitic amendment to the Constitution, voted into the organic law "amid universal apathy," as a specimen of the kind of laws which he expects demagogy to succeed in passing through the initiative. The outlook fills the veteran Swiss statesman with sadness.

### *THE REPORT ON THE CHICAGO STRIKE.*

THE report of the commission appointed by the President to investigate the Chicago strike has been made public. It is a disappointing, in some respects a very disturbing, document. In matters of fact its compilation of statistics will prove useful as a permanent record, though everything recorded was known before; but in its theorizings and recommendations it takes many surprising and dangerous positions.

The commission was appointed in pursuance of a law which provides that where both of the parties to a labor "difference" will not agree to submit it to arbitration, the President may, "either upon his own motion or upon the application of one of the parties," name a commission to "examine the causes of the controversy, the conditions accompanying, and the best means of adjusting it." Now, this particular "controversy" was already "adjusted" when the commission went to work. Debs had abdicated, and the Pullman strikers who had been lured into his organization by an exaggerated idea of his power to bring railway kings to their knees, had gone back to work, and were glad enough to do so. Under these circumstances the duty of the commission would appear to have been simply to collect facts about the causes of the strike and the conditions accompanying it. This they, in fact, did, and their account is reasonably complete and impartial. But, not content with this, they argue a great deal to show how a controversy that had adjusted itself in a particular way should really have been adjusted in another and radically different way, and wind up with some extraordinary propositions about compulsory arbitration and a permanent United States strike commission. This may not have been going outside of their powers, but it certainly was overstepping the bounds of propriety and prudence.

Without stopping over many details of the report that invite criticism, we will direct attention to two vital points in which it seems to us to be both mistaken and mischievous. One is the expression of the conviction that, at the very crisis of our civil war last summer, the Pullman Company and the General Managers' Association should have consented to arbitrate, or at least to the appointment of a committee to see if there was anything to be arbitrated. Referring to the firm stand taken by the company and the association, the commission says that it "is impressed with the belief, by the evidence and the attendant circumstances as disclosed, that a different policy would have prevented the loss of life and great loss of property and wages occasioned by the strike."

The narrative of events leading up to this conclusion is grossly inadequate and unfair—unconsciously so, no doubt. All the rioting and the plundering and burning are left out—all the terrorism, extending over large sections of the country and affecting millions of citizens, with the need of calling out the troops, State and national; and the impression is given that it was just an ordinary peaceful strike which the implacable Pullman and the hard-hearted managers refused to arbitrate. The report gravely recites the efforts of the "Civic Federation" of Chicago, made up of "eminent citizens," to intervene, together with those of the Common Council and the mayor of the city, and notes with a pained air that the "stereotyped answer" was returned to them all, as also to Mayor Pingree of Detroit, "himself a large manufacturer," though backed up by telegrams from fifty other mayors. Not a word *here* about the shooting and train-wrecking and blockading, about the distress of travellers and the threatened famine in many cities; not a word about the intense excitement throughout the whole country, and the general feeling that the existence of the Government and of society itself was at stake, and that to give in to the strikers at that point or at any point would be a deadly blow to liberty and the rights of property—nothing of this, but only the statement that the commission is "impressed with the belief" that the company and the managers should have given in.

This part of the report is only a travesty. What account of the "circumstances accompanying" this strike, which was not so much a strike as a social convulsion, can be complete if it leaves out the intense anxiety of the best citizens lest a fatal surrender of principle should be made? Much has been said about the disagreeable character of Mr. Pullman and his hard and tyrannical ways, as of a little despot. We have nothing to say about all that, but we do affirm that there were hundreds of thousands of the best American citizens who rejoiced with great joy at that critical moment that Mr. Pullman was unyielding. They did not care if he was disagreeable personally, or if his firmness was mere stubbornesss. He could not be too mulish or arbitrary for them or the occasion. Americans abroad anxiously scanned the fragmentary despatches and prayed fervently that Mr. Pullman would at any rate stand firm. They would have been willing that he should be a thousand times more disagreeable and pig-headed, if necessary, to make him the man to settle that principle of law in this country, then and there. He did settle it, and the country owes him a great debt, whether he is a likable and kindly man or not, and whether the commission is impressed with a belief to the contrary or not. Providence never showed a more tender care for this country than in having an unpleasant man ready for that emergency.

The other astonishing position taken by the commission is in favor of compulsory arbitration, binding on the railroads but not binding on the employees. This seems too absurd to be credible, but there it stands in black and white. "Railroads have not the inherent rights of employers engaged in private business," and hence a law can be passed to compel them to pay whatever wages a commission of arbitration may fix upon. On the other hand, employees have an "inherent, inalienable right to work or quit," and therefore they cannot be forced to accept wages they do not like. This is the most laborish scheme of compulsory arbitration ever devised, and has about as much chance of being adopted as the heads-I-win-tails-you-lose principle in gambling. We presume the commission was led into its ambitious theorizings and suggestions of remedies for all labor troubles out of a desire to magnify its office. It seemed too paltry for men under Government appointment at $10 a day simply to gather together facts already perfectly well known; so they had to affect the oracle and bring out another solution of the labor problem. Luckily, their opinions carry no official weight and will be accepted only for what they are worth.

One good result of the report will be increased hesitation about appointing commissions to inquire into the origin and causes of "labor troubles." There have been several of these commissions during the last ten years here, in England, Germany, and France. They have not only never found anything out that everybody did not know already, but have in many cases, through the strong temptation to coddle labor which in these days of democracy besets every public and even semi-public man, done a good deal to aggravate the laborer's discontent and set class against class. There is hardly any man who is fit to conduct such inquiries unless a judge sitting in a lawsuit. Most investigators are either strongly opposed to all the pretensions of labor, or else their heads are stuffed full of the vague socialistic longings which are already such an affliction to all industry. In either case the report only aggravates the trouble. Labor disputes are generally very simple, and nobody can possibly settle them but the parties to them. They alone know all the facts, and they have the deepest possible interest in coming to terms. The interference of outsiders, unless asked for by *both sides*, ought to be a gross impertinence. Nothing is more needed at this crisis than the practice of treating the working classes as business men fully capable of managing their own affairs, and not as children who are being put upon by their elders, and are to be forgiven if, in their childish rage, they break the furniture and throw the bedding out of the windows.

### *THE FILLING OF THE OFFICES.*

THE question how the Governor and the mayor are to fill the vacancies made by the men who are to "go," is one which not unnaturally begins to occupy the public mind. The Governor has about two dozen appointments to make of first-class importance, to offices now held by Hill and

Murphy "workers." An outside estimate of the candidates for these State offices would give twenty-five to each. This makes six hundred in all. Give each candidate ten backers and endorsers, and we have a total of 6,000 persons who are deeply interested in the disposition of these places—that is, 6,000 persons who desire them to be filled for other reasons than the good of the community. To all the others it is a matter of supreme indifference who fill them, provided the work be well done. Now, the total vote of the State at the last election was about 1,200,000. Add to this as many women who did not vote but have an equal interest with the men in good government, and we have 2,400,000. Deduct from this the 6,000 office-seekers, and we have 2,394,000 to whom the filling of the offices has no interest whatever, provided they are well filled. So that those who will beset Gov. Morton to get him to give them a living out of the State treasury without regard to their qualifications are about one four-hundredth part, not of the population, but of the adults of both sexes.

There is very little difficulty in filling these offices if fitness only and not claims is to be considered. But it is perhaps asking too much to ask Mr. Morton to fill them for fitness only. Republicans have probably been too long excluded from these State offices to make it possible for any one man to withstand their rush, or totally exclude the consideration of "claims." But in considering "claims," we may fairly ask him to take two things into account. One is the very great change in the position of "workers" since the Republicans were last successful in this State. He must remember in the first place that it was they who in 1885 brought Hill into the governorship by arranging a great Republican abstention in order to "spite the Mugwumps," so that what we have really been doing at the last election, is undoing, by "toil of heart and knees and hands," the mischief wrought in that unhappy year by the Republican managers. In the next place, there has probably never been a Governor elected in this State who could so truly say that he owed nothing to either party. No one is foolish enough to pretend that Morton's majority of 157,000 came from either party. It came from the honest, sober-minded, industrious people of both parties, who do not care who get the offices, but do desire good government. It would, therefore, be peculiarly unfortunate if he were to listen for one moment to the advice of a man like Platt, who not only had no share whatever in winning the victory, but has been for many years closely identified with the system of corruption which the election of November 6 was intended to overthrow. The Tammany police justices, for instance, are largely the result of a "deal" of his in 1888.

In the last place, it must not be forgotten that the new ballot act has greatly changed the position of the worker in politics. He is no longer entitled to the consideration he used, and perhaps not unreasonably, to claim. The first essential of his trade was the publicity of the vote. It was necessary to his business success that the way a man voted should be known to his neighbors, and for this purpose the worker put the ticket into his hands and saw it deposited in the ballot-box. For a service of this kind it was well worth the while for the late Mr. Thorndike Rice to pay the late Mike Cregan $5,000, and it is nothing to the purpose that Mike betrayed him and "ran out" his rival's tickets. A faithful worker was extremely useful under the old system to both his party and his employer. Under the present law this is no longer possible. No worker can tell how many votes he has influenced, if any, and he is, therefore, not entitled to any office as of right. Let us note, too, that Hill and Murphy have had all the offices for nearly ten years, and have nevertheless suffered ruinous defeat. The ballot law will undoubtedly be made still more stringent next spring, possibly by the adoption of the Myers machine. This will insure absolute secrecy and fair counting, so that the occupation of the working politician will be completely gone.

The result of this will probably reach farther than we now imagine. It will undoubtedly give appointing officers a much freer hand. It will make "claims" much more difficult to establish. Above all, it will restore speaking and writing, or in other words discussion, to their old place in American politics. It will make impossible a repetition of Hill's impudent boast, that "they had got the brass bands, but he had got the delegates." It will make nominations by conventions much less valuable because they will give less sure promise of election. Nothing is more encouraging than the uncertainty about results which now prevails in this State, and has been increasing for some years. The rapidity and unexpectedness with which majorities pass from one party to another does for our politics what the tides do for the sea. They keep it sweet and pure. They give such an assurance as nothing else can, that what the people desire, of all things, is not party triumphs, but good government.

### *CONCERNING PLATT.*

EVERY one who has followed the course of New York politics is aware that Mr. Thomas Platt has long played a prominent part in it, not as a formulator of ideas or a framer of policies, but as a distributor of patronage and as a controller of the rural legislators through patronage, or we know not what. If we were called on to say, in fact, who besides the local bosses had done most to build up Tammany in the city and make it a power in the land, we should say it was Mr. Platt. Consequently, although he is to-day trying to get the reformers to come and "confer" with him, he is himself part of the thing to be reformed. Why he interests himself in politics at all, why he does not confine himself to the conduct of his express business, has never been satisfactorily explained. But the fact is that for ten years he has been, we might say, permanently in command of the Republican party in this State, and constantly engaged in negotiations with Tammany in its name. His process has been very simple: when the Republicans have had a majority in the Legislature, he has "struck" Tammany for offices and contracts by threatening hostile legislation or investigation. When his medium of exchange consists in investigation, he bargains for the amount of investigation there shall be, which departments shall be touched and which let alone, and at what point the investigators shall be "called off." When the Republicans are in a minority, he makes them connive at Tammany schemes, vote for them, and keep silent about their real character in debate, or in some way prevent public opinion from getting at them. But his pay is always the same—a slice of Tammany patronage.

This, however, is all an old story—what the lawyers call "familiar knowledge." We recur to it to-day for the purpose of pointing out, what is too often forgotten, that Platt could not be the mischievous boss he is if the Republican legislators from the country were not willing to serve under his orders. No man can be a leader unless he can find followers. We do not attempt to explain why for years back the Republican legislators have taken the earliest opportunity after their election to "confer" with Platt, why they make journeys to New York to see him, why they take orders and courses of conduct from him—why last year, for instance, they left untouched, presumably under his directions, five or six most important reformatory bills until they were driven into considering them by the clamors of the press, in the very last days of the session—why the Lexow investigation was strictly confined to departments connected with the police, and why even now, after the storm of righteous wrath with unrighteous practices has passed over the land, some of the most prominent Republicans may be seen sneaking around his office, and trying doubtless to get instructions from him.

These things are all mysteries which we make no pretence of being able to solve. We call attention to them as among the most important facts of the hour. If the practice of consulting and deferring to Platt, in fact, cannot be broken up in the next Legislature, we greatly fear that many of the bright hopes of the reformers will not be fulfilled. No reform can be successful in this State which does not reach Platt himself. He is himself a gross abuse, one of the grossest we have to contend with.

If it be said that his power of mischief will be destroyed by the fact that Tam-

many has now nothing to bargain with, we answer that the defeat or postponement of a power-of-removal bill would be worth more to Tammany to-day in money alone than anything Platt has ever had to offer. The passing of such a bill means the loss to the organization of a payroll of about $15,000,000 annually, and nothing would be easier than to raise among the Boys a sum, "for political purposes," which would keep Platt's treasury full for a good while, and which he could accept, as Croker has accepted blackmail, without any breach of the law. It is only in case of the passage of such a bill that Tammany cannot "trade." As long as it holds the offices, the materials exist for the finest "deal" Platt has ever made or imagined. We find already that there is a good deal of whispering going on about the probability that no such act will pass, but if it does not pass, the reform effort of the last month will be utterly thrown away. Consequently it is not with the devil but with the sinners we have to deal to-day. Platt is certain not to change: death will probably overtake him in the middle of a "deal." But we cannot help hoping that the new Republican legislators have felt and shared the passionate aspiration for better government, for a more manly and American way of facing political responsibilities, which has carried them into power, and that on this occasion at least, if only for once in their lives, they will try to stand on their own feet.

One great ground of hope lies in the changed attitude of the New York *Tribune* towards Platt. That paper is, as the party organ, probably the only New York paper which reaches the Republican legislators, or has any influence on them; and its exposure of Platt's methods is all that could be desired and ought to bear fruit.

*SECULAR ACTIVITIES OF THE CHURCH.*

One of the warmest discussions of the Episcopal Church Congress in Boston was that on the topic, "The Church's Duty in the Matter of Secular Activities." This can hardly be called a burning question with Episcopalians, since tradition and church polity and the general level of good taste in their denomination have kept them from the temptation to go to such extremes as other churches have fallen into. One of the speakers at the congress exhibited a huge green poster announcing a benefit to be given for a rural church in Massachusetts, and enumerating among the features "a song and dance sketch," an impersonation of "The Bowery Girls," and a skirt dance. It need not be said that it was not an Episcopal church.

At the same time, it is clear from the course of events in England and in this country that even the staid and æsthetic Episcopal church feels the running of the strong tide in the ecclesiastical world, and has to face the question of a great expansion of the church's activity on the social side. The mystic letters P. S. A. are well understood in the Church of England, we believe, and denote a Pleasant Sunday Afternoon Association for the promotion of good times and attachment to the church through getting up excursions and bicycle runs after the morning service, to fetch up somewhere for a sermon (guaranteed to be short) on Ezekiel's wheels or some such relevant topic. And on this side the water the clubs and brotherhoods and sodalities have wondrously multiplied in the last few years. What other denominations have given in to almost unreservedly —that is, all kinds of social contrivances and organizations to "make it interesting for the young people"—has become something for the Episcopalians to consider. This is clear from the prominence given the subject in the Boston Congress. What the debate also made clear is, that there is a division of opinion on the question in the Episcopal church, with the weight of numbers apparently in favor of indefinitely extending the social side of the church's work.

The chief speaker in opposition was the Rev. W. B. Hale. Two articles of his in the *Forum* on religious conditions in Massachusetts country towns and in Fall River have marked him as a man with a keen eye for facts and a praiseworthy bluntness of speech. His argument against what he called "the desecration of the church" through the "crowding sensational performances which index its secularization," appears to have been vigorously presented and to have made a deep impression. What he would have the church do is to stand before men as "a great, imposing spiritual fact," given up to the proclamation of "the Gospel of faith, righteousness, and judgment to come," and leaving all this business of libraries and gymnasiums and music-rooms to other and profaner hands.

But is there any hope of this view being now realized? What, in fact, is the reason why the church has been driven by circumstances, or led by Providence, as one chooses, into this new attitude towards social pursuits and enjoyments? Looking at the matter dispassionately, it seems clear that it is because the old attitude of sacred aloofness has broken down, in the sense that of itself it can no longer command the support and affection of mankind. It is indeed a fine conception, that of the church as a great, imposing spiritual fact, standing apart from the hurlyburly and the coarseness of ordinary life; but how if so standing only means an increasing isolation and ineffectiveness; how if so standing ceases to make it an imposing fact at all? We leave it to those most concerned to say why it is so, but the fact of the loosening hold of the church and church doctrine of the old style on the minds and hearts of men we take to be admitted. It is implied in all such discussions as the one to which we are referring.

If this is the case, it becomes simply a question of ordinary human expediency and of a desire to get the most good possible out of a great and venerable institution, what is to be done to restore and increase its power. As far as we can see, there are but two courses open. One is to readjust the doctrine—that is, to "reconcile science and religion," to refine and explain away the old difficulties which press so heavily on the modern intellect. But this is a painful and a dubious process. A brand-new theory of inspiration, or a clever dodging through the first chapters of Genesis, is not calculated to make the church a great and imposing fact. Moreover, the operation is at best Sisyphean, for no sooner have you got religion well reconciled with current science than a new science comes along to compel you to begin the job all over again. The old theology has, in practice, to meet the terrible difficulty of a "we-know-all-that" air in the congregations of to-day, while it seems to be the weakness of the new theology that it starts more doubts in one sermon than it can lay in two. A preacher in Whitechapel recently had a painful experience of this. He had discoursed on the new view of hell, not as a place of physical suffering, but as a state of sin and alienation from God, the soul itself its own dungeon. Walking out behind some of his hearers, he heard one of them say to another: "Parson says there be'ant no hell, Dick. Where be you and I to go then?" The new theology had filled them with a fresh sense of homelessness, as if their one sure provision for the future had been suddenly taken away.

A much surer as well as a more useful way to restore and preserve the prestige of the church seems to us to lie in development on the social side. It was never more obvious than it is to-day that the principal strength of the church is as a social institution, and a frank recognition of that fact seems only proper. Certain it is that the newer organizations and observances which tend to make the church less awful and more human have done a great deal to win back to it the indifferent. This being so, it is idle to argue against them. As long as the new methods can do what the old methods aimed to do but failed of achieving, they will surely remain in vogue. Whatever may be their effect on the historic conception of the church or on the doctrine of the church—and the effect on both cannot but be profound—they will be cherished for their excellent practical and reformatory results. And it would be hard to deny that such results are their sufficient justification.

WORKING WITH FROUDE ON *FRASER'S MAGAZINE.*—I.

New York, November, 1894.

Near the close of 1863 I was invited by Froude to visit him, in consequence of an article of mine sent, by Carlyle's suggestion, to *Fraser* ("The Transcendentalists of Concord"), and for eighteen years I enjoyed his friendship.

I continued writing for *Fraser* so long as he was its editor. His characteristic liberality was a good deal pressed by my articles during the civil war in America and the period of reconstruction. He was not quite a captive of Carlyle on the negro question; he regarded slavery as an evil, but he had the instinctive dislike of a philosophical historian to revolutionary or militant methods of reform. At the time, many of his views on American questions appeared to me merely academic, but I have since often had to reflect on the greater foresight with which he apprehended some of the sequelæ of a reform secured, however inevitably, by force. Moreover, Froude was able to quote some of the most eminent abolitionists in America against the policy of "coercing the South," such sentiments having been freely uttered before the attack on Fort Sumter. In one of his earliest notes to me, Froude says:

"I am amazed by the course Motley has taken. He once stayed at my house, when the trouble in America was beginning, and completely indoctrinated me into the idea of disunion, which he thought to be the feeling of the North. But when I met him after the war had broken out, and spoke of his former sentiments, he almost foamed at the mouth."

Although my political articles were hard for Confederate sympathizers to bear, Froude never changed a sentence himself, and rarely induced me to alter them; and only in one case ("The New Rebellion in America," November, 1867) did he print any disclaimer. This was in a footnote saying that the paper expressed "the opinions of the extreme Republican party; opinions curious and interesting in themselves, yet not necessarily sound or certain to be verified by fact." His usage, after I had selected a subject relating to the struggle, was to write me some thoughts, strongly put, meant to restrain my enthusiasm, which saw the New Jerusalem hovering over America, and waiting to alight when the negro was made a citizen. As all articles in *Fraser* were anonymous, such restraint was not unfair, and in reading the subjoined extracts from Froude's notes their practical purpose as well as their off-hand character should be remembered:

"I am going to ask you to revise some of the more gushing passages in your last five pages. My own intense conviction is that fifty years hence people will look upon the whole emancipation enthusiasm as—like many other enthusiasms—a dream of madness. I do not wish to make my own opinion the absolute rule of what is to appear in *Fraser*, and still less do I look forward to what will be said of us fifty years hence; but I do not like to affect a tone of thinking and feeling the precise reverse of the truth."

This note related to an article which appeared in June, 1865, "The Assassination of President Lincoln." I had good reason to be grateful for the alterations asked for, as they diminished the stock I had taken in Andrew Johnson, so soon to become worthless. As I was a Virginian, both Carlyle and Froude listened to my views about slavery with respect, and Carlyle generally encouraged him to let me have my say in the magazine, though he sometimes stormed at me about them afterwards. No article was ever refused admission. Premising only that Froude never gave the year in his dates, I continue the extracts, which refer to different papers, without interruption.

"I fear that on the slave question I agree more nearly with Carlyle than with you. At least I look on it, and have all my life looked on it, as a thing to be allowed to wear itself gradually away as civilization advances. You cannot treat an institution as old as mankind as a crime to be put out by force. If you do, you are unjust, and the injustice will recoil upon yourselves. You make wrong into right by treating it unfairly. You are playing once again on a new stage the old game of Philip the Second and Alva. You cannot be more persuaded of the wickedness of slavery than they were of the wickedness of heresy. The universe does not allow one section of mankind to inflict its views upon another at the point of the sword. If the sword is pressed into a service beyond the common sense of mankind, it will kill the man that uses it. You won't believe any of this, but you will find it to be so, unless the laws under which we live in this world are suddenly altered."

"Your article suggests so many considerations that I am obliged to pause upon it for a month. Either I must add notes or you must introduce qualifications. You accuse England of want of sympathy. England has no want of sympathy, but England has been taught lessons by painful experience. You propose to force the South henceforward to govern itself by Northern ideas, and you think that now, after Grant's election, they are certain to comply. England has for 700 years been trying to force English ideas upon Ireland, at least as superior in themselves as yours are to the Virginians'. Our Catholic Church in the 16th century was more bloody and cruel to heretics than the Black Code to the negroes. We have conquered the country fifty times, confiscated the estates, settled provinces with immigrants, instituted preachers of our ideas in every parish in the island; and we are now obliged to confess that we have gone to work the wrong way, and were attempting the impossible. It is curious that the only Englishmen who do loudly agree with your Republicans are those who are the loudest the other way about Ireland. You may be right, and you may succeed, but if you do I shall expect to hear that Congress has successfully repealed the law of gravitation. There is not a single instance in history in which one nation, or one part of a nation, has succeeded by force in compelling the unwilling adoption of its own creed, however superior that creed may be. 'Wrong,' we have learnt, 'is no match for right'; but it is more than a match for right and power combined. . . .

"If you wish to persuade us, it will not be by setting down what you call our coldness to ill-will or indifference, but by recognizing that we Old-World people have reasons for hesitation and distrust, and by showing why those reasons are not applicable. Every word you say in this article I can parallel from Irish state papers advocating the policy which has brought us to our present difficulties. The argument of arguments, in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, was that the only enemies of England were the chiefs and the land-owners; that those very chiefs were the brutal oppressors of the peasantry, and that our business was to destroy the 'O's' and the 'Macs,' and establish the 'earth-tillers' in their place, supported by English immigrants, English laws, an English creed, and an English army. What has come of all that? The earth-tillers preferred poverty and wrong under their own chiefs to prosperous industry under us. Our immigrants imbibed Irish ways of thinking, and turned against us; and here we are. Cool English spectators feel assured that the negroes, having to live among the Southern whites, will be led by them in the same way, that you must and will fail as we failed, and that the only results of what you are doing (by you I mean Emerson, Wendell Phillips, yourself, and those who agree with you) will be to make the ultimate separation of North and South in some shape or other absolutely necessary and certain."

"I do not wholly believe the telegraph report of [President] Johnson's message. He is not likely to be standing out in mere dogged obstinacy. I shall be glad to hear what you think of a letter from Jonathan to John—a wild production, but not without character and merit." (The pamphlet alluded to was written by myself.)

"Write by all means. I shall be glad to have your view about the impending struggle [State reconstruction]. Only remember what we in England said from the beginning—that the war was the least part of the matter; that the real difficulty would begin after the South was conquered. So far as we can see, things are going exactly the way we expected. You are compelled to keep up a military government in the South, and that military government increases the feelings which render it necessary. *Mutatis mutandis*, you are repeating our experience with Scotland. We could conquer it and hold it ten, twenty, thirty years. Then English taxpayers grew weary of the cost. A foreign war obliged us to let them go. It is by measures of this kind and not by sudden revolts that separate nationalities are formed in this world; and I adhere to my own belief that reunion on equal terms is growing daily more difficult, and reunion on any other impossible. Still, write quite freely for *Fraser*, and treat my opinion as the prejudice of an Englishman who shows only his ignorance of what he is talking about."

"It looks like fighting again; and anyhow I suppose it must come to that in the end. The South ought to agree to have the number of their representatives diminished—if the negroes are not to vote, they ought not to count. The further demand, that every one who held office [in the Confederacy] during the war should be disabled for the future, seems to my eyes most irrational."

"Carlyle thinks exactly as I do—being only more emphatic—as to the probability or possibility of a loving reception of New England ideas down South. Anyhow, however, I suppose you must go in, in March, which will suit with Grant's accession."

"We must get the *Alabama* affair settled before many weeks are over if we mean to escape an infernal mess. There is every good disposition towards us at present at Washington, and we ought to take advantage of it."

Froude not only used all his influence to bring about a generous settlement of our *Alabama* claims, but he steadily perceived that some of his views about the tendency of things in America were mistaken. The Southern States were not Ireland. Froude was large-minded, and knew how to say, "I was wrong." It should be added that during all the time covered by these extracts, as indeed always, Froude was invariably hospitable and kind to Americans who sought his acquaintance, and was indeed always a sincere friend of this country.

MONCURE D. CONWAY.

## ALEXANDER III.

PARIS, November 7, 1894.

ONCE more the streets and boulevards of Paris show us the French and Russian flags united on windows and balconies; but now the tricolor and yellow flags are surmounted with long black crape. A year ago, all was joy and enthusiasm during the visit made by Admiral Avelan and his officers; now all is sorrow, uneasiness, and vague fear of the future. From the statesman to the laboring man, everybody feels that the untimely death of Alexander III. has closed a political era and opened a new one full of uncertainties and perhaps of dangers and of woes. You can still see in our shop windows the colored engravings showing President Carnot, in his black coat and with the red cordon of the Legion of Honor across his breast, giving his hand to the massive and tall Emperor of all the Russias. And now they are both gone, and how strange are the ironies of history. President Carnot never for a moment in his life felt himself in danger from the anarchists; if there was a representative man who could think that his life was safe and that he had nothing to fear from assassins, it was the head of a free and representative government, the president of a republic, the highest expression of the popular suffrage. Carnot, who was a calm and courageous man, always bore with reluctance and impatience the precautions of the police. Under his government all the laws passed in the House, good or bad, were passed apparently for the benefit of the working and the suffering classes; socialism pervaded the legislative work; still, Carnot

was the chosen victim of the anarchists, of the party which has declared war on the capitalist and the bourgeoisie.

Alexander III. was, during his whole reign, thinking of the Nihilists, and, instead of becoming, like his father, their victim, he died a natural death. Nature did what dynamite or the dagger could not do. Remember under what tragical circumstances he ascended the throne. The cruel death of Alexander II., assassinated by the Nihilists, took place on the 13th of March, 1881. Alexander II. had been on the throne for twenty-six years. On the very day of his death he had sent to the Home Office an order to announce in the *Official Messenger* that he would convoke an assembly entirely composed of the provincial states and of the *dumas* of the great cities; this would have been the opening of a constitutional era, something like the "Assembly of the Notables" which preceded the Convocation of the States-General. Can we wonder that, after the horrible death of Alexander II., his son did not think it possible to give satisfaction to a party which used assassination as one of its means? The times were very threatening; the Nihilists had accomplices everywhere, even in the army, even in the imperial palaces.

One of the witnesses of the first reception which Alexander III. gave to the diplomatic corps, M. Melchior de Vogüé, writes:

"He received us on the 8th of April, in the palace which was said to be undermined, not far from the tribunal where, on the same day, appeared the assassins of Alexander II. The new monarch wore the long tunic of the Cossacks of the Don, which made him look even taller; he addressed a few words to the assembled diplomats. Accustomed as we were to the ease, the affable talk of the late Emperor, our impression was uncertain; a slight embarrassment in the person and the speech betrayed the cruel annoyance of the Czar at his first representation. Through a half-open door connecting with his writing-room, I still see three children's heads, smiling, curiously watching all these unknown strangers. Of these children, now become men, one struggles to day with an implacable malady, another has just placed on his head the heavy crown of Russia."

Alexander III. lived chiefly at his residence at Gatshina, an old and savage castle, built among a forest of fir trees and surrounded with ponds. Gatshina became a sort of fortress; the Emperor, always shy and timid, liked to live there, away from the noise of St. Petersburg. He worked incessantly, reading the reports of his ministers and putting brief notes to them. He would have no chancellor; the time of the Nesselrodes and Gortchakoffs had passed. He probably did not forgive Gortchakoff for having become a sort of tool in the hands of Bismarck. He had, like all the Slavophiles (and he was a thorough Slavophile at heart), not forgotten that Russian diplomacy had been completely defeated at the Congress of Berlin. The Russian armies, which, after the terrible fighting before Plevna, had been carried to the very door of Constantinople, had recrossed the Balkans. The Emperor became his own chancellor, and in reality his own minister of foreign affairs.

He was a man of few words; he might even be called an enigmatic man; but the development of events showed by degrees what was the exact character of his policy. His first acts proved clearly that he meant to be an autocrat, and that he did not intend to relinquish any portion of his authority. In one of the first cabinet meetings, the privy councillor Nabokoff read to his colleagues a sort of manifesto on the part of the Emperor. Loris Melikoff and Abaza, who had prepared the ukases which Alexander III. was on the point of signing when he was murdered, sent their resignations to Gatshina, and Gen. Ignatieff, a thorough Russophile, became Minister of the Interior. In an ukase of the 12th of May the Czar confessed "his faith in the strength and legitimacy of his autocratic power" to reëstablish order in the empire; he hoped to give a new development to the religious and moral sentiments of his people. He began a difficult and laborious war against corruption, which is the plague of the Russian administration. Inaugurating a policy of retrenchment, he reduced the number of offices in the imperial household, he appointed a number of commissions for the reform of the administration of the army and the police, and to regulate the condition of the former serfs. There were, when his father died, still three millions of peasants who were unable to pay for the land which had been allotted to them, and who, in consequence, remained under the severe tutelage of their former lords. They had to acquit themselves by degrees towards these masters, by bodily labor. Alexander III. came to their help; by an ukase of the 9th of January, the Government paid the lords, in banknotes, the price of the lands which were in the hands of the emancipated serfs, and they had to reimburse the State in a number of annuities. They were given all the rights of proprietorship from the date of the 1st of January, 1883. Were it only for this boon, it can easily be conceived that among the peasants Alexander III. was looked upon as a saviour and a benefactor more than an ordinary sovereign. The emancipation of the serfs could hardly have been accomplished otherwise than by the autocratic will of the Emperor; the terms of emancipation, had they been discussed by chambers necessarily composed of the former masters, could never have been as favorable as those which were adopted.

The Emperor felt in many questions the need of his autocratic power; he felt it particularly when he made the liberal ukase in favor of the Old Believers or Starovertzi, of whom there are more than thirteen millions. Though their ceremonies differ but little from those of the Orthodox church, they could not open churches, nor send their children to the schools and academies of the State; in the army, they could not become officers. Alexander III., by a stroke of the pen, put an end to all these disabilities. He chose, among the first objects of his attention, the corruption which existed in all branches of the Russian administration, and which had already been denounced by Pushkin and by all the great Russian writers. This corruption was so great, so universal, that it can be compared only to what exists in the Ottoman Empire. How far this war against the Russian form of backsheesh has been successful, it would be difficult to say; but we must nevertheless give credit to the Emperor for his attempt to cleanse the Augean stables. The Emperor's efforts were naturally directed also towards all measures which tended to put the Russian finances on a stronger basis. In these efforts he was fortunate enough to find much help in France. Napoleon III. said that France could make war for an idea; France can also make investments for an idea. When Italy joined the Triple Alliance, the French capitalists sold their Italian funds, and made investments in Russia as soon as it was generally believed that Russia was averse to war and would not allow the Triple Alliance to become offensive.

How this feeling came to become universal, it would be difficult to tell. The genesis of what is called the Franco-Russian alliance was slow; it was like one of nature's phenomena—it was born in silence and darkness. Alexander III. said nothing to the Triple Alliance; he said nothing, at first, to France; it was felt, however, that a great change was taking place in the constellations of the political sky. Alexander III. was very slow to separate from the old alliance of the three Emperors, the Dreikaiserbund, but he felt early that Austria had benefited more than Russia from the Turkish war; she had taken Servia and Herzegovina without firing a shot, while Russia could not even prevent Bulgaria from choosing a prince who was, or appeared to be, in the Austrian interests. When Alexander allowed the tie of the Dreikaiserbund to become very loose, he had to look about for some declared or at least virtual ally. There was France, all ready, isolated since 1871, and at times even alarmed about herself. It is my belief that there is not, as some people think, any written understanding between France and Russia—anything that can be compared to the diplomatic documents which bear the signatures of the sovereigns of Germany, Austria, and Italy. But Alexander III. felt himself slowly drawn towards France by a sort of irresistible necessity. With his habitual horror of writing, he avoided as much as he could written engagements; his own will, his own interest, spoke loudly enough. He felt that this sentimental Franco-Russian alliance was a great bar to those who wished to embark Europe in great adventures; he was a peacemaker, and he overcame, in the interest of peace, his natural antipathy for many men. He was also made to believe, after many years, that if there was no stability in the parliamentary cabinets of France, if they fell in succession like card-houses, there was nevertheless a certain continuity in French aspirations, likes, and dislikes; he was told that the French army survived all the parliamentary defeats, that it was imbued with a spirit of discipline and of patriotism, which, at a given moment, could make it again a most formidable weapon. And thus it happened that the Franco-Russian alliance, after having long been a mere instinct, became a fact, an obvious factor in politics.

The happiest moments which Alexander III. spent in his laborious life were probably those which he passed every year in Denmark, with the family of his wife, away from all etiquette, away from the Nihilists. Those who saw him there represent him as the best and simplest of men, fond of animals and of children, a child of nature himself; in his gigantic frame, the true type of the tender and kindly Russian, not demoralized by Occidental civilization, full of natural affections and of natural sympathies.

# Correspondence.

## THE MANDATE OF THE ELECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am too warm an admirer of the *Nation* to indulge in captious criticism, but in comparing your recent editorial utterances with those on the previous congressional election, there appears to me a certain inconsistency.

You will remember that after the election of 1892 you urged upon the President-elect the importance of an early session of Congress for the purpose of revising the tariff; you believing, with many others, that such was the mandate of the people. Why, then, should not

President Cleveland call an early session of the recently elected Congress, so that the expression of the popular will be formulated in a tariff act more or less *à la* McKinley? If there was reason for attributing the election of 1892 to a tariff reform proclivity, is there not equal reason for ascribing the recent tidal wave to a protectionist reaction?

There were few, if any, Republican speakers who participated in the recent campaign, who were not closely identified with McKinleyism. Governor McKinley was greeted with the wildest enthusiasm, and repeatedly nominated for the Presidency at the meetings which he addressed in New York, as well as in other States. Mr. Harrison, who signed the McKinley bill, and who has since not wavered in his convictions of its merits, was also warmly received. If Mr. Reed was apologetic, we must remember that his Presidential bee cannot well hover around the McKinley hive.

You intimate in a recent editorial that it was apathy rather than changes in conviction, rebuke to party management rather than loss of faith in party policies, which led to the Republican defeat of 1892 and the Democratic rout of 1894. But if this is conclusive, which I question, it does not appear to be more available as an argument for one election than for another. Under our system of government we are obliged to assume that a majority of voters is competent to decide on all economic, political, and financial questions which may come before them, and that such majority knows what it wants. Should not, therefore, the wishes of an overwhelming majority be promptly complied with? C. A. W.

BALTIMORE, November 15, 1894.

[To another correspondent last week we expressed our belief that the Republican majority just elected to the House could not define its mandate. In fact, if ever there was an election in off years which was obscured by mixed issues, that of November 6 was emphatically one. The necessity North and South of getting rid of the Populist incubus, and again of suppressing Tammanyism, unquestionably overruled national considerations over a large tract. Democratic apathy and abstention, produced either by hatred of corruption or disgust with the mismanagement of the tariff, cannot be interpreted to the advantage of the opposite party as a mandate contrary to Democratic principles. The President, grown wiser since 1885, refused to vote for Hill or to utter a single word—even to "save the party"—that would contribute to his success. How absurd to suppose he was thus issuing a "mandate" against himself! He knows, and we all know, that his reëlection was public approval of a tariff-reformer, and that while protectionist views were maintained and protectionist orators applauded in the late canvass, the undoing of the mutilated Wilson bill was not a favorite topic with these gentlemen. In fact, if we reasoned logically from Mr. Reed's argumentation, we should have to regard the election as a second whack at protection—for were we not told *ad nauseam* that the Democratic party stultified itself by passing a protectionist measure? Nor, to meet our correspondent's point about an early session, must we forget that the election of 1892 was a mandate to Mr. Cleveland as the head of a victorious party, for whose fidelity to its principles he more than any one else was responsible. The mandate now, if there be one, may be to the new Congress, but Mr. Cleveland has no responsibility for the party consistency of that body.—ED. NATION.]

## THE STRIKE AND THE VOTE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Do you not think that in estimating the reasons why so many Democratic voters stayed at home on the last election day, some weight should be given to the resentment felt by members of the labor-unions all over the country at the action of the President in sending the United States troops to Chicago during the Pullman strike? The feeling was and is very bitter. I have no means of measuring its strength, but from what I have heard said, I should consider it one element, and a very considerable one, in the West.

Good statesmanship is sometimes very poor politics in the narrow sense. Regular troops are especially hateful to our foreign voters.

Yours very truly,

CHARLES F. JOHNSON.

HARTFORD, CONN., Nov. 18, 1894.

## HALLUCINATIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me, as the spokesman for a number of persons who carefully examined and rejected the evidence about phantasms of the dying presented in the book called 'Phantasms of the Living,' to say that we do not consider the new Census of Hallucinations as satisfactory, nor the conclusion from it legitimate; and that our objection is to the committee's logic. It is true that for any ordinary case one might let the evidence go as sufficient, but, the conclusion being so revolutionary, in our opinion an exacter proof is necessary.

We object to your assumption that whoever rejects the reasoning of the committee is necessarily a positive disbeliever in the reality of the phantasms. I, for my part, in my attack on that book, fully admitted that it ought to be regarded as sufficient to silence any pooh-poohing of the belief in ghosts.

C. S. PEIRCE.

ARISBE, MILFORD, PA., November 13, 1894.

## THE ORIGIN OF *BAYOU*.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The communication of Prof. Wyman in No. 1533 of the *Nation*, page 361, on "the American word *bayou*," seems open to the same criticism as the 'New English Dictionary' and the 'Century' but too often invite when they pass judgment upon a word without fully canvassing the authorities. The Indian origin of *bayou* has been known to the writer of this note for some ten years past, and probably to other students of American dialect as well. It seems strange that Prof. Wyman, while acquainted with the etymologies of Pascagoula, Pensacola, Apalachicola, given by Byington and others, should have failed to notice the following passage in the first volume of Dr. A. S. Gatschet's 'A Migration Legend of the Creek Indians' (Philadelphia, 1884):

"The full form of the tribal name [*i. e.*, Bayogoula] is Bayuk-ókla, or *river-tribe, creek-* or *bayou-people;* the Cha'hta word for a smaller river, or river forming part of a delta, is *báyuk*, contr. bŏk, and occurs in Boguechito Bok'húmma, etc." (p. 113).

It is in justice to my friend, the distinguished linguist of the Bureau of Ethnology, that I call attention to this, the first scientific statement of the etymology of this interesting American word. Prof. Wyman's independent solution of the etymological problem which the word has presented to many is heartily to be welcomed; but priority lies, I am fain to believe, with Dr. Gatschet. Prof. Hempl of the University of Michigan, to whom the writer of this note communicated his belief in the Indian origin of *bayou*, some time ago, is now engaged upon an investigation of the origin, history, and local distribution of the word, the results of which will no doubt soon be made public. A. F. CHAMBERLAIN.

CLARK UNIVERSITY, WORCESTER, MASS., November 16, 1894.

## MODERN GREEK AND ITS PRONUNCIATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Gennadios's article on "Teaching Greek as a Living Language" has drawn out three letters in the *Nation*. Mr. Alden, in his sympathetic letter, showed clearly that he had caught, to a remarkable degree, the true spirit of modern Greek and its relation to ancient Greek. I am sorry I cannot say the same for Mr. Lawton, for his letter is most unsympapathetic; while the distinguished classical scholar, Prof. Goodwin, believes that the question of Greek pronunciation ought to be fought over, not in the columns of the *Nation*, but upon the ramparts of Constantinople between the Greeks and the Turks in a deadly combat. Blood, not ink, he declares, should decide the question. No one ever suspected so amiable a man of being so sanguinary.

Three elements constitute the modern Greek: the dialects, the common language (nicknamed Romaic), and the literary one. The dialects are used only in their respective localities; the other two prevail all over Greece, now commingling, now struggling for supremacy, and all the time making faces at each other. The common language exists by reaction or rebellion against the slavery of grammar, and it will exist just so long as the literary one exists; if the literary one perishes, the common one will perish too, for want of having something to rebel against. It is well that it is so, for this rivalry has a salutary influence on both of them, since it restrains the one from reaching too high a style, the other from reaching too low. I dare say such is the case more or less with languages everywhere.

Mr. Lawton, in calling modern Greek patois, makes the same mistake all foreigners make when they visit the mother country whose language they have studied in cold type with the eye only, without having ever learned it by ear, and hear it spoken for the first time. The common language is genuine Greek or Hellenic only here and there—in forms and syntax—free from the thraldom of grammar. The Greek detests the stiffness of formality in dress and in speech, and for this reason, when he retires to the privacy of his home, he gladly lays aside cuffs, collars, and frills, and in chatting with his family and friends he suits his speech to his dress by discarding, metaphorically speaking, the grammatical cuffs, collars, and frills from many words and phrases. This

simple, unaffected speech is the informal speech of the people.

I used to look upon English, during my first year or so in this country, just as Mr. Lawton looks now upon Greek. From a philological standpoint, English appeared to me to be a monstrosity, the spoken language a patois, and its pronunciation a jargon; but I did not hastily write my immature impressions and send them to a Greek newspaper. Only gradually was I forced to change my opinion, and not before the English language reached my understanding through my ear. Then I began to see and appreciate the force, the beauty, and the individuality of the English language, written or spoken. And now, after a residence of nearly twenty years in the United States, I feel that, next to the Greek, nothing in the world is more beautiful than the English language, literature, and pronunciation.

Mr. Lawton's statements about the literary or journalistic language are absurd. This language is perfectly natural to, and in direct touch with, the people at large. The newspapers' style follows the popular taste; otherwise, they could not live a day. The different shades in style are due to the individualism of the writers and to the plasticity of the Greek language, ancient and modern. Xenophon's 'Anabasis' is not read in Greek schools; Esop, Lucian, and the 'Cyropædia' are read instead. Yet the journalistic style, reflecting the literary taste of the educated classes, is so high that, if a newspaper were to publish the 'Anabasis' in serial form, its readers would read it with such avidity, as contemporary war-news, that they would scarcely stop to notice here and there the few differences in forms and syntax; the style would appear to them a little too Attic, and only the arms of the soldiers would betray the age of the story.

The objections to the modern Greek pronunciation are due to prejudice. The Greeks are themselves well aware, from inscriptions and allusions in ancient authors, of certain changes in the sound of one or two vowels; but these changes had already been established in the κοινὴ διάλεκτος (*i. e.*, the Attic dialect, slightly modified, of the Alexandrian period) about the first half of the third century B. C., and in all probability as far back as Demosthenes, a century earlier. The chief characteristic of this pronunciation is the reading by the written signs that mark the accents, which were introduced at the close of the third century B. C. in order to preserve "the correctness of speech." Through the living pronunciation of the living Greeks lies the road to the life of the Greek classics, for what took Mr. Lawton years of laborious study to enable him to see (if, indeed, he has ever seen and felt) the "throbbing life and beauty" in the pages of Sophocles and Plato, an educated, native Greek will accomplish at first glance at a classic page.

J. P. LEOTSAKOS.

249 S. 15TH ST., PHILADELPHIA, Nov. 15, 1894.

# Notes.

THE Bureau of Education has engaged Mr. Appleton Morgan and Mr. L. L. Lawrence to compile a 'Directory of American Literary Societies,' which the Bureau will print and distribute. A circular calls for certain data, the reply to which will insure the society a copy of the Directory.

S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, are soon to publish an authorized translation, by E. J. MacEwan, of Freytag's 'The Technique of the Drama.'

A third edition, revised and much expanded, of Dr. Norman Kerr's 'Inebriety; or, Narcomania, its Etiology, Pathology, Treatment and Jurisprudence,' is at once to be brought out by J. Selwin Tait & Sons.

B. Westermann & Co. send us the prospectus of a folio book of travels, 'Durch Süd-Amerika: Aus der Zeichenmappe eines reisenden Künstlers,' to be published sumptuously in Hamburg by Louis Bock & Son. The travelling artist is Th. Ohlsen, whose "vehicles" are pencil, charcoal, pen, and india ink. The large scale of this publication permits very broad effects.

An assured welcome awaits the Complete Works of J. G. Whittier in a one-volume "Cambridge Edition" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), a generous octavo in good type with two columns to the page, uniform with the one-volume Longfellow. Here will be found everything in the seven-volume Riverside Edition, plus the supplementary collection 'At Sundown' and such poems as have been brought to light in the just published authorized Life of Whittier by Mr. Pickard. Among these are some curiosities, like the bellicose "Song of the Vermonters, 1779," which served as a quarry for "The Yankee Girl," and some rarities, like the Frémont campaign song, so hard to find in its sheet-music form. Mr. Scudder prefixes a compact and skilful sketch of the poet's career which his admirers will be glad to read. There are indexes of titles and first lines, and an etched portrait of Whittier in his later period.

Mr. William Martin Johnson, who, if we mistake not, illustrated a sumptuous edition of 'Ben Hur' for the Messrs. Harper, has employed his talent in a similar manner upon Kingsley's 'Hypatia,' now issued by the same house in covers of a vivid green silk. His designs are partly imaginative of the personages and action of the story, partly emblematic and archæological, and, again, occupy a whole page or, more commonly, indent the letterpress or haunt the margin or serve as head or tail-pieces. They are delicate and graceful, not always strong, and are drawn in wash or with the pen. We, for our part, can but regard the irregular distribution of these little pictures as a passing affectation, not truly in harmony with the art of Gutenberg; but they are remarkably even in quality, and lend an air of painstaking and outlay to the edition. Being engraved by process, they exact a shiny page, and this is a toll upon the reader who threads his way through them.

We have already spoken sufficiently of M. Masson's 'Napoléon chez lui.' This chronicle of petty details has not failed to be turned into English, by James E. Matthew; J. B. Lippincott Co. being the American publishers. The typography is needlessly open, and the two volumes might well have been made one. We cannot praise the translation; for example (vol. i., p. 64): "Ségur, who was already devoted to Bonaparte, and had joined the hussars as a volunteer in the campaign of 1800 (*whose* father, among the first to come over, etc.)"; (p. 65): "but enjoyed their favor for a short time only, *having died* of illness at the beginning of 1816." Add to this an annoying retention of French phrases: we count ten on p. 133, all in italics. The illustrations of the original are reproduced with this edition.

A longer interval was needed to find a translator and an English public for the 'Memoirs of the Duchesse de Gontaut,' which touch the Napoleon epoch at its beginning and at its close. They have been translated by Mrs. J. W. Davis, and are likewise in two volumes, illustrated with portraits (Dodd, Mead & Co.). The rendering is noticeably intelligent and idiomatic.

The same publishers have resuscitated Anster's metrical version of the first part of 'Faust,' for the sake of illustrations by Frank M. Gregory. These, in various tints of heliotype, with some vignettes in the text, seldom rise above the level of prettiness, and mostly substitute pose for expression. The volume is attractively made up. So is Tennyson's 'Becket,' with the same imprint, but with illustrations by F. C. Gordon, whom a feeble play has certainly not inspired. So, for a third, is Dickens's 'Tale of Two Cities' in two charming little volumes, with designs by Edmund H. Garrett—pen-etchings, full-page and vignette, not powerful, but decorative and unobtrusive, and that is a good deal. The gray cloth binding is tastefully stamped in gold.

Lovell, Coryell & Co. have reissued in two presentable volumes, with excellent portraits, Mrs. Oliphant's 'Victorian Age of English Literature,' of which we had our say as an agreeable guide-book a couple of years ago. The impression is a little faint, but the typographic page is handsome, with broad margins for notes.

*Mutatis mutandis*, we need only repeat our comment last summer on G. Montbard's 'Among the Moors' to convey a correct impression of this author's 'Land of the Sphinx' (Dodd, Mead & Co.). It has all the defects of taste and style that distinguished his former work, and, in spite of the numerous productions of his pencil, it is not to be preferred to the dryest guide-book. Flippancy is as little in place in Egypt as perhaps in any country in the world, and flippancy is the note of this octavo of 341 pages.

Félix Dubois's 'Anarchist Peril' (London: T. Fisher Unwin) is mainly interesting on account of its collection of anarchist caricatures, which will be of value to the future historian as proof (if proof were wanting) of the very low state of art and intellect in the anarchist press. The fact is that the propaganda would have made much more impression on the world if the anarchists had confined themselves to reform "by deed." If they had merely blown people to atoms and assassinated "bourgeois" right and left without saying a word, a certain mystery would have attached to their performances which would have helped them; but the publications of their "doctrines," the dying speeches of their heroes, and the debased condition of intellect revealed by their press, have opened people's eyes to the real character of the creatures and the motives which recruit their ranks. The amazing thing is that they should ever have had men of education for leaders.

Prof. Paul Fredericq of Ghent has supplemented his recent 'Onze Historische Volksliederen' with a discourse in French on 'La Chanson Historique en Langue Néerlandaise avant les troubles religieux,' forming a little brochure of thirty-one pages. He points out the rarity of historical songs prior to the dissemination of printing, when they fell by the wayside and perished, owing to the temporary interest felt in the events which gave them birth. Still, the industry of scholars has resurrected about five hundred of them anterior to the religious troubles of the Low Countries. Of these Prof. Fredericq gives specimens with translations into French. The most interesting to the general student are two on the voyage to Spain of Philip the Fair and his Queen Juana to take possession of Castile on the death of Isabella,

The first of these depicts in quaint terms the cowardice of Philip on being overtaken by a storm in the Channel; the other explains his early death, as caused by poison administered to him in a cup of wine by Juana. While, of course, these effusions have no weight as historical documents, they are of much interest as embodiments of popular manners and of the currents of popular thought, and their general characteristics are set forth by Prof. Fredericq with his wonted ability.

'Monsieur Cotillon,' by Henri Rabusson (Paris: Calmann Lévy), might have been a strong book; the subject—a sad enough one, the hold of vice on a man—lending itself to serious treatment rather than to the light and airy mode of handling preferred by the author. M. Rabusson has missed his opportunity; perhaps he has not power enough or talent enough to do more than see a good subject—which would be a pity.

Judging from the third number, the more serious contributors seem to be dropping away from the 'Yellow Book' (London: John Lane; Boston: Copeland & Day). James and Dobson, Leighton and Sargent, are conspicuous only by their absence, and the impressionists, literary and artistic, are left to carry on the work alone. How long they can do so remains to be seen. Why is it that these gentlemen can seem to find nothing in life worth representing but the music-hall? That institution is even more prominent in this number than in either of its predecessors, and that is saying a great deal.

'The Leaping Ouananiche: What it is, where, when, and how to catch it,' by Eugene McCarthy (New York: *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co.), has a self-explanatory title. The facts learned from its perusal are that the ouananiche ("leaping" is not a part of the name) is a land-locked salmon, that its habitat is confined to Lake St. John and its tributary waters, and that it can be caught during the fishing season, any time after the ice breaks up in the spring. This disposes of the "what," "where," and "when." The "how" is a more difficult matter, and the author would have done better had he left it out altogether. He makes the mistake of trying to tell how to play the fish—an art which can be gained only by experience. The ouananiche was but little known to anglers until within a few years. Its gamey qualities are now so thoroughly recognized as to need no advertisement. The book has several attractive illustrations, and is valuable as revealing a grand country for anglers.

'The Boy's Own Guide to Fishing, Tackle-Making, and Fish-Breeding,' by John Harrington Keene (Boston: Lee & Shepard), has the two virtues of clearness and completeness. It attempts to lead a boy from inartistic sucker-fishing to the essentially manly and artistic sport of trout, bass, and salmon-fishing, and nothing, to the very humblest detail, is forgotten. The author is evidently a thorough sportsman and accomplished fisherman, and his love for his subject makes his book pleasant reading even for a boy who has grown to be a man. Almost any angler, old or young, may learn things from it which he either never knew or has forgotten, and, if he follows some of its suggestions, may find his increased catch not entirely due to good luck.

In Morley Fletcher's translation of Von Kahlden's 'Methods of Pathological Histology,' with his own notes (Macmillan), are shown the latest German and the most improved English ways of microscopical work with tissues and bacteria. There are no illustrations, no pathology, and no treatment. The reader is supposed to recognize what the microscope shows him, whence the objects arise, and what they demand. But there are multiple devices for staining and fixing these factors, briefly but clearly expressed, to the great saving of the student's time and energy. On the other hand, Schenk's 'Manual of Bacteriology' translated by Dawson (Longmans) is profusely illustrated, although the scale of magnifying is very provokingly seldom noted. It does not treat of histology proper, but is a refreshing contrast in size and perspicuity to treatises that deter by their very volume. Both books are well indexed.

Dr. J. W. Downie's 'Clinical Manual for the Study of Diseases of the Throat' (Macmillan) is a good example of specialty in medicine well developed. The only omission observed is in reference to the practical question, which is of popular interest, whether the removal of enlarged tonsils injuriously affects the voice.

According to a recent article in a Russian newspaper, there were published in Russia, not including Finland, during the past year 33¾ million copies of 10,242 separate works. Of these about three-quarters were published in the Russian language, the remaining quarter being divided between the Polish, Hebrew, German, Lettish, Esthonian, Armenian, etc., in the order named. There was an increase over the preceding year in the number of books published in French, Lettish, Armenian, and Polish, a decrease in the others. The largest proportion of books in Russian, a quarter of the whole, were of a religious character.

In the *Hansische Geschichtsblätter* for 1893 (issued in October, 1894) there is an instructive essay on "Die Hanse zu Ausgang des Mittelalters" by Prof. F. Frensdorff, based on records recently published by the Verein für Hansische Geschichte. He considers the internal organization of the Hanseatic League, its functions and privileges, its relations to the Empire, to the various German principalities, and to foreign Powers. He shows that the League exerted considerable influence upon the internal government of the cities included in the federation. In 1418 an enactment was made that any city guilty of overthrowing its council or governing body should be excluded from the Hanse; this ordinance was frequently confirmed in the fifteenth century. The interesting question whether the federation was a corporation is also examined. The League contended that it was a *corpus* only as regards the enjoyment of its privileges in various countries, but not a *corpus* in the sense that the federated cities were individually liable for each other's acts.

—The third and fourth volumes of the 'Histoire Générale, du IVe siècle à nos jours,' edited by MM. Lavisse and Rambaud (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.) are entitled respectively, 'Formation des Grands États' and 'Renaissance et Réforme: Les Nouveaux Mondes,' and cover the years 1270-1492, 1492-1559. The first wandering of the peoples (the Germanic invasions) was followed by a formative period in which kingdoms were laboriously built up only to topple down, while throughout the land the people slowly segregated into inchoate nationalities. After the second wandering (the Crusades), followed in due time a second epoch of political development, wherein were founded kingdoms which, for the most part, because they were true nations, still exist. These volumes tell the story of this second period of formation: of its beginning in the feudal state, of its rapid development under centralized authority; of the social and religious readjustments that followed the awakening of intellectual activity and moral sensibility among all classes. MM. Coville and De Crue write upon the political history of France, MM. Petit de Julleville, Müntz, Levasseur, and others upon French literature and art. MM. Bémont and Langlois deal with English history. M. Rambaud writes of Russia and the Ottoman and Mongol empires; M. Cahun of Asia, M. Masqueray of Africa. The age of maritime adventure in Portugal is assigned to M. Gallois, and M. Moireau writes with commendable conservatism of the discovery of America. The bibliographies are continued as usual, with their convenient separation of "documents" and "livres"—sources, and recent works of research.

—Prof. Wundt's 'Vorlesungen über Menschen und Thierseele,' published more than thirty years ago, can be named with E. H. Weber's articles, with Fechner's 'Psychophysik' and Helmholtz's works on sight and hearing as one of the pioneers of that experimental method of study in psychology which has become so powerful since. In 1892 Wundt published an edition of it with alterations and omissions, which we have now done into English by Professors Creighton and Titchener of Cornell, and published by Macmillan. There is much to be said against issuing an altered edition of a book that has marked a moment in the development of a science. You deprive it of its value as an historic document, and you fail to make it a genuinely modern work. Prof. Bain's recently published fourth edition of his 'Senses and Intellect' is a case strikingly in point. The translators of the present work, moreover, tell that they "have aimed to furnish a literal, as distinguished from a verbal (*sic*), rendering of the German text, . . . even at the occasional cost of literary effect." These two facts made us open the book with some alarm; but happily it proved causeless. Prof. Wundt's unexampled cleverness in bookmaking has practically led him to write a new work altogether, in which passages from the earlier one have been inserted only where they would still serve; and the translators have not fulfilled their awful threat, but have given us English that is quite unbarbarous even though it may at times be slightly heavy. The result is one of the most available text-books for use in colleges which our language now possesses. It is needless to say that of the doctrines of the earlier work the author has not left many unchanged. In particular the original explanation of so many sensations and judgments by "unconscious judgment" has of course been wholly abandoned, and mechanism and logic are no longer affirmed to be the same: Many of the results of Wundt's later thinking, as expressed at length in his larger books, are here to be found in compendious and popular form; and for a reader who wishes to make some acquaintance with the distinguished Leipzig philosopher, these lectures are decidedly the most advantageous channel of approach.

—Archdeacon Farrar's 'Life of Christ as Represented in Art' (Macmillan) is avowedly written from the ecclesiastical and religious standpoint, not the artistic. All the old talk about the symbolism and poetry of archaic frescoes from the catacombs; all the gushing enthusiasm for the "pure devotional feeling" shown in the round-faced, pursy-mouthed saints and angels of the grasping and irreligious Perugino, whom Michelangelo called a blockhead of art; all Mr. Ruskin's eloquent and ingenious readings of deep meaning into the most theatrical and brutal of Tintoret's

scrawling sketches—are brought out again for our edification. All the pilers of words on words who ever darkened counsel on the subject of art are quoted at length. An artist who never painted a cast shadow in his life is thought to have done something wonderful when he paints figures which cast no shadows, "being angels"; the obviously natural introduction of some carpenter's tools in a picture of the Annunciation is made into a mystical allegory; the most pompous and empty composition of the pompous and empty Fra Bartolommeo is extravagantly lauded, and the commonplace Francia is exalted as a great master, while Rembrandt is denied any claim to be a "religious painter." Art, we are told, was simple and dignified in the fifteenth century because the people were reverent and faithful, and it decayed in the sixteenth not because it was ripe, but because the people had ceased to believe. Why cannot these critics see that there is as much "sadness" in Botticelli's Venuses as in his Madonnas, and that Perugino was a workman who turned out saints all of a pattern to meet the demand? But the interest in everything about art except *art* is immortal, and of the making of many books there is no end.

—Under the name of "Le Musée Social," a somewhat unique industrial institute has lately been founded in Paris, by a distinguished French economist and publicist, the Count de Chambrun, who has given for this purpose his fine old family mansion, No. 5 Rue Las-Cases, and an endowment of 200,000 francs. The three "présidents d'honneur" are MM. Jules Simon, Léon Say, and the Count de Chambrun; the active president, or chief of the faculty, being M. Jules Siegfried. According to the first article of its constitution, the object of the Count de Chambrun's institute is to place freely at the service of *the people*—by means so varied that only political and religious discussions are specifically excluded—a knowledge of "institutions and social organizations which have for their aim and end the amelioration of the physical and moral condition of the artisan class." This new Sorbonne of Work, as it has been called, will offer to craftsmen of high or low degree technical instruction in certain arts, practical "advice," and the latest artistic and scientific data affecting their relations to their work or to society. It is proposed to establish workshops, sociological laboratories, a great technical library, museums, etc., and by means of object-lessons, lectures, conferences, conventions, reports, prizes, and medals, to create a sort of sociological clearing-house, which may become a national centre of instruction and of counsel to wage-earners, and a medium for spreading among them a familiarity with sound economic social theories, and of successful industrial experiments, both at home and abroad. The social-economic exhibits (documents, models, photographs, designs in relief, etc.), which formed so striking a feature of the French display in Paris (1889) and in Chicago (1893), have been given as the nucleus of the Chambrun Museum; the French Government has, by special decree of President Casimir-Perier, endorsed La Société du Musée Social as "an establishment of public usefulness," and has authorized it to report annually to the Minister of Commerce and Industry—which authorization goes far towards securing in the future a State grant. Although the institute will not open until January, 1895, and its attitude towards its clientèle, as expressed in its constiution, is somewhat patronizing, it seems to us entitled to tabulation as the latest attempt on the part of scientific philanthropists to direct into safe and helpful channels the formidable power of the modern workman.

—Some weeks ago M. Georges Docquois convoked in the columns of the Paris *Journal* a "Congrès des Poètes," to each of whom was addressed the somewhat delicate question; "Quel est, selon vous, celui qui, dans la gloire ainsi que dans le respect des jeunes, va remplacer Leconte de Lisle?" The inquiry was taken up and carried further in the *Plume* of October 15 31. No less than one hundred and eighty-nine poets sent in their opinions. The frankest answer, and not the least critical (as regards the inquiry, at any rate), was that of M. Émile Bergerat, who, with a quiet smile, voted for himself. In the general result, Verlaine came out at the head of the poll by a great majority. He received seventy-seven votes, and there was a great gap between him and José-Maria de Hérédia, who followed with thirty-eight. Then came in their order, Stéphane Mallarmé (36), Sully-Prudhomme (32), François Coppée (26), J. Richepin (21), Léon Dierx (15), Catulle Mendès (14), Henry de Regnier (11), and Frédéric Mistral (9). Two names of Americans appear on the list; F. Vielé-Griffin (5), and Stuart Merrill (3). It will be seen that the question, as put, was somewhat embarrassing. It suggests a comparison between two poets who stand apart in violent contrast with each other. The characteristic "note" of Leconte de Lisle's verse, as of his life, was its faultless deportment. That is not the note of Verlaine. His verse, exquisitely musical, is not always faultless if scanned on thumbs and fingers; while his disordered, unhappy life excites other emotions than those of a cool respect. Nothing less than love and pity can the impression fill which his own dual nature and untoward circumstances, as well as vulgar scandal, have stamped upon his brow. And, besides, to many the word "remplacer," for various and possibly opposite reasons, will seem ill-chosen. At any rate, such satisfaction as is proper may be felt at the prospect which is opened in French literature by the manifestation of such a multitude of writers who are, by their own admission, poets. One hundred and eighty-nine of them have been accused of poesy, and have been found *reos confitentes!*

## ROPES'S CIVIL WAR.

*The Story of the Civil War:* A Concise Account of the War in the United States of America, between 1861 and 1865. By John Codman Ropes. Part I. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 8vo, pp. xiv, 274.

THE title of Mr. Ropes's book does not seem to indicate its exact scope. It is not a military history which he has undertaken to write, nor yet a general history of the civil war. He disclaims any purpose to narrate or to consider political matters, yet, with the exception of the first battle of Bull Run, he does not give us more than the barest mention of the engagements and military movements of the first year of the great Rebellion. So far as this first volume goes, his intention seems to be to discuss the more important politico-military situations, together with the personal relations of the civil chiefs with their generals on both sides. It is necessary to try thus to measure the author's aim and purpose, for the reader will otherwise be disappointed in the lack of descriptive detail.

Mr. Ropes offers as a formula which may help to clear up the positions of the combatants in the great struggle, the statement that the South had universally adopted the theory that the United States was not one nation, but a collection of nations. Apart from the question of the unanimity of the Southern people in any theory of Union or secession before hostilities began, it will hardly do to say that the South had consciously adopted the doctrine so formulated. Down to the very last, Southern men professed attachment to the whole country, and patriotism which meant a recognition of the whole country as their own. It would seem to be more accurate to say that they recognized a limited nationality. The world was already familiar with limited monarchy, and there was no difficulty in recognizing a federal nationality which, although limited by the alleged reserved rights of the federated States, was still in a proper sense a nationality which could draw out the patriotic devotion of a whole people and a true affection for fatherland. When this love was soured and this devotion dead, they were ready for the dissolution which they claimed as a reserved right to be used only in the last extremity. This, which is really the common theory, seems also the more logical. It best accounts for all the facts. It leaves wholly open the question of moral right or wrong, and of the justifiable or unjustifiable conduct of their leaders. It seems to leave the difference between the two sections just where the common sense of the people has been accustomed to put it. The Unionists believed this federal nationality to be indissoluble, the secessionists did not.

The situation at Fort Sumter in March and April, 1861, is also subjected to a painstaking analysis which, in general, is sound and instructive. On a single point the author seems to be hardly just to Major Anderson. His instructions were that he should limit himself to the defensive and by no means be the first to shed blood. It was already shown that reinforcements could not be sent in without a collision, and Anderson regarded himself as condemned to await an actual attack upon his fort. In these circumstances he wrote a private letter in which he said his "policy" (as he felt "secure for the present in his stronghold") was to preserve the peace "in the hope of avoiding bloodshed." Commenting on this, the author says it lays Major Anderson open to severe censure, because a military man has no right to have a "policy," which is a function of Government. This strains the meaning of words beyond what is reasonable. Policy means any selected line of conduct, and it seems plain that Anderson regarded this as entirely consistent with his orders. No man in the world was less likely to ignore his orders in choosing the line or "policy" he should follow in loyal subordination to his superiors.

In discussing the conduct of Mr. Lincoln, it is unpleasantly evident that the author is predisposed to depreciate him. Criticising the first call for troops, which recited the lawful occasion for such a call in formal statutory language, Mr. Ropes says that it "is really ludicrous in its minimizing the facts of the situation." It certainly appeared ludicrous to nobody in April, 1861, and its restrained and technical reference to the Rebellion as obstructing the execution of the laws by combinations too powerful to be suppressed by ordinary means, was in accordance not only with good traditional form, but with the public feeling which shrank from official declaration that there was civil war in the land. The deliberate understatement of the crisis made the declaration all the more full of solemn meaning.

In the chapter on "The Opposing Parties" the statement of the relative military aptitude of Northern and Southern men cannot be accepted as sound. It may be doubted if any nation on earth shows a more even range of characteristics than the United States. If it be admitted that in the South there was a little more quick impulsiveness of temperament, and in the North a little more persistent determination of will, we shall have gone quite as far as facts will warrant. By common consent of all witnesses, including the foreign officers sent specially to report upon our armies, no better or braver material for soldiers was ever seen. The enthusiasm of the first enlistment was every whit as intense, as high, as "poetic," north of Mason and Dixon's line as south of it. Northern young men took as kindly to camp life as the Southern youth. There was much in army experience that was "weary" and "distasteful" to both, but it is wide of the mark to say that the taste for and power to excel in military life was not exhibited in one section as much as in the other.

A like impulse to draw contrasts has misled the author in speaking of the selection of military leaders. Any man acquainted with the army could have predicted that the two Johnstons, Lee, Beauregard, Bragg, and G. W. Smith would have been the first called to important command in the South. The same test of accepted reputation made it certain that Scott would call Halleck, McClellan, McDowell, Meigs, and Anderson to his assistance. If Mr. Davis had a personal acquaintance with army men which enabled him to make the selection himself, Mr. Lincoln was at no disadvantage in selecting upon the suggestion of Winfield Scott. The attempted contrast in this respect will not bear inspection.

If Mr. Lincoln called men from civil life to be general officers, so did Mr. Davis; and what more striking instance was there than the appointment by the latter of Bishop Polk to be a major-general? Neither of them was gifted with prophecy, and therefore neither of them could guarantee the success of their appointees in military commands far larger and more responsible than any man on the western continent had ever held. There were failures on both sides among men of whom everything was expected, and there were great military talents developed where they were not looked for. In what war was it ever otherwise?

Mr. Ropes is, however, very emphatic in his assertion that, with an organized, though small, regular army, "there was no sort of need of giving to any untried civilian a rank so high that of itself it constituted a constant temptation to intrust him with an important command." This is a large subject, and its full discussion would need a book as large as the one before us. There were weighty political reasons, which cannot be ignored, for including in the military organization, in such a great popular uprising, the natural leaders of the people. But as a purely military question it is not so one-sided as our author contends. American history does not exhibit the citizen soldier at a disadvantage. The capture of Louisburg by New England militia under Pepperell, a civilian, was a capture from regulars. The officers of the Revolutionary war were civilians pitted against regulars. The war of 1812 ended with three pre-eminent reputations, Andrew Jackson, Jacob Brown, and Winfield Scott—the first two militia generals, and all appointed from civil life. If in our civil war Banks and Baker left Congress to fight, so in the English civil war did Cromwell and Hampden leave Parliament. The French Revolution was still more striking. There was a standing army of old "regulars" as well as the ardent young volunteers, and they were opposed to the regular organizations of all Europe. Military talent sprang from every calling and rank, and held its own against the world. Lawyers, doctors, painters, farmers, private soldiers, and stable-boys became generals, and, after a little, marshals of France. All this does not prove that there is no use in military education, but it should make reasonable men very cautious in asserting that the doors of a particular school open the only way to it.

But the proportions of our war were so vast that when every regular officer who remained true to his colors was counted, we had only a small fraction of the number required to command regiments, brigades, and divisions. Many of these were most needed in the staff departments, many lacked the zeal in the cause which the country imperatively demanded, some shrank from responsibility and did not seek volunteer commands when the way was opened to them. Whoever will take the Army Register of 1860-'61, and count the names, will see that it is mere nonsense to talk of organizing an army of nearly half a million with only these for the higher offices. The popular demand accorded with sound policy in giving the army the character of a *levée en masse*, and letting the shaking together of all classes of men bring to the top those who were fit for their work. Whoever will analyze the rosters of 1864-'5 will see that the "volunteers" did not suffer by the competition.

Another fact to which Mr. Ropes does not give due weight is, that, under existing laws in 1861, the Governors of States sent their contingents to the field, under the first call, completely organized as brigades and divisions. This took the general officers of the State militia, who had at least more idea of organization and tactics than most of the people. Many of these were continued in the service, the Presidential appointment only confirming the State commission. In this way both Butler and Banks took the field with Massachusetts troops by appointment from Gov. Andrew, and it is at least gratuitous to say their employment proved that "the President showed but little judgment in his appointments to high command." Both were men of superior ability, both had led brigades of well-drilled troops in the evolutions of a time of peace, and that was more than could be said at that time of any man who was then or thereafter made a major-general in the regular army. Not one had ever handled so large a body of troops. What so reasonable, then, as to try them? In 1812 no one could tell in advance that Gen. Hull would weakly surrender at Detroit, or Brown show courage and ability at Sackett's Harbor; and what happened did not prove that President Madison had "little judgment" in appointing Hull or great sagacity in appointing Brown. Then, a Massachusetts critic should be fair to Banks and Butler. The former had an honorable record in command of a division and a corps, and showed himself a competent officer in his grade. The latter had unquestioned ability in administrative positions in which other officers of his grade were often employed. If neither succeeded in command of an army in the field, what shall we say of the long list with Halleck at the head?

The simple truth is, that in 1861 there was no way of telling whether a man was fit to be a general officer but by trying; and, as Sherman said, those were lucky who didn't get tried too soon. McClellan, in his memoirs, also says it would have been better for him if he had not had so prominent a command for another year or two. Let us recollect that this was before the days of army schools more advanced than West Point; when we had nothing resembling the education which Moltke was drilling into the Prussian army; when there never had been in the regular army a brigade or division camp for evolutions of the line or field manœuvre. The field officers of the regular regiments were nearly all of them too old for active service, and the list of captains was that from which the men were chosen who became best known in the civil war. They had gone to West Point, as Grant said, knowing only the "three R's, reading, 'riting, and 'rithmetic." They spent four years there in study different from that of other schools in scarce anything but a little engineering of fortifications. They had personal drill in the companies of the cadet battalion, and in company and regimental tactics. With this they graduated, and, considering the low requirements for entrance, more would have been mere "cram." The duties of our little company posts on the frontier would increase familiarity with post routine and administration, but what was there in this to warrant the assumption that these were the only men to be tried as general officers? It is notorious that very few had built upon the beginning made in the Academy, or had the opportunity if they had the will to continue industrious study. It was an individual question as to each, what progress he had made, what qualities he had developed, and what he was competent for. When these things are candidly weighed, it does not appear so clear that there was a class of "professional soldiers" who, by virtue of the label, were exclusively fit for command. We must conclude, therefore, that the distribution of military offices which was then made was not an error of Mr. Lincoln; it was only the adoption of a method which may be called usual in this country, and which would be repeated if we were again forced to enlarge our army suddenly to ten or twenty times its regular strength.

Mr. Ropes regards the Confederate organization with the grades of general and lieutenant-general as better than ours. It may well be doubted. Our system provided that when a general officer was specially assigned by the President to a corps or department, he was thereby given precedence over other officers of similar grade not so assigned. It was as if he were their senior. Mr. Ropes is mistaken in saying that this caused "loss of *esprit de corps* and the general detriment of the service." McClellan, Halleck, Buell, Rosecrans, Sherman, Thomas, Schofield, McPherson, had no other rank but major-general, and no one under them ever questioned their power as commander. It was as complete and obedience was as hearty as to any Confederate "general." The system had the very great advantage, that men might be shifted from one duty to another without losing their commissions. Thus, Sherman commanded a department in 1861; next he went back to a division, later he was promoted to a corps, and reached a department again only at the close of 1863. Later in the war the Confederates themselves mooted the question of making their upper grades temporary, in view of the need for greater scope in trying promising men.

In the chapter on "Plans and Preparations in the West," after mentioning Gen. Thomas's brilliant little victory at Mill Springs, in January, 1862, the author severely criticises Mr. Lincoln by saying that "for some reason,

not capable, in our judgment, of any satisfactory explanation, Gen. Thomas's name was not even mentioned in the order" issued by the President which congratulated the troops and the country on the event. The order itself gave so satisfactory a reason that one is surprised at the criticism. The President's language was, "he returns thanks to the gallant officers and soldiers who won that victory, *and, when official reports have been received*, the military skill and personal valor displayed in the battle will be acknowledged and rewarded in a fitting manner." The country was aching and longing for some gleam of encouragement, and the President hastened to give it on the first despatches. Reference to the journals of the time would show that there were claims that the chief merit belonged to Gen. Schoepf, who had been in command and was reinforced by Thomas. Under such circumstances the President prudently refrained from awarding the honors till official reports were received. Then, he did not forget to give Thomas promotion, though the great events of Fort Donelson and Shiloh had intervened to make Mill Springs look very small. Mr. Ropes—by a slip, no doubt—conveys the idea that Thomas was not promoted; and one who places Thomas's commander, Gen. Buell, so high as he does, surely cannot claim that the subordinate should have been promoted over the head of his chief, for executing that chief's orders! Both were only brigadiers, and the delay of a few weeks in the important campaign then opening was only enough to do justice to Buell and Thomas at once.

A chapter is also devoted to the relations of Mr. Lincoln with Gen. McClellan, and here the same readiness to find the President weak and in the wrong confronts us. This is not for the purpose of praising McClellan, for, if we were to bring together the marks of incompetence attributed to him, nothing would be left but the organizing abilities which belong to an adjutant and inspector-general. When we find, therefore, the President's order for a general movement on the 22d of February called "a curious specimen of puerile impatience," we conclude that either we or the author know very little about Mr. Lincoln. "Puerile impatience" is the very last defect of character which we should dream of imputing to him. Through a long autumn of beautiful weather, an army of fifty thousand Confederates besieged a hundred and fifty thousand equally brave, better drilled, better equipped, better organized troops under McClellan. Navigation on the Potomac was stopped, as was railway communication with the West. Winter came and McClellan would not give to the commander-in-chief a plan or a definite promise of movement. His own memoirs show that he was indulging in grossly insubordinate and contemptuous conduct towards the President. It was nothing but an almost supernatural patience, in view of the perils of changing commanders at such a time, that accounts for the continuance of such a state of things. It is the province of the executive of every government known among men to assign to an army its field of operations and to command instant, continuous, and vigorous activity till it beats the enemy or is beaten. The ultimate reasons of war are all political, and political reasons for action in October or January may be cogent and conclusive. It is for the executive to judge; it is for the general to use his talent, and skill, and courage, if he have any, to make such action a success. It is not for him to say, We will postpone this war till next year! Mr. Lincoln's order was issued only when the patience of Job was exhausted.

So, of the President's order in March, we are told that if Mr. Lincoln "had been equal to his position as commander-in-chief, he would have issued no such document." The answer is, that the extraordinary and almost incredible obstacles to action made the order a necessity. The only alternative was to make a change of commanders. Mr. Lincoln was always a more favorable judge of McClellan's ability than the majority of the public men of the nation. He saw the lack of initiative, courage and enterprise in the general, and hoped that, by assuming himself the responsibility for immediate action, he would make the other qualities useful to the country.

But when Mr. Ropes, after stating clearly the triple superiority of McClellan's forces over the enemy, argues that because he believed the enemy to be twice as strong as the Potomac army, he cannot be blamed for acting as if the "monstrously exaggerated stories" were true, he seems to get quite beyond any legitimate field for debate. In the history of war there have been not infrequent instances of a bold man making two or three surrender to him by sheer audacity and pretence, but it may be doubted if it was ever before heard of that the "conduct" of the dupes was exonerated while their "sagacity" was mildly found lacking. This novel departure will hardly be taken seriously.

It is matter for deep and sincere regret that so earnest a student of military history as Mr. Ropes should have adopted a low estimate of Mr. Lincoln in everything, apparently, but political sagacity. The common sense of the world has put him in the list of the very few who rank as greatest, and this judgment is not contradicted by the conclusions of students who are at once thorough and sympathetic. Thorough criticism is justifying his judgments of the military problems which he had studied. His advice to make the Confederate army the objective—all the more because it was near Washington, where our troops, as he said, could "board at home"—was as sound strategy as it was good wit. His warning that "going down the bay in search of a field" would only change the place without diminishing obstacles to be overcome, was pure sagacity applied to the situation, which is a prime element of generalship. His judgment in January, 1862, that "if something was not done soon, the bottom would be out of the whole affair," was sound statesmanship in homely form. It is dangerous to hurtle against his reputation in any field.

## CHARLES LORING BRACE.

*The Life of Charles Loring Brace.* Chiefly told in his own Letters. Edited by his Daughter. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894.

It is over-modest of Miss Brace to call herself the editor simply of her father's life. The story, it is true, is chiefly told by his own letters, but he was not a voluminous correspondent; his life was too busy for much letter-writing. The narrative would therefore have been defective were the letters not connected by a stream of commentary and exposition of remarkable clearness and simplicity. It is very rare, in our experience, to meet with a biography in which the sense of proportion on the part of the biographer has been so steadily maintained, in which there is so little surplusage and padding. In fact, there is hardly a letter or line too much. One or two letters might well have been omitted, but on the whole it is not often that a daughter working over the life of a distinguished and much honored father has been so successful in keeping up the literary standard, and making the work agreeable reading as well as a faithful record.

Mr. Brace's life may almost be said to be a history of philanthropic effort in the United States. He stepped into the field just as the great anti-slavery struggle which had for thirty years absorbed all the humanitarian thought and energy of the country, was drawing to a close. What he says in one of his later letters that he had accomplished, was what he set himself to do thirty-five years before—namely, the establishment as principles of the

"absolute necessity of treating each youthful criminal or outcast as an individual and not one of a crowd; the immense superiority of the home or family over any institution in reformatory and educational influence; the prevention of crime and pauperism by early efforts with children, and the vital importance of breaking up inherited pauperism by putting almshouse ch ldren in separate homes; and, most of all, the immense advantage of 'placing out' neglected and orphan children in farmers' families."

The success which attended his labor, we think we may safely say, surpassed everything which has been attempted in the philanthropic world since Howard made his attack on the old prisons. The society which he built up in New York has not only been the means of transferring tens of thousands of boys from street pauperism and profligacy to comfortable homes and lives of usefulness in the West, but has through schools and through lodging-houses done an immense work of civilization among the youthful poor of both sexes in this city. Moreover, his system has been widely copied, not only in other States in the Union, but in every country in Europe in which organized efforts are made for the rescue of youthful criminals and outcasts. It is not every country which has our "West" for the reception of the waifs and strays of the great cities; but the "Newsboys' Lodging-house" and the "Girls' Lodging-house" have furnished to a great many cities in the Old World both an inspiration and a model. All this work, too, begun in 1853, and continued for thirty-five years, was carried on, as we said at the time of his death, "with clear insight, perfect sanity of judgment, supreme diligence, and indomitable patience."

When we come to look at the man behind the work, the thing which has most struck us, in turning over the pages of this Life, is the perfect accuracy of his moral judgments from early youth down to his death. Not the smallest error or aberration ever shows itself in passing on the great movements which he witnessed. Indeed, his personal history is a sort of chronicle of the intellectual and moral changes which had come over the world in his day. There was nothing about him more remarkable than his keen intellectual curiosity, which seemed well-nigh insatiable. He was bred in the old New England atmosphere of sixty years ago, when orthodox religion, the relation of "the sinner" to God, was the main concern of all thinking people, to whom the abolitionists were profane "ranters." But in 1848 hearing Wendell Phillips set his mind at work about slavery, and on this subject he ever afterwards thought right. He "joined the church" in New Haven, as was the custom of the time, but very soon plunged into the speculations about the origin and nature of Christianity which have since effected such profound changes, if not in the formal creeds, in the spiritual outlook, of all the churches. For the Fugitive Slave Law he at

once conceived an abhorrence which was not shared by his elders at the time, and which he had to defend in a letter to his father. Had he had a gift of speech proportionate to his extraordinary energy and mental activity, he would have set the country on fire regarding most of the questions of the day. But he was too speculative, too candid—one might say—for a popular orator. He had not sufficient positiveness and emphasis of expression to drive home the spoken word. On this point he somewhat deceived himself.

When the Children's Aid scheme first took possession of him, he recoiled a little from giving himself up to the work of philanthropy, in the belief that his true function was that of a teacher or preacher, and it was probably this feeling which led to his excursions into the regions of science and history which produced his book on ethnology, the 'Gesta Christi,' and the 'Unknown God.' His books of travel, owing to his unfailing good humor, his intense optimism, his great energy, his wonderful enjoyment of life, and kindly, sympathetic ways with all classes and conditions of men, were always interesting and instructive. He went to Germany and lived there for a winter or two, studying the language in the old days when a man could earn a comfortable subsistence by writing letters about everyday life to the religious weeklies, and when Europe was to most Americans almost a terra incognita. On this occasion he was imprisoned in Hungary by the Austrians as a dangerous propagandist, which did him the great service of making him widely known in America. The true spirit of the man came out at this period, too, by the emphatic declaration to a friend who was trying to get him correspondence with the American papers: "I would rather write for the *Tribune* for five dollars than for the *Courier* for ten, and won't I have a noble audience, too!" He was then only twenty-five years old, but "his good lance thrusted sure." His letters at this period give this amusing glimpse of the youth of the illustrious professor who now presides over the English department at Harvard: "These ideas have been rather forced on me by seeing a good deal lately of a wonderfully witty fellow from Harvard College, who is studying for a professorship in Göttingen, and who assimilates perfectly wherever he is, swears and jokes now in German, wears boots up to his thigh, and dances German student hornpipes, drinks punch, and sings German songs to perfection. This fellow, whose name is Child, is visiting two friends of mine." "Fugit Euro citius tempus edax rerum," the professor will probably say on seeing this little reminiscence of long ago.

Mr. Brace's most valuable contributions to contemporaneous literature were undoubtedly his 'Dangerous Classes of New York,' and his society reports. These have a value which cannot wear out. His 'Gesta Christi,' which is an extremely interesting collection of facts, has the misfortune to be an addition to the great mass of Christian apologetics, to which the world, rightly or wrongly, pays less and less attention every year. It has the defect of trying to separate Christianity from the Church, and win it credit by surrendering the Church to the enemy. The view which is gaining ground is that all religions, Christianity as well as others, depend for their character on the civilization of the people who profess them. Christianity during the greater part of its history has been the faith of semi-barbarians, and therefore a cruel, butchering, burning creed. To-day for a similar reason it is humane, tolerant, and charitable. Nothing but prodigious twisting and turning will deliver it from responsibility for the Catholic Church, or give it all the credit for the handful of professors who, even in dark times, have stood for the grace, mercy, and peace of the Founder.

It is impossible in the limits of a brief notice like this to give an adequate idea of the charm of Mr. Brace's personality. The energy and hopefulness which carried him to success in his philanthropic work played an equally large part in his intercourse with his friends. He had in an eminent degree what the Boston wit called a "talent for friendship." His friends were never out of his mind. Their fame and fortune were as dear to him as his own. His interest as to their state of mind touching all the great questions of the time never flagged; and this talent, no less than his great labor in his own field, brought him into cordial relations with most of the leading minds of the day, both here and in England. We doubt if a happier man ever lived until the cloud of the great tragedy which always closes even the most successful career, overtook him. He warmed both hands at the fire of life. He was eminently successful in his calling, was much appreciated by his contemporaries, and met the end with a fortitude and serenity which all who knew him expected.

## BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

'Decatur and Somers,' by Miss M. Elliot Seawell (Appletons), is a pleasant story for the young, narrating two of the most touching and heroic passages in the history of our navy, the destruction of the *Philadelphia* off Tripoli, and the explosion of the *Intrepid*. The authoress has not, however, told it in a better way than Maclay tells it in his recent history of the navy, and has not, we think, equalled in pathos or interest her own story of 'Little Jarvis.' Her picture of naval life contains many errors and anachronisms. At the very commencement she calls and relieves the watch on a frigate while "all hands" are getting the ship underway; her brigs are fitted with bridges, her ships "wear" instead of "carry" colors, and her quartermasters and coxswains are not only mixed up in their duties but in their ships. Clipper ships did not exist at the beginning of the present century to carry news to Gibraltar, and a "soldier's wind" (p. 54) does not enable a ship to go in any direction she wishes—certainly not in the direction from which the wind blows. Historically the incidents are true, though the traditions of the service are that Stewart, Decatur, and Somers were intimate alike with each other, and that the *Intrepid* grounded upon a rock before she was blown up. Miss Seawell will not have written in vain, however, if she make known to the young generation of the present day exploits of the American navy, one of which was characterized by Nelson as "the most bold and daring act of the age."

The last volume of Col. Knox's series, entitled 'The Boy Travellers in the Levant' (Harpers), takes his young tourists along the southern coast of the Mediterranean to Carthage, and thence to Greece, the Troad, Constantinople, Smyrna, and Cyprus, successively. It provides plenty of information for boys and girls who have a sound digestion for facts and dates and are not too fond of plumcake; it is also well supported in the matter of illustrations by the resources of the Harpers' establishment. The careful young person will not find himself entirely absolved from reviewing Col. Knox's statements; he must not imagine that the escort of a squad of soldiers is usually needed in visiting Marathon; nor must he invest in Greek bonds on Frank's statement that "they are generally well quoted on 'change"; nor should he adopt his spelling of Dionysius for the god Dionysus, nor accept as final his opinion that "a Greek play was a very solemn affair, which, if put on the New York stage and advertised as much as you please, would not pay expenses." He may correct this impression by reading Prof. Church's 'Stories from the Greek Comedians,' or by consulting some Frenchman who has heard Mounet-Sully's *Oedipus*. We note this sentence as a sample of an occasional dryness and lack of sympathetic imagination in a book which is sensibly and pleasantly written, but sometimes savors rather strongly of the guide-book.

A complete antidote for Frank's matter-of-fact omniscience may be found in 'The Story of Alexander,' by Robert Steele (Macmillan). This history is delightfully destitute of fact, and presents only the marvellous and fanciful legends of the Middle Ages, in which Alexander is made a son of Anectanabus, King of Egypt, conquers Sir Balaan of Tyre as well as Gog and Magog, and visits Jerusalem, where he is humbly received by the bishop and the mayor, attired in gorgeous silks from Tartary. Fortunately, Bucephalus is retained intact, and prances through the story with all his ancient fascinations. The illustrations and the book are very dainty and charming.

A book full of lively incidents agreeably told is Mrs. C. V. Jamison's 'Toinette's Philip' (The Century Co.). Improbabilities in the plot are plenty, but the children will pass them by lightly, and be free to enjoy the pleasant picture of New Orleans life, the touch of rather transparent mystery, and, above all, the satisfactory ending, where everybody is made happy and even the disagreeable people become amiable.

'The Land of Pluck' is the apt name which Mrs. Mary Mapes Dodge has given to Holland; and the chapters on Dutch life and Dutch history which appeared some time ago in *St. Nicholas* make up the first part of the book so entitled. They are written in the bright, entertaining style which Mrs. Dodge always commands, and are well fitted to rouse an interest in the manners and history of this admirable people. In the second part of the book are gathered a number of short stories of all sorts. Perhaps the most amusing of these is "A Garret Adventure," in which some good, obedient children *thought* they had their mother's permission to make a skating-pond by freezing water on the garret floor. Naturally, the pond refused to "stay put" long enough to freeze, and its appearance below stairs surprised no one more than the mother.

'The Brownies Around the World' (The Century Co.) is the title of Mr. Cox's latest addition to the Brownie literature. The ever-welcome little beings swarm as usual over the pages, getting themselves into and out of new scrapes, and entertaining their admirers with new antics, while they journey from Arabia to the arctic regions and around the earth's circumference to view the world and its wonders, and comment upon them for the edification of good children.

To take in at one sitting a whole bookful of Oliver Herford's 'Artful Anticks' (The Century Co.) would be too much like making a meal out of the caster; but as condiments they are agreeable. It is a satisfaction to find such old friends as "The Audacious Kitten," and "The Artful Ant," with a host of other clever verses and pictures, preserved in this volume

to please many who would never have found them in the back numbers of *St. Nicholas*.

Two books by Miss A. G. Plympton, 'Rags and Velvet Gowns,' and 'Penelope Prig' (Roberts Bros.), are so full of a sort of sentimental socialism that, in spite of lively flashes of imagination and humor, they are not really good reading for children. Nothing is more likely to make disgusting little prigs than giving children the notion that their simple acts of kindness, which they ought to do as a matter of course, are noble and admirable deeds calling for general applause; or that they will be likely to reform society from the bottom by, for instance, giving away their old toys, or inviting street children to their Thanksgiving dinner.

In wholesome contrast are Susan Coolidge's 'Not Quite Eighteen' bright stories (Roberts Bros.). In this oddly named book it is the everyday duties and homely virtues of which the young reader is reminded; and so pleasantly and naturally withal, that the most wary avoider of morals will not be inclined to revolt.

The country minister's daughter who feels restless at home and goes away in search of her mission, is not exactly a new character in fiction, and this is perhaps hinted in the title of 'Another Girl's Experience,' by Leigh Webster (Roberts Bros.). This girl, at any rate, finds herself younger than she had supposed when out of reach of her mother's advice, and finally goes home well content to discover her real mission in brightening her father's and mother's hard life, and in helping along her numerous brothers and sisters.

Five or six unpretentious tales about her country neighbors, each suggested by some plant brought from one of their gardens, are the 'Quiet Stories from an Old Woman's Garden,' by Alison McLean (F. Warne & Co.). Quiet they are, indeed almost soporific, each with its little morality; but possibly useful for reading aloud where the only object is to make conversation needless, as in those working-parties whose want of short and unexciting stories prompted their writing.

That droll and individual designer Mr. P. S. Newell seemed to us last year to have reached the bounds of his ingenuity in his reversible plates called 'Topsy-Turvys' (The Century Co.). The second volume, just issued, proves that we were mistaken, as any one might be who had not gone through a course of standing upon his head. The new series is rather more clever and audacious, and less transparent, than the first.

## RECENT ENGLISH POETRY.

It is now nearly a hundred years since Canning's 'Anti-Jacobin' predicted, as did Heine fifty years later, a transfer to England of what the latter called "the monkey's skin," or, in other words, of the levity of the French metropolis:

"O Nurse of Crimes and Fashions! which in vain
Our colder servile spirits would attain,
How do we ape thee, France! but blundering still
Disgrace the pattern by our want of skill!
The borrow'd step an awkward gait reveals
As clumsy C—rtn—y mars the verse he steals."

It becomes more and more impossible to keep the run of recent English poetry without recognizing the double truth of Canning's analysis and Heine's prediction. Mr. Hamerton tells us that there is still a perceptible difference between the moral atmosphere of London and that of Paris; but the transplanted war against "the bourgeois virtues" still goes on. The "Crimes and Fashions" are still borrowed and still spoiled by a clumsiness in the imitation. It will not be counted as an offence, perhaps, by the readers of Mr. Arthur Clarke Kennedy's 'Erotica' (London: Gay & Bird) that the author stoops to actual *doubles ententes* of extreme indecency, but it may be an objection that they have not the French grace and are too much in the C—rtn—y style. The same impression is made when Mr. Percy Pinkerton, in 'Adriatica' (Gay & Bird), celebrates his wayside amours as frankly, though not as entertainingly, as the hero of a Pigault-Lebrun novel.

Mrs. Louise Chandler Moulton has edited, with a preliminary sketch, extracts from the poems of Arthur O'Shaughnessy (Chicago: Stone & Kimball). This young poet, who died in 1881, has been both fortunate and unfortunate in his biographer—fortunate, because of her loyal devotion and artistic sympathy; unfortunate, because she is wont to pitch her praise on a key of appreciation which the wares she exhibits do not always quite justify. To be told again and again that the poems are "divinely lovely" (p. 28), and "very lovely" (p. 37), and "so noble" (p. 37), awakens an expectation which is here not quite fulfilled; a little understatement is sometimes safer. Mrs. Moulton undoubtedly quotes some remarkable passages, as when she gives us this (p. 40):

"The long-hushed eve
Glowed purple, and the awed soul of the thunder
Lay shuddering in the distance, and the heave
Of great unsolaced seas over and under
The tremulous earth was heard with them to grieve."

That phrase "great unsolaced seas" is Keatslike, yet no finer than single phrases that could easily be culled from transient poets now almost forgotten, like Alexander Smith and Philip James Bailey. It must be owned that, with much of sweet and honied cadence, the basis of O'Shaughnessy's strains is repellent, even as he is seen here at his best; it lies among tombs and wehrwolves and fountains of tears. He was really one of the first of the English *décadent* rhymers. He began to publish in 1870, and his biographer assures us that "he was half a Frenchman in his love for and mastery of the French language; and many of his closest affiliations were with the younger school of French poets." This hardly needed to be told us; and "his sympathy with the lawless lives of these evil phantoms"—the men changed to wolves—leaves in the healthy mind the same sense of aversion produced annually by so many repulsive pictures in the French Salon. With all the care and felicity of these selections, and the external taste and grace of the little volume, we cannot predict for it a place very near to any human heart.

It is something, perhaps, if Mr. Richard Le Gallienne, who, amid affectations of his own, has yet protested ere now against that prevailing Gallomania with which his name would imply some sympathies, should thus frankly link London and Paris together, for purposes of criticism:

"Paris and London, World Flowers twain
Wherewith the World Tree blooms again
Since Time hath gathered Babylon
And withered Rome still withers on.

"Sidon and Tyre were such as ye,
How bright they shone upon the tree!
But Time hath gathered, both are gone,
And no man sails to Babylon.

"Ah, London! London! our delight,
For thee, too, the eternal night,
And Circe Paris hath no charm
To stay Time's unrelenting arm."

This is from 'The Second Book of the Rhymers' Club' (London: Mathews & Lane)—a book by a dozen or more minor poets, mostly Welsh or Irish, and giving a good view of the range of thought and art among a circle of the London men. On the whole, the exhibit is promising and indicates a little reaction against the French imitation; Mr. W. B. Yeats taking easily the lead in the group, by reason of his marvellous Celtic grasp upon the nightside of mysteries and what he himself calls "The Folk of the Air." Yet no poem by him in this little volume is so remarkable or haunting as his former drama, "The Countess Kathleen," or as his little detached and slender volume of Irish legend, 'The Land of Heart's Desire' (Chicago: Stone & Kimball), which surpasses all the rest. Although disfigured and blighted in the publishing by one of Mr. Beardsley's ugliest and most meaningless frontispieces, the poem itself is as rare and unique as a witch-hazel blossom; it is of the air airy; a proof that pure fantasy will not perish out of the world while the Celtic races survive. And the manly purity of these poems—the utter freedom from the Gallic smirch—is refreshing when compared with the sickly and jaunty sensualism of Mr. Arthur Symons, who represents the low-water mark of the "Rhymers' Club."

Another illustration of this fine Irish-English quality is in the 'Cuckoo Songs' (London: Mathews & Lane) of Katharine (Tynan) Hinkson, known in her maiden days as editor of an exquisite volume of 'Irish Love Songs,' full of what she herself christened as a "strange lovely flavor, as of wild bees' honey." She contributed one or two songs only to that volume, but this later book is full of them; and there is one called "Ivy of Ireland" (p.81), in memory of Charles Stewart Parnell, so noble and so beautiful as to make the stranger wonder if he who is so reverenced was really the faithless friend and shabby lover that he seemed to us to be.

"Like Cashel or like Muckross, famed in story,
Your name shall arch the sky
Against the sunset and the sunrise glory
So mournful and so high.

"All your sad splendor shall the ivy cover
With dew and raindrops wet,
And ever greener as the years go over,
Closer and greener yet."

Another member of the Rhymers' Club is Mr. Ernest Rhys, well known as an editor, and still remembered in America for a visit he once paid us. It is mistakenly called 'A London Rose, and Other Rhymes' (London: Mathews & Lane)—mistakenly, for the merit of the book lies chiefly in that which is not of London. "Welsh Rhymes and Ballads" form the best part of the book; and this "Autobiography" is at least quotable and portable (p. 97):

AN AUTOBIOGRAPHY.

"Wales England wed; so I was bred. 'Twas merry London gave me breath.
I dreamt of love, and fame: I strove. But Ireland taught me love was best:
And Irish eyes, and London cries, and streams of Wales may tell the rest.
What more than these I asked of Life, I am content to have from Death."

'Sagas and Songs of the Norsemen,' by Albany F. Major (London: Nutt), is a rather disappointing book. It is a kind of first fruits, we take it, of the "Viking Club," of which its author is secretary. Every page of this volume shows wealth of material rather feebly used. Charles Mackay is or was but a third-rate poet, and yet there is in his "Sea-King's Burial," published fifty years ago, more of Norse vigor and salt sea-foam than in all these more languid attempts; for Mr. Major, even in choosing precisely the same theme in his "Burial of the Sea-King" (p. 31), selects a long-drawn measure suited for a philosophical poem rather than a deed of "derring-do." Strange to say, Mr. Major is strongest when he leaves his immediate theme and adds a few English ballads; and the closing "Fight at

Senlac," though too long, is really the best thing in the book.

Among recent London translations of poetry the first place belongs historically to Dr. James Atkinson's rendering from the Persian of Nizami's 'Loves of Laili and Majnún (London: Nutt); for it was first printed nearly sixty years ago in one of those stately volumes of the Oriental Translation Fund which so long charmed ingenuous youth with their motto, "Ex Oriente Lux." The translation itself, now reëdited by the Rev. J. A. Atkinson, belongs to that period when readers still enjoyed Hoole's 'Tasso' and Mickle's 'Lusiad,' and were not easily surfeited with monotony in heroic couplets. That period has perhaps passed by.

Another book of translations is more interesting from the autobiographical preface than from anything else it contains; 'Anthero de Quental: Sixty-four Sonnets, Englished by Edgar Prestage' (Nutt). The translator, also known as editor of the 'Letters of a Portuguese Nun,' claims these sonnets as the best in the Portuguese language since Camoens; but when we think how little the sonnets of Camoens himself afford us, as rendered at different times by Strangford, Aubertin, and Higginson, it is evident that this standard is not a high one. But as a personal study, a typical case in the morbid anatomy of the age, the autobiography of this poor fellow, who is ranked by his admirers with Heine and Leopardi—who was called by his friends Santo Anthero, from his asceticism and charity, and who, after a lifetime of spinal disease, shot himself at forty-nine in a public square at the Azores—is profoundly touching and interesting.

An interesting but not very successful experiment in translation is the first volume of 'Euripides,' by Arthur S. Way (Macmillan), who has previously rendered the 'Iliad' and the 'Odyssey.' Its chief novelty of treatment is in translating the choruses (which, of course, constitute the chief difficulty) in the modern lyrical or Swinburnian fashion. This Mr. Way has carried out with such spirit and sincerity as must convince the reader that, whatever is the solution of this difficult problem, that which he has adopted is not. Take, for instance, this (p. 69):

CHORUS.

If she would but come forth where we wait her,
If she would but give ear to the sound
Of our speech, that her spirit would learn
From its fierceness of anger to turn,
And her lust for revenge not burn!
O ne'er may my love prove traitor,
Never false to my friends be it found.

This commonplace jingle suggests a Gilbert and Sullivan opera rather than the delicate expression and wonderfully adjusted cadences of a Greek chorus. In other cases we revert to "In Memoriam" (p. 109):

"One tolls with love more strong than death;
Yet, yet, who knoweth whether he
A wise man or a fool shall be
To whom he shall his wealth bequeath?"

In a few choruses the version is more vigorous and sonorous, but it is at the best something more remote from Euripides than Mr. Newman's ballad-measure from Homer; or it is as if the Pyrrhic dance were represented for stage purposes by the latest figure of the German, with favors.

Of minor volumes, Mr. Reginald Fanshawe's 'Two Lives' (Bell) is monotonous, and written too much on a theory; 'Quorsum? the Cry of Human Suffering' (Rivington) is liable to the same objection, with the addition that it is written in Wordsworthian blank-verse, clearly and conscientiously worked out, however, and readable by "a lonely and athletic student," in Emerson's phrase; while Mr. Alfred Cochrane's 'The Kestrel's Nest, and Other Verses' (Longmans) is made difficult to read by being composed of the very lightest kind of *vers de société*, balanced by the dignity of a Greek motto on the title-page. 'Windfall and Waterdrift' (G. P. Putnam's Sons), by the well-known Auberon Herbert, is an example of curious balancing in another way, being a collection of short poems of no special interest, and all intended to "float" (in commercial phrase) the announcement, at the end of the volume, of Mr. Herbert's monthly magazine, "The *Free Life*: Organ of Voluntary Taxation and of the Voluntary State." It may interest some cis-Atlantic readers to know that "Mr. Auberon Herbert will be glad to write to all persons interested in Voluntaryism"—his address being Old House, Ringwood. The announcement seems recent; if he knew how many people in America are eager to write to anybody who will answer them, he probably would not have risked the offer.

May Kendall's 'Songs from Dreamland' (Longmans) is not quite light enough for dreams or substantial enough for reality. The same might be said of Julian Sturgis's 'Book of Song' (Longmans) but for such a touch of human sympathy as in this modernizing of a legend (p. 65):

A SONG OF PROSERPINE.

Her eyes were lights of the morning,
Her song of the meadows gay,
But the dark man at eventide
Had stolen her away—

Away from the sunbright upland
Where the folded sheep are fed,
Away from her father's cottage door,
Away from her mother's bed!

And ah, if her mother could see her,
Who once was glad of her birth,
And hear her laugh in the gaslight glare
A laugh of little mirth.

'Sonnets of the Wingless Hours' (Chicago: Stone & Kimball) is the most remarkable of these recent volumes because, while the hundred sonnets all owe their immediate origin to one of those cases of lifelong invalidism so common among English authors, they are wholly free from the erotic taint, and are thoroughly simple and noble. The life on a wheeled chair which they reveal is still manly enough to take pleasure in the thought of every truly manly thing—cricket, swimming, skating, fishing; nay, to go beyond the usual English limitation and grant the object of "sport" his little term of life (p. 13):

"And yet I think, if ever years awoke
My limbs to motion, so that I could stand
Again beside a river, rod in hand
As Evening spreads his solitary cloak,

"That I would leave the little speckled folk
Their happy life—their marvellous command
Of stream's wild ways—and break the cruel wand
To let them cleave the current at a stroke
As I myself once could."

Mr. Lee-Hamilton has been stretched on his mattress-bed for twenty years; he is not sustained, as many are, by trust in a Divine Providence or by faith in a happy immortality; but he is, on the other hand, above all mere voluptuousness of fancy, all weak selfishness; and one, at least, of his sonnets is worthy, by its nobility of thought and treatment, to hold its own, like Blanco White's one sonnet, in any future collection of English poetry (p. 79):

A FLIGHT FROM GLORY.

Once, from the parapet of gems and glow,
An Angel said, "O, God, the heart grows cold
On these eternal battlements of gold,
Where all is pure, but cold as virgin snow.

"Here sobs are never heard; no salt tears flow;
Here there are none to help—nor sick nor old;
No wrong to fight, no justice to uphold:
Grant me Thy leave to live man's life below."

"And then annihilation?" God replied.
"Yes," said the Angel, "even that dread price;
For earthly tears are worth eternal night."

"Then, go," said God.—The Angel opened wide
His dazzling wings, gazed back on Heaven thrice,
And plunged for ever from the walls of Light.

Andrew Lang never better justified his London sobriquet of "the Amateur Genius" than in his little volume 'Ban and Arrière Ban' (Longmans)—of course the name must be French—in which he has swept together all the fragments of his numerous writing-desks, even to a sonnet containing only thirteen lines. It, however, includes his "Boat Song," perhaps the prettiest thing he ever wrote; and a few poems on those inexhaustible out-door themes, golf, cricket, and trout-fishing. After all, we should not complain of these subjects, even when they are made as wearisome as Black's perpetual salmon, when we think that they remain the one stronghold for English mental health against the ever invading 'Ban and Arrière Ban' of France. But even here Mr. Lang's puny defence is as nothing compared with the stalwart arm of Mr. Norman Gale, well known already by his 'A Country Muse,' and now giving us a whole volume of 'Cricket Songs' (Methuen), so crammed with honest animal life and endless unintelligible technicalities and ringing rhythm as will charm a vast multitude who know no difference between a "lob" and a "grub." What spirit of unwholesome *décadence* but is, so to speak, bowled out by a strain like this (p. 23)?

A TOMBOY.

That long-legged darling, Alice James,
Plays cricket with the Johnson boys;
A doz'n engines could not make
So shrill a noise.

She's only twelve, and so, unfrocked
Beyond her sometimes shamele-s knee;
And never maiden longed so much
A boy to be.

She puts on gloves and pads to bat,
And makes young Johnson bowl her slows.
Good heavens! How she pulled that ball!
And how she goes!

She's tumbled yards outside the crease,
And is indisputably out.
Another innings? Ah, how strong
That cherry pout!

She keeps on batting all the time,
And hammers Rupert Johnson's lobs;
She also thumps Emilius's,
And also Bob's!

So, riding roughshod over rules,
This long-legged darling has her will;
And when she's twenty, I expect
She will do so still.

*Briefe an August Roeckel von Richard Wagner.* Leipzig and New York: Breitkopf & Härtel.

It is well known that Richard Wagner was a great letter-writer, partly owing to the fact that he spent so many years in exile or isolation, far away from his intimate friends. The letters to his most favored correspondents—Liszt, Uhlig, Fischer, and F. Heine—have been printed in three volumes, those to the last named, however, being not complete, as it was lately announced that Richard Bertling of Dresden had come into possession of other letters to Heine even more interesting than those already printed. Forty of his letters are to be found in Praeger's 'Wagner as I Knew Him,' which has recently come in for much criticism, as it has been shown that the author's vanity led him to make claims that can not be substantiated, and also because, for some reason or other, the Wagner letters were in the German edition printed not in the original but in a retranslation from the English. Mr. S. Chamberlain, however, has since published a German brochure containing 'Wagner's Genuine Letters to Praeger.' Then there are the eighteen romantic letters to Frau Wille printed in the *Deutsche Rundschau*, 1887, twelve letters on vivisection to E. von Weber, a considerable number to Carl Heckel in 'Die Bühnenfestspiele in Bayreuth,' and scores of single letters printed in the German periodi-

cals, especially the *Berliner Boersen-Courier*, which no doubt will be collected into a volume as soon as the list is complete, for new ones are appearing almost every week.

The latest contribution to Wagner's epistolary literature is a collection of twelve letters to August Roeckel, his most intimate friend in Dresden during the time that "Tannhäuser" and "Lohengrin" were composed. He himself relates, in one of his autobiographic sketches, that in his Dresden solitude almost his only intimate associate was Roeckel, "who, in his thorough sympathy with my artistic development, went so far as to abandon—as he told me himself—his inclination and ambition to develop and apply his own artistic capacities." This was literally true. Roeckel had been appointed assistant conductor at Dresden in 1843, on the strength of the success of his opera "Farinelli," yet he was so overawed by Wagner's genius that he gave up his intentions of making his way as a composer, in spite of his rather remarkable musical affiliations; for he was a nephew of Hummel, his wife a cousin of Lortzing, and his father had been a friend of Beethoven, in whose "Fidelio" he appeared as *Florestan* at Vienna in 1806, while subsequently he helped to popularize German opera in London and Paris.

Unfortunately, Roeckel's abandonment of music was followed by his more and more complete absorption in the revolutionary movement of the time. He had been in Paris in 1830 during the July Revolution, and the ideas to which he was there subjected continued to ferment in his mind, and made him one of the leaders in the Dresden uprising. Hugo Dinger, who has written the most detailed and trustworthy account of the revolutionary period in Wagner's life ('Wagner's Geistige Entwickelung') and who had access to official documents, relates that Roeckel "was the Mephistopheles who led Wagner-Faust into the political witches' kitchen, and showed him an ideal picture of the future in the mirror of democratic and socialistic ideas. He had taken complete possession of the artist. Every day he called on his friend and took him out for a walk, during which he indoctrinated him till he had him completely in his power and drove him forward, over the barricades, to a new life." Thus it happened that Wagner, who really did not care for politics at all, but merely hoped that a general overthrow would make it possible for him to carry out his revolutionary artistic schemes, became involved in the Dresden rebellion. How far he was personally active in that uprising is still a matter of dispute, and may remain so, unless his unpublished autobiography should contain a circumstantial confession. Dinger's investigation of official documents has shown that the Government did not at first look on Wagner as a very serious rebel, and purposely allowed him ample time to escape before issuing the warrant for his arrest; but subsequent developments made him liable to the charge of high treason, the penalty of which was death. Roeckel was caught, condemned to be shot, but finally imprisoned at Waldheim, where he remained thirteen years, although he could have secured his release sooner had he not stubbornly refused to apologize.

Wagner had good reason to dislike a man who had thus led him into mischief which resulted in twelve years' exile from the only country where he could hope to produce his art-works. But there is no trace of reproach in these twelve letters, seven of which were sent to Roeckel while he was still a prisoner. In the first of them, dated Zürich, August 24, 1851, he writes: "Just as I happened to be at Bordeaux, I saw in a French paper that you and Bakunin were soon to be executed. I wrote a letter in the hope of being in time to bid you farewell. The rumor, however, proved to be false, and the letter which I had sent to Dresden to be forwarded was, under these circumstances, withheld as a matter of course." There are no other significant allusions to the revolutionary period in these letters, of which, since most of them were sent to a prisoner, it could not have been expected that they would allude to the unfortunate incidents which had made him so. Nor is there any further allusion to this period in the five letters written after Roeckel's release, for Wagner was not in later years fond of stirring up those unpleasant memories.

It cannot be said, indeed, that readers of Wagner's previously published letters will find anything very new or striking in the present collection, but there are many interesting variations of certain "leading motives" of his life which constantly recur in his letters and other prose writings, as the *Leitmotive* do in his scores. Here, once more, we find grateful references to Liszt's sympathy, friendship, and artistic encouragement; commendation of the Persian Hafiz as the greatest of all poets; complaints of isolation and lack of appreciation; aversion to artistic work for pecuniary compensation; denial that Humboldt was a genius; references to the tremendous influence on him of Schopenhauer at a decisive period in his life; sneers at Judaism and optimism; exclamations on the martyrdom of being an artist; reference to artistic creation as the only true enjoyment; pity for King Ludwig in the hands of his political advisers; protests against separating the "man" from the "artist"; surprise that his operas are becoming popular in spite of the almost invariably wretched performances of them; commendation of solitude, Switzerland, and dogs; invitations and references to the pleasures of hospitality—and so on.

The fourth letter takes up no less than 26 of the 84 pages, and is on the whole the most important of the collection, because in it Wagner replies to certain criticisms of his Nibelung poems made by Roeckel, and thus throws some bright side-lights on them. Commentators may be especially advised to read page 37, wherein he justifies the need in a drama of a certain obscurity of motives; and page 41, where he points out the tragic sublimity of the motive which makes *Brünnhilde* cling to the cursed ring as the symbol of love. In the same letter he laments the principal impediment in his path—the rarity of good vocalist-actors:

"When I think of the performers, I must sigh deeply. Of course I must try to find young artists not yet ruined by our opera-houses; so-called 'celebrities' I have no use for. Then I must see about training these young folks. What I should prefer would be to keep them together a whole year without letting them appear before the public; then I could meet them daily, train them in their artistic and human capacities, and see them ripen gradually for their task."

Here is another interesting passage from the same letter:

"Once more I have realized how many things in my poetic conception become clear only through the music. I can no longer endure to look at the poem without the music. In time I hope to be able to send you this score too ["Rheingold"]. Here I will only say that it has become a work united in all its parts; the orchestra has hardly a bar that is not developed from preceding motives."

The sixth letter is metaphysical and melancholy. It was written in London, which makes it additionally foggy; Wagner was unable to do anything in that city, and informs his friend that "there all capacity for work left me. I meant to complete the score of the 'Walküre,' but lost all inner memory for it, and returned to Zürich ill." In London he "avoided making new acquaintances"; he lived for a time, as is well known, with Praeger, to whom he refers as that "dear crazy fellow" (*diesen guten närrischen Menschen*).

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*Rambles through Japan without a Guide.* By Albert Leffingwell (Albert Tracy). London: Sampson Low; New York: The Baker & Taylor Co. 1894.

As Mr. Chamberlain has amusingly recounted, the books of travel on Japan cover almost every possible space of time, from seven weeks, to nine years' sojourn in that country. The author in hand spent only three months there; but we are willing to go very far in praise of his notes of travel, for, taking them merely as a traveller's impressions and as a diary of small compass, it is the most realistic, the most entertaining, the most trustworthy book of the sort that we have seen. More than this, it is one that the reviewer, as an old resident in the country, has read page by page with an interest which he had not thought possible. In calling it trustworthy, he does not forget that there are minor inaccuracies which, though natural in a traveller, could easily have been avoided; such as the use of "karuma" for "kuruma," the absurd supposition that the Japanese celebrate the falling of the Bastile (p. 5), the forty-*nine* Ronin (p. 13), the belief that "one in twenty, possibly even one in fifteen, of the persons one meets are either partially or wholly blind," the use of "Mikado" for "Emperor," and other errors. But these are not unpardonable.

One feature must be specially noticed. The author is remarkably clear-headed in his judgments of the national traits. He has the readiness of sympathy without which a traveller has no right to form judgments of other peoples. He begins by confessing that he has come "to regard Japanese life and manners as a phase of real civilization," a belief which one or two of us have been trying for some time to hammer into the Philistine mind of the home keeping public. He therefore does not hesitate, when he meets some phase of life which has come in for foreign criticism, to point out, where necessary, how a comparative (not necessarily an absolute) estimate is usually to the credit, not the discredit, of Japan. This is a rare feature in such a book, and we may close by quoting an instance or two, taken at random:

"Although Buddhism may be an 'outworn creed,' it has at least served to prepare for the reception of a better, by creating a population more considerate of each other's rights and privileges than many another even in the Christian world" (p. vii).

"It is always unsafe to draw one's conclusions respecting a country from the character of a sea-port population. The 'globe-trotter' who judges Japan from Yokohama is as wise as the Oriental pilgrim who should picture English society from his chance experience in Glasgow or Liverpool, or judge American morality solely by rambles in New York and New Orleans" (p. 8).

"'Squeezing' is invariably the custom [on the part of guides]. But in China, India, Egypt, Spain, France, Italy (to speak merely of my own experience), and, I suppose, everywhere else, the traveller who bargains through an interpreter must always pay more than he need pay alone" (p. 62).

"A few minutes later we were passing swiftly through the streets of Tokio [at night].

Nearly all the shops were closed. Not a sound of noisy revelry was to be heard, not a drunken man was to be seen. How different will be the streets of London, Paris, or New York, a few hours later this Saturday night. But this is a heathen country, barbarous, uncivilized!" (p. 65).

"In Japan there is no [social] vice which does not more openly prevail in every great city of Europe or America. The missionary tells you of the Yoshiwara; he does not know the condition of the streets of Christian London and Glasgow. Compared with streets of San Francisco and Liverpool, the Yoshiwara of Tokio or Kioto is the apotheosis of decency. In all my journeys through the highways and by-ways of Japan, I never saw such depths of degradation as I have seen in parts of London and New York" (p. 276).

"The longer I live in Japan, the more I am struck with the innate gentleness of the people. In practical conformity to the teachings of Jesus Christ, in gentleness, in meekness, in a willingness to bear evil rather than do evil, the Japanese are to-day more really a Christian nation than any people of Europe or America" (p. 114).

"The price to this country of internal and external peace for more than two centuries was isolation from Western civilization. But when I think of the bloody annals of European history between 1600 and 1853, of the story of man's inhumanity to man in England, France, Spain, Germany, Ireland, I am disposed to think that the blessings of absolute peace were not too dearly purchased by Japan. What could Europe have given this country that she did not have? What lessons in the practice of Christian virtues could the despotisms of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries have taught Japan? No; she was wise to shut her gates. They were opened at a better hour."

We are to-day coming to respect Japan because she can fight when it is necessary. Let us rather, with more intelligence, accord her respect for the high type of character which she has built up in the past centuries in spite of her isolation from the influence of what we are pleased exclusively to term "civilization."

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*Cicero and the Fall of the Roman Republic.* By J. Strachan-Davidson, M.A., Fellow of Balliol College, Oxford. [Heroes of the Nations.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1894. Pp. viii, 446. With illustrations and an index.

THIS is a good life of Cicero, and, considering all the difficulties which such a work involves, may be pronounced on the whole the best yet accessible. There has been so much written of late on the fall of the Roman Republic that any great striving after originality would be affectation; but the author has thought for himself, and draws his own picture of Cicero and his times, without making either a servile copy from other authorities or a fantastic caricature in defiance of them. He draws largely from Cicero's own works, especially his correspondence, as is inevitable; and the translations are gratifying for their simplicity, at a time when English scholars are much too fond of squeezing every drop of possible meaning out of the ancient languages, which are often delicately allusive, and ought to be left so.

Especially worthy of commendation is the clear statement of the relations of the different orders in the later Commonwealth—the Nobles and the Knights. Every student of this period would say he knew them; but they are pressed home in this book with great acuteness, particularly where it is pointed out that the Senatorial nobles never could throw off the class sympathies which drew them to Cæsar and Clodius, and away from Cicero and Pompey, even when the opposite course was dictated by common sense and by personal predilection. It ought also to be brought out that at such a sensitive time, where every circumstance gave a tilt to the balance, Pompey's insensibility to culture must have been very repulsive to a ruling class who were steeped in refinement. The sin of Verres in pillaging the works of art had been the sin of a gentleman; and a man who, being on the spot, would not go to see the wonders of Athens (Mr. Strachan-Davidson mistranslates *visenda* here) was too much like the Mummii and Marii to hold his own against Cæsar in the affections of the Optimates.

The author believes in Cicero; and he is right. There can be few greater mistakes, either in history or in morals, than to maintain that Cicero was either knave or fool in trying to rally all parties in defence of the ancient constitution against such enemies as Lentulus, Cæsar, and Antony. Mr. Strachan-Davidson has had the courage as well as the acuteness to hold that Cæsar's autocracy was not at all the beneficent and progressive substitute for effete forms that Mommsen and Froude would persuade us. It was tyranny, in the modern as well as the ancient sense—directly undermining the spirit as well as destroying the rights of the Romans; and the oppression was felt at the time by all of the population who were capable of feeling it. When the whole tale of Cicero's weaknesses—which have been paraded by his detractors, as if there was any secret about them—is told, he comes out a great statesman and a good man; and, as the author says, those who know him best like him best.

The limits of the book forced the author to pass over much that was interesting, but some omissions seem injudicious. The beautiful incident of Cicero's discovering the tomb of Archimedes at Syracuse, and his diligence in being ready with his evidence against Verres much within the allotted time, are too characteristic to be left out. It is to be regretted that Mr. Strachan-Davidson speaks of the triumvir by the fantastic name of "Octavian." No one calls Scipio the Younger "Aemilian." If he shrinks—as his contemporaries did not—from the name of Caius Cæsar, why not simply say Augustus? An engraving of the famous bust is inserted as that of the young Augustus—and so all the world calls it. The illustrations, mostly from Duruy, are neither elegant nor significant enough to add much to the value of the book.

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*A Study of Ethical Principles.* By James Seth, Professor of Philosophy in Brown University. London: Blackwood; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894. Pp. xvi. + 460.

THIS book tends to fall between two ideals. The author evidently intended to write a text-book, yet hoped (as he says in his preface) to achieve something much more ambitious. In the latter endeavor—namely, to add to the discussion of ethical principles something fresh and permanent—he does not succeed, in our opinion. At most he provides occasional *aperçus* which serve to make his book suggestive, while not original.

Prof. Seth's whole attempt at constructive work ends in the abyss of "personality." He gives us not a shadow of a criticism of this vague concept, and does not seem familiar with the rich details of matter which the abnormal and analytic work of the last few years has laid out. It is possible we are not ready yet for a doctrine of personality; but the phrase "personality is sacred," and the argument for it, "otherwise morality and religion are undermined," ought to have no place now—without critical justification, at any rate—in treatises which pretend to either scientific exactness or philosophical competence.

There is in the book one point which seems to us to be new: we mean the argument made from an evolutionary standpoint against Mill's qualitative distinction between pleasures; to the effect that only the highly developed natures would appreciate higher pleasures, and so there would be no sense in commending such pleasures to the lower natures which need our injunctions most. But does not the moralist in fact encounter just this difficulty? Is he not in constant perplexity as to the means of interesting lower natures in higher things, whether we call the higher things personal ideals with the eudæmonist, pleasures with the hedonist, or laws with the rigorist?

Considered as a text-book, on the other hand, and especially as an historical introduction, there is much to commend in Prof. Seth's 'Study.' The style is good, though in places hasty, the connections of historical system are clearly made out along the traditional lines of the histories of philosophy, and the author does Aristotle justice wherever his name can be brought in. Moreover, Mr. Seth tries to build upon recent psychology; yet he does not succeed very well in making psychology really a part of ethics, as it should be. Teachers, nevertheless, will not go far wrong in using the book for what it is—a sensible, orthodox, clearly written exposition, in ability about on a par with at least two others now in current use.

We must in closing deprecate the author's excessive injection of theological matter into the treatment of ethics. The sermonizings found in the last third of the book weaken it distinctly; and is there any need of devoting one hundred pages to the commonplaces respecting virtues like temperance and self-control, and another hundred out of a total of four hundred to such topics as immortality and theism? Of course when a man has something new to say on these topics, they are just the topics on which something new should be said; but when the opinions are old—as they are in this case—one must grudge the two hundred pages, no matter how well expressed the views may be, or how well supported by happily chosen poetical quotations.

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*The Life and Letters of M. P. O'Connor.* Written and Edited by his daughter Mary Doline O'Connor. New York: Dempsey & Carroll. 1893.

THE interest of this bulky volume for the general reader is almost entirely that pertaining to a phase of Southern reconstruction, one of the darkest of a time of fearful gloom. But we have the illustration of this phase in connection with a personality that is attractive by its earnestness, its simplicity, and its warm affections in all the more intimate relations of friendship and domestic life. It would be churlish to object to the effusiveness of a daughter's admiration for her father's character and ability. When, with filial piety, we have the Irish temperament, some latitude of praise must be expected, and to look for any critical estimate would be manifestly absurd.

Michael Patrick O'Connor was born in Beaufort, S. C., in 1831, "amid the full development of a slaveholding influence, an atmosphere not favorable to the growth of any character foreign to its tenacious and exclusive instincts." But Mr. O'Connor was at least free from the disadvantage of hereditary taint. His father had immigrated only nine years before his birth. He was a sturdy Roman Catholic, at first almost the only one in the community.

The son kept the faith, and equally his father's interest in all things Hibernian, and his easy eloquence was in demand for all Irish anniversaries and social festivals. He was educated—imperfectly, it would appear—at the Jesuit College at Fordham, N. Y. Admitted to the bar when he was twenty-three years old, his local reputation as an orator was of rapid growth. More than half the volume is given up to his speeches and orations, and they are examples of genuine Irish eloquence—rhetorical, emotional, perfervid; its substance glowing with a crimson heat even when there is most of solid argument. One can easily conceive that, with such a voice as many eulogists ascribe to him, the impression that he made upon a popular assemblage was intense, if not profound. But the circumstances of his career were not such as to make his political success commensurate with his natural ability. Elected to the lower house of the General Assembly in 1858, he opposed the reopening of the slave-trade and the movement towards secession, then fast gathering head. But when South Carolina seceded, "finding himself unable to stem the current, he bowed to the State's decree, loyally acquiesced in that which he was powerless to prevent but sincerely regretted, and in many of his public utterances cheered them [*sic*] on to victory." We read so often of this kind of thing that we cannot help wondering what the course of events would have been if all who were opposed to secession had shown the energy and determination of their opponents.

As the war drew to its end, Mr. O'Connor and his family found themselves in Columbia, witnesses of the city's melancholy fate, but sufferers to no great extent. He immediately accepted the results of the war and, once they were passed, the constitutional amendments; yet he could not but oppose the policy which made South Carolina "The Prostrate State": the deluded negro and the carpet-bagger joining hands to keep her in the slough of her immeasurable disgrace. He was an ardent supporter of Horace Greeley in 1872, and, in the convention which nominated him, threw himself with tremendous ardor and effect upon the reactionary position of Senator Bayard. Could his spirit have become general in the Democratic party, the result would have been very different; but that it would have been more fortunate—only those to whom the unknowable is an open book can tell us about that. In 1876 he was again eager and hopeful, and correspondingly depressed when the Electoral Commission gave the election to Hayes. "The sin of pride and slavery, it would seem," he wrote, "has not yet been sufficiently atoned for." But his Irish blood was up, and he had no patience with Tilden's easy acquiescence in his fate. The election of Wade Hampton as Governor was a mitigating circumstance, and did much to console him for Tilden's defeat and his own as a Congressional candidate. In 1878 he was more fortunate and again in 1880, but he was prevented by death from finishing his second term. To nothing did he give himself more actively in Congress than to a bill for the reimbursement of the colored people who had suffered by the failure of the Freedmen's Bank. A less feminine taste for statistics and hard facts would have made his biography much more valuable; but as it is, when Mr. Rhodes or some other historian comes to the reconstruction period, this will be one of many memoirs that will serve him with some knowledge of the men and the motives which that period involved in its distracting whirl.

*Histoire de la Littérature Française.* Par Gustave Lanson. Paris: Hachette & Cie.

In one stout volume of 1,150 pages, M. Lanson—whose critical work has won him an honorable place in the ranks of the best contemporary French writers—gives us the most complete and best-proportioned compendium of French literature yet published. Neither Petit de Julleville's excellent 'Leçons de Littérature Française,' Lintilhac's 'Littérature Française,' René Doumic's or Gazier's works, can stand comparison, as a whole, with M. Lanson's new book. As for Demogeot, he is decidedly out of date. Two or three points in M. Lanson's book serve to place it far ahead of its rivals. First, the Middle Ages receive a due share of attention; the labors of the mediævalist scholars, led by Gaston Paris, having been turned to practical account for the benefit of the student. The whole of this period, of such great importance to a proper understanding of the Renaissance, Classic, and Romantic times, is treated with fulness and clearness. Secondly, the nineteenth century is rightly considered by the author as a completed epoch; and a general view of it, occupying nearly 250 pages, enables the foreign reader to understand the worth and bearing of the work done by great writers from Mme. de Staël and Chateaubriand down to Renan, Leconte de Lisle, and the chief novelists whose career is practically closed. Thirdly, M. Lanson, appreciating the general desire felt to know something definite of the contemporary writers actually engaged in the production of literature, has devoted a chapter to the great critics of the day—Brunetière, Faguet, Lemaître, Sarcey—to the latest poets and romancers, to the very latest dramatists. Such information has hitherto been unattainable save in the pages of critics and reviewers, in newspaper and magazine articles. Petit de Julleville merely names some of these writers in footnotes, Doumic in a paragraph; Lintilhac has a few brief words about some of them; not one of the three has ventured very far. M. Lanson is to be congratulated on his resolute attempt to characterize these men and their work for the benefit of the student.

All these merits are important, and add very greatly to the value of the book. But the fundamental point is the mode of treatment adopted by the author, and here again one experiences satisfaction. M. Lanson has not attempted a scientific history of an art; he has attempted and has succeeded in giving a philosophical view of French literature. It is no mere dry catalogue of names and dates, of authors and works, filled out with summary appreciations of each, but a systematic, well-linked, well thought-out account of the evolution of literature, of the movement of thought, of the birth, growth, and decadence of the various schools which have been the expression of the successive phases of that evolution. To the mere amateur of literature, as to the earnest student or teacher, this method of presenting the history of French literature will prove of the greatest value for a clear comprehension of that literature as a whole and of the reasons of its influence. Not that this method has not already been put into practice: Nisard's celebrated history is an example of it, and Pellissier's work on the nineteenth century is another—Saintsbury's 'Shorter History' may be cited also. But M. Lanson carries it out for every epoch, as is not the case with Nisard or Pellissier. It is supplemented by the details which other writers of handbooks of literature have thought sufficient in themselves. The personal note, too, is marked: the book is no mere epitome of opinions of various critics: it is the outcome of knowledge of the works which together make up French literature; and herein M. Lanson is an example of the only true way of studying any literature, namely, by reading the original works first and the criticisms afterwards. Too many people nowadays read the latter only.

Well-arranged chronological tables, a full index, an interesting table of contents which summarizes the leading divisions of the work, contribute to the general excellence of the book; and last, and very important, M. Lanson's style is such as to make the reading of his history a distinct pleasure.

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*Varieties in Prose.* By William Allingham. 3 vols. Longmans, Green & Co.

No more agreeable volumes of miscellanies have passed the press in recent years than these *reliquiæ* of a gifted and amiable writer. They range widely: sketches of little tours in England, Wales, Ireland—France at the farthest; historical papers, not too learned to be readable; pieces of artistic and literary criticism; humanly philosophical essays; studies of life and manners—there is something for most temperaments except the Gradgrind and the hysterical. Some of the papers are slight things, others are in dead earnest; but the serious are never heavy, and even the least significant are instinct with the life of an interesting and worthy individuality. Whatever is sound and honest is sure of a good word. Even stupidity is treated with rare patience when it is combined with sincerity, and when, we must hasten to add, it does not express itself in church-"restoration." Whatever is mean—above all, whatever is cruel, whether of intent or as part of unfeeling system—evokes warm but undeclamatory indignation. Wholesome reading for a fussy and attitudinizing decade!

We may spare over-much detail, for many of these papers have appeared in the English magazines or elsewhere and are familiar to our readers; but we cannot pass by "The Rambles of Patricius Walker" without a word of appreciation. If the bicycle is to abolish the good old art of walking, as some triumphantly think, these little sketches of tours on foot may stand as a testimony to our descendants. In them they may read with envy how once the contemplative man could take his pleasures at a leisurely pace, not vexing his soul about problems of rapid transit. The sketches are not all first-rate, but none of them is dull and the best of them are charming. Mr. Allingham's descriptive powers were those of the poet, and, unlike many poets, he was master of a graceful and unmannered prose style. The "Irish Sketches" have also a permanent value, and the account of St. Patrick's Purgatory is doubtless unique.

It is not, however, so much for instruction as for refreshment that the reader who possesses these volumes will recur to them, always, we are sure, with gratitude to Mrs. Allingham for sending them to press, and to her publishers for putting them up in so attractive a form.

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*City Government in the United States.* By Alfred R. Conkling. D. Appleton & Co. 1894.

Mr. Conkling has collected a great deal of useful information with reference to City Government, and gives much good practical advice. The main conclusions to be derived from his book are (1) that our large cities are

the worst governed in the world; (2) that this is not due to bad laws, but to bad men—*i. e.*, to the fact that the class of men who fill the administrative offices is so poor that no amount of good legislation will produce good government. The question is, How are we to get good men? And to this the answer is not so easy. According to estimates on which Mr. Conkling places reliance, a very large proportion of the voters in any community are venal, and if, besides venality, ignorance is also taken into account, we may say that the venal and ignorant, by acting together, would be able to decide almost every municipal election. Of course we console ourselves with the reflection that they do not act together, that some of them vote for one party and some for the other; but there is really more "solidarity" and *esprit de corps* among them than we are apt to think.

It must be remembered, too, that the prevention by good election laws of actual bribery at the polls does not *ipso facto* make a worthy citizen out of the voter who would otherwise have taken money. The "floater" and the "stove-sitter" will always "be voted" rather than vote. We cannot get rid of them, and all we can do is to take away their opportunities as much as possible. A very good way to see in what direction the remedy lies is to ask ourselves what sort of municipal government the venal classes would themselves most enjoy. If they were revising the charter of a city, they would undoubtedly provide for as many elective offices and as frequent elections as possible. Exactly in the same way the interests of the honest classes require the concentration of power in the hands of non-elective administrative officials, and the appointment of these officials by some one who will select them solely for fitness. Ten years of such appointments would solve the question of municipal government in any city in the United States. "Under the new ballot charter, the form of the city government of Philadelphia is perfect," Mr. Conkling says, "yet the men now (1894) in office are not satisfactory." The "men in office" make the city government what it is—not the form of the laws which they administer; and the reason why Berlin is better governed than Philadelphia is because the "men in office" in Berlin *are* satisfactory.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Amicis, Edmondo de. Holland. 2 vols. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. $5.
Bastian, Adolf. Zur Mythologie und Psychologie der Nigritier in Guinea. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer.
Bliss, W. R. Side Glimpses from the Colonial Meeting-House. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Borlaise, Skipp. Stirring Tales of Colonial Adventure: A Book for Boys. F. Warne & Co. $1.50.
Clark, D. K. Tramways; Their Construction and Working. 2d ed., re-written and greatly enlarged. London: Crosby, Lockwood & Son; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $9.
Davidson, Thomas. The Education of the Greek People and its Influence on Civilization. [International Education Series.] Appletons.
Edwards, Dr. J. F. Hygiene, with Anatomy and Physiology. Edward P. Slevin.
Ford, Mary H. Otto's Inspiration. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $1.
Gerstäcker, F. Germelshausen. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 25 cents.
Hosmer, J. K. How Thankful Was Bewitched. Putnams. 50 cents.
Jesperson, Prof. Otto. Progress in Language: with special reference to English. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Kapp, Gisbert. Electric Transmission of Energy. 4th ed., thoroughly revised. D. Van Nostrand Co. $3.50.
Knox, T. W. The Lost Army. The Merriam Co. $1.50.
Liddon, Rev. H. P. Clerical Life and Work. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Morrison, Arthur. Martin Hewitt: Investigator. Harpers. 50 cents.
Muggleton College: Its Rise and Fall. London: Archibald Constable & Co.
O'Grady, Standish. The Coming of Cuculain: A Romance of the Heroic Age of Ireland. London: Methuen & Co.
Perrot, Prof. Georges, and Chipiez, Charles. History of Art in Primitive Greece. Mycenian Art. 2 vols. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. $15.
Phyfe, W. H. P. Five Thousand Words Often Mispronounced. Putnams. 75 cents.
Roosevelt, Theodore. The Winning of the West. Vol. III. The Founding of the Trans-Allegheny Commonwealths. 1784—1790. Putnams. $2 50.
Schorlemmer, Prof. Carl. The Rise and Development of Organic Chemistry. Revised ed. Macmillan. $1.60.
Skene, F. M. F. Hidden Depths. Rand, McNally & Co. 50 cents.
Sheldon, Charles M. The Crucifixion of Philip Strong. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Simonds, A. B. American Song: A Collection of Representative American Poems. Putnams. $1.50.
The Demon of Lermontoff. Translated from the Russian. London: Rivington, Percival & Co.
The Golden Fairy Book. Illustrated. Appletons. $2.
The Student Missionary Enterprise. F. H. Revell Co. $1.50.
Thompson, D. D. Abraham Lincoln, the First American. Hunt & Eaton. 90 cents.
Un Siècle de Modes Féminines, 1794—1894: Quatre Cents Toilettes réproduites en couleurs. Paris: Charpentier & Fosquelle; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.
Van Dyke, Prof. J. C. Text-book of the History of Painting. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
White, Eliza O. When Molly Was Six. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Wright, Thomas. The Life of Daniel Defoe. Randolph. $3.75.
Wright, W. A. Shakspere's Much Ado about Nothing. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Zimmern, Alice. Methods of Education in the United States. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Ziwet, Prof. Alexander. An Elementary Treatise on Theoretical Mechanics. Part III: Kinetics. Macmillan. $2.25.


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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 29, 1894.

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On Wednesday week, for the first time since specie payments were resumed, there was a premium on gold in Wall Street. The premium ranged from 1-64 to 1/8, and was chiefly at the latter figure. It was based on sentiment and not on facts, since the Government had not suspended gold payments, but was keeping open door at the sub-treasury, and was redeeming legal-tender notes on presentation. Moreover, there was an abundance of gold in the Treasury and no possible chance of a shortage. How are we to explain this phenomenon? There are two ways, and they are equally ludicrous. One is to suppose that intending subscribers to the new Government loan were intimidated by the newspapers, and that they were afraid of drawing unfavorable comment upon themselves if they took gold from the Treasury to pay for their bond subscriptions. The other and more probable explanation is that they were intimidated by the Government itself, fearing discrimination hereafter if they avail themselves of their legal rights in a purely business transaction. According to the letter of the law, the secretary was obliged to call for "coin" in his bond sale. The law under which he acts was passed before the resumption of specie payments. The bonds being repayable, both principal and interest, in coin, it was fitting that the bond subscriptions should be paid in coin. But the reason for these distinctions ceased when specie payments were resumed. The distinctions ought to have ceased at the same time. They did cease as to the payment of customs duties in coin.

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When a sale of Government bonds is to be made, its success is to be determined by the number of bids received, the amount applied for, and the price paid. Measured by all these tests, the present sale is a success, but it has been a success in another way not anticipated by anybody. It has drawn public attention to the unscientific arrangement of the national finances as nothing else could have done. It has exposed the absurdity and the expensiveness of the system which charges the Government with the responsibility of maintaining a gold reserve for the settlement of international balances. In the present instance the Government assumes an obligation of 5 per cent. interest for nine years and three months on $50,000,000 (less the premium received), amounting to say $12,000,000, in order to insure the commerce of the country against a fresh panic by reason of a possible diminution of the gold reserve. Ours is the only government in the world that charges itself with such functions, but it is something that we can never get rid of so long as the legal-tender notes are outstanding. It is indispensable that these should be taken in and cancelled—the sooner the better. Ex-Comptroller Trenholm, in a letter to the *World*, recommends that the bond sales be continued as long as anybody is willing tc buy, and that a special issue should be made at 2½ per cent. interest for the purpose of taking in the redundant currency. The only defect in this plan is that it does not provide for the cancellation of the legal-tender notes taken in. It is time to put an end to the greenback folly altogether. Thirty-two years have passed since these notes were issued as a "war measure." The necessity of issuing them at all was never proved, and may well be doubted, but however that question may be decided, there was no necessity of keeping them alive more than six months after the end of the war. They ought to have been funded in interest-bearing bonds at once, like the other floating debt. We hope to see measures taken in the next Congress, if not in the present one, to deliver us from this prolonged nightmare.

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The Boston *Advertiser* discusses the question of currency reform as though that portion of a bank's capital which, under the present arrangement, is deposited with the Government as security for circulating notes, would disappear up the chimney or otherwise cease to exist if the Baltimore plan were adopted. Having this conception of the volatile nature of bank capital, it says: "The Baltimore plan in effect only leaves one-half or one-quarter of the bank's capital for the protection of depositors." Let us see how the case would stand as regards depositors in a bank starting with a capital of $114,000. We take this sum because that amount is required, at the present price of bonds, to take out $90,000 of circulation. The only portion of this sum which can be made available for the protection of depositors is $24,000, *i. e.*, the excess of value of the bonds over circulation. Under the Baltimore plan there would be $57,000 of bank-notes which would be a first lien on assets, but there would be $57,000 of capital remaining as a protection to depositors, against $24,000 under the present arrangement; or $33,000 more in the former case than in the latter. Now if we take into account, as is proper, the bank's bills receivable (which it has taken in exchange for its circulating notes), we have $90,000 under present arrangements and $57,000 under the Baltimore plan, or $33,000 more under the former than under the latter. In other words, the two systems are exactly alike as regards the protection of depositors, provided none of the capital goes up the chimney or is carried off by witches.

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Ex-Speaker Reed made his first speech since election at the dinner of the Home Market Club in Boston on Thursday. Before such an audience it was probably inevitable that he should vaunt protection, and he said some very foolish things about the tariff. But at the same time he showed as clearly as in his first brief comments to an interviewer a realization of the perils which confront the victors at the late election. Of course he had to have his fling at some of the victims, but he turned from poking fun at the Democrats to remind his own party that "we have got something else to do besides rejoice," and that "victories bring responsibilities." Instead of predicting that the Republicans would sweep the country in 1896, he only claimed that, "if we have wisdom for two years, we will be trusted for more." As Mr. Reed's influence will be controlling in the next House of Representatives, such evidence that he has learned some wisdom from the wreck in which his previous speakership involved his party, is most welcome.

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Mr. Reed is much better at vague sarcasm on general principles than he is at specific details. Cautious as he was in general about predicting what the actual working of the new tariff would be, it seemed to him "unavoidable" that "many woollen manufactories must go under." What a pity that the editor of the *Wool and Cotton Reporter* did not slip a copy of his paper of the same day into Mr. Reed's hands in time to forestall this particular prophecy. In it it is stated that many hosiery and underwear mills "have orders on hand sufficient to keep them running up to next March," while "many of the mills are at present very actively employed," "what with the duplicate orders received on heavy-weight goods and the hurrying forward of deliveries on light weights." In fact, says the *Reporter*, with a cruel spiking in advance of Mr. Reed's guns, the domestic manufacturer "is eager for the fray," fully ready to meet the foreigner in the gates and "show what he can do in quality and price of goods."

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Mr. W. S. Parkerson of New Orleans had a royal reception at the same Home Market banquet. His speech was "well received," and his plea for "the elevation of the title of American citizen" was so fine that "the audience arose and gave him three rousing cheers." This was very flattering, but Mr. Parkerson is used to such demonstrations when he speaks. On the evening of March 14, 1891, he made a

speech in his own New Orleans which brought him greater applause than cold and cultured Bostonians are capable of. "Hurrah for Parkerson!" cried the mob, when he declared then that he was "only a plain American citizen;" and when they asked, "Shall we get our guns?' "Yes, yes," said Parkerson, "get your guns and meet us in Congo Square immediately." The guns were got, and the eleven Italians were shot down in cold blood. According to Mr. Blaine and President Harrison, this deed was one of infamy, yet the instigator of it needs only to become a protectionist and go to Boston, to be welcomed to a seat beside the Governor of Massachusetts and Senator Hoar, and to be applauded for his noble sentiments in favor of making the name American glorious, with a bounty on sugar thrown in. Truly, as pious Senator Hoar says, "Light is breaking in the South"; but what is it that is breaking in Massachusetts?

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In analyzing the vote of this city and State for light on the meaning of the late election, one point of first importance seems to be generally overlooked. Mr. Hill's vote in the city is set down at 127,088, and Mr. Morton's at 124,308, and Mr. Hill's plurality is thus made out to be 2,780. But the vote for Mr. Wheeler, 9,039, was as much an anti-Hill vote as that cast for Mr. Morton, and should be added to the latter. This makes the anti-Hill vote 133,347, and leaves Mr. Hill in a minority of 6,259 in the great Democratic city of New York. So in regard to the State. Mr. Morton's plurality over Hill is over 157,000, but to this should be added Mr. Wheeler's vote of 27,000, making the anti-Hill plurality about 185,000, which is without precedent in the history of the State. Cleveland's great plurality of 1882 was 192,000, but that was a Democratic plurality, and New York is a Democratic State. The anti-Hill plurality of 185,000 was cast against a Democratic candidate.

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Mr. Strong told some amusing stories last week at the Chamber of Commerce dinner of his experience in trying to get men who come to him with advice, to take charge of the departments of the city government about the condition of which they sought to enlighten him. They recoiled from office immediately, as they were going to Europe or Alaska. We dare say he will have this same experience in a large number of cases, but he must not despair. This reluctance of respectable men to take city offices is one of the evils he has to encounter and redress. City offices have, through long years of politics and Tammany, become discredited with decent men, who shrink from the kind of people with whom they would come in contact, and from the possibility of having to wink at abuses in order to keep on good terms with their colleagues, as in Mr. Gray's case. He was actually threatened with indictment for proposing to expose his scoundrelly colleagues. This objection will be met with mainly among the men of leisure, or comparative leisure, but it is one which can be easily overcome or will wear out. Patriotism is not dead among them, and if they are assured of loyal support, and are allowed to clean out the Tammany vermin freely, Mr. Strong will have no great difficulty in getting their assistance. It is by such men that the leading offices are filled in the well-governed cities of the world. The greatest hindrance in taking municipal offices, to men of moderate means who have still their way to make in the world, is the insecurity of the tenure. The city could have the pick of the labor market if it could offer the tenure during good behavior which banking and large business houses offer. We cannot help hoping that this will come in time, though it may not be yet near. Still there are plenty of excellent men quite ready to take the chances, but they do not offer themselves, Mr. Strong will remember, through Milholland or the Committee of Thirty.

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What is of most importance in the near future is the Police Department and the Street-Cleaning Bureau. These are the two departments of the municipal government in which large bodies of men have to work under authority and discipline. All experience, both public and private, requires that these bodies should be ruled in what, for want of a better term, we are obliged to call military fashion—that is, they must be commanded as men are commanded who are organized for fighting purposes. In getting them to do their work we must, therefore, use the experience of men who command soldiers, or of large contractors—that is, command not necessarily fighting men, but men who have to be punctual, orderly, obedient, and faithful to their duty. Gilroy's theory that the streets can be cleaned by old fellows who would otherwise go to the almshouse, under the direction of an old Tammany rooster like Brennan, must be wholly discarded. The street-cleaning force and the police force must be *disciplined* forces, and the best jokes of history are those which record the efforts of committees and commissions to command such forces, especially committees of politicians. The history of our own police force, as well as of our street-cleaning force, under such direction, is in fact, a huge joke. A street-cleaning force that costs two millions and does not clean the streets, and a police force which costs five millions and sells permits to commit crime are, of course, a side-splitting pleasantry. But the time for laughing is gone by. The time for business has arrived.

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A conference of the Republicans elected to the State Senate has just been held at Indianapolis, at which there was a general agreement in favor of an apportionment which shall be free from gerrymandering, and a law putting all the State institutions under the direction of non-partisan boards, to be appointed by the Governor (who is now a Democrat), instead of treating these offices as party spoils; and against any change whatever in the excellent election law, except a provision allowing each party which runs a ticket to have watchers at the count. This last decision is in itself a great gain, for ever since a Democratic Legislature adopted the Australian system and thus stopped the "blocks of five" business, Republican politicians of the baser sort have been threatening to repeal or emasculate the law as soon as they got control of the Legislature. The readiness to introduce the non-partisan principle in the State institutions, and to initiate the reform when a Governor of the opposite party will have the first appointments, is also a tremendous gain.

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Populism has been overthrown in Colorado, but there is evidently still abundant scope for the work of reform in that State. A petition signed by the presidents of national banks and the heads of great business establishments to the number of between forty and fifty was presented to the Governor on Monday, asking that the enforcement of the laws against gambling be suspended, and that the crime be allowed "under such regulations and surveillance as the Police Department may prescribe." The reasons assigned by the petitioners are that "it is detrimental to the business interests of the city of Denver to compel gambling halls to remain closed; that many buildings and parts of buildings are rendered tenantless and bring in no rent to owners thereof; and that a large amount of money is kept from coming into the city of Denver and being put into circulation by reason of such closing; and that trade and all kinds of business are affected thereby." This is the sort of thing that really takes one's breath away, and makes him rub his eyes to see if he is reading the despatch straight. Gov. Waite is as bad a demagogue as we have seen in our politics for many a day, but he figured as a statesman when he refused the request of the leading business men of the capital to condone law-breaking in order to help trade.

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The report of the commission sent to investigate the condition of affairs in the Indian Territory recommends radical measures in dealing with the civilized Indians, so called, but it cannot be said that they are more radical than the situation demands. The commission affirms, what every reader of newspapers knows to be true, that government in the Indian Territory has broken down. Neither life nor property is secure. In one tribe alone more than fifty murders were committed within two months, yet no one was brought to justice. The property rights of the individual Indians,

solemnly guaranteed under the treaties, have been set aside by chicane and violence, so that, for example, 61 citizens in one tribe numbering 14,632 have enclosed and now hold more than one-third of the land belonging to the tribe in severalty. As for the general reign of terror existing in many parts of the Territory, including unchecked outrages and robberies by marauding gangs, the holding-up of trains, and the looting of towns, the commission needs to add nothing to what is now common knowledge.

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In view of this well-known and alarming condition of things, the commission declares that it is the plain duty of the United States to recover the domain granted to the Indians. Its argument is that the treaties were in the nature of a conveyance in trust, and that by the flagrant failure of the Indians to execute the trust, all their rights have lapsed. The precise merit and legality of this argument we leave it to the proper authorities to pass upon. But all must agree that the United States cannot go on tolerating a condition of open anarchy over a large section of country within its territory. The duty of putting an end to it is so strong, on the ground of the general principles of government and public safety and decency, that we have no doubt a legal and constitutional way of doing so will be found. The motives are so clearly those of the highest public interest that it cannot be said to be another case of a powerful government overriding the treaty rights of helpless Indians. In this respect it is fortunate that the first name signed to the report is that of ex-Senator Dawes, whose labors in the Senate and out of it in behalf of the Indians put him beyond suspicion of any desire except for their own good. It will be an urgent duty of the Administration and of Congress to act speedily on this report, and bring about the restoration of law and order in the Indian Territory.

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Attention is called by the *Railroad Gazette* to the fact that the "tramp nuisance" does not exist on the Canadian railways, or exists only in the mildest form. The reason is very simple. It is that the law is enforced against tramps in Canada, while in the United States it is not. Drunk and disorderly persons and all vagrants, including those who steal rides on trains, are arrested and brought before the nearest magistrate. Moreover, "if a tramp is found in a car or breaking a seal, he gets one year in State's prison; if he steals anything, he gets from seven to fourteen years in the penitentiary. By the criminal code any one is made guilty of an indictable offence and liable to two years' imprisonment who steals a ticket or order for passage on any railroad or similar public conveyance. Any one is liable to fourteen years' imprisonment who steals anything in or from any railroad-station or building or any vehicle on a railroad." Placing obstructions on railroads and train-wrecking are punishable by imprisonment for life. All these penalties are promptly and rigidly enforced, with the result that the boozing fraternity migrate to "the States" in short order. Here their usual punishment is a polite request to go on to the next town, accompanied with a supply of provisions sufficient to carry them there.

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President Andrews has just published a history of the United States in two volumes, and in it he does a noble bit of work for silver. On page 276 of volume ii. he records the fact that the silver dollar was "silently demonetized" in 1873. He adds that the great depreciation of silver which followed was only "apparent," inasmuch as there was no real decline of the purchasing power of silver "even in the form of bullion," but only a "rise in the value of gold." The peculiar deadliness of this lies, of course, in the fact that it is history. If it were mere assertion, or controversy, or stump-speaking, something might be said in rejoinder, but no one will want to confess himself such an ignoramus as not to know what "history teaches," or what "we find in the books," or what "President Andrews, who has carefully investigated the subject, says in his scholarly history," etc. Everybody knows that the appeal to history is an end of argument, and President Andrews has been very shrewd in leaving the other fellows to argue while himself attending to the history. Since Macaulay wrote his "huge Whig pamphlet" in the shape of a history of England, we know of nothing so clever. Our only fear is that other controversialists will seize upon this effective method of shutting the mouths of their opponents, and so tend to bring it into disrepute. There are terrible possibilities in a McKinley history of the United States, with fairy tales like the mysterious import of $200,000,000 in gold given the dignity of "historic fact," or in a John Jasper history, with a sober record of observations made in the latter half of the nineteenth century going to show that the sun "do move."

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The movement in the Presbyterian church to assume closer oversight of theological education appears to have received a serious check. The General Assembly urged the trustees of the various Presbyterian seminaries to turn over their funds and powers to it, so that the appointment of professors and control over their salaries might be vested in the Assembly direct. But the directors of Auburn and of Chicago seminaries met last week and declined to do anything of the kind. Union Seminary had before cut loose from all connection with the Assembly, and even if Princeton and Allegheny now obey orders, they will be almost alone in so doing. At present the Assembly has a veto only on the appointment of professors, and no remedy in the case of a man whose heresies develop after appointment. This was what kept the Assembly's hands tied so long in the case of Prof. Briggs. It had approved his original appointment, and had to sit by helpless all the years, until the blessed chance of his transfer to another chair gave it an opportunity to close in on him. To prevent the possibility of another such experience, the plan was brought forward and pushed through the Assembly to take over the seminaries bodily, so that any professor might at any time be hauled up, examined as to his orthodoxy, censured, "docked" in his pay, or dismissed. But it seems that the seminaries refuse to be swallowed at one gulp.

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The great difficulty about the Armenian massacres is the difficulty of getting correct intelligence. There is a great deal of Turkish oppression going on in those remote regions, aggravated by the marauding and kidnapping of the Kurds, and there is intense hatred between the Christian and Mussulman populations; and both sides, of course, exaggerate this feeling for the purpose of working on European opinion. But that the Turkish oppression is frightful there can be no doubt, and it is highly probable that some Armenian resistance was punished by wholesale massacre. This has been the Turkish mode of repressing insubordination of any kind on the part of its Christian subjects ever since the Turks began to have any Christian subjects. They have perpetrated these massacres now and again in every part of their dominions. That of Scio in 1822 made a profound impression on Christendom, but that of Bulgaria in 1876 was nearly as bad, but would have passed comparatively unnoticed if Mr. Schuyler and Mr. McGahan had not happened to be on the spot. The truth is that there are no remedies for Turkish rule but abolition. The Armenians, once a warlike people, and furnishing some good soldiers to the Russian service, have, through ages of oppression, become unwarlike and are incapable of effecting their own deliverance. It will probably come some day from Russian interference. In letting the Turks have a free hand in that region the western Powers are playing into Russian hands. But there is little use in remonstrating with the Turks or exposing them, and their own press, even the European version of it, is muzzled by censorship such as has not been seen in Europe since the middle ages. One of the horrible incidents of Turkish rule from which the Armenians suffer severely is the insecurity of their young women. The kidnapping of Christian girls is a time-honored Turkish pastime, and keeps the Christian parents of pretty daughters in horrible anxiety. Down to the emancipation of Bulgaria, the entrance of Turks, especially high official Turks, into a Christian village in that province was always a signal for the close concealment of the young women.

*REFORM IN THE POST-OFFICE.*

POSTMASTER-GENERAL BISSELL'S annual report, just made public, discusses the relations of the post-office to politics in a fashion which will make the hide-bound partisans all over the country open their eyes in astonishment. Hitherto no postmaster-general has had the courage to speak the plain truth about this matter in a public report, though more than one has in private condemned the present vicious and senseless system without mercy.

Many of Mr. Bissell's critics, including some who have the kindest regard for him personally and feel the warmest interest in his success in office, have regretted that he did not, at the outset of his career as postmaster-general, snap his fingers at precedent and refuse to take any part in the reallotment of post-offices. Some one in his position will have to do it, and the question has often been asked, Will any postmaster-general who succeeds him be surrounded with conditions more conducive to independence? Mr. Bissell, however, is not a radical or a pioneer by nature; he is eminently a man of caution, who never makes a forward movement without studying the field and feeling the ground before him, so that he will not have to counteract the moral effect of his advance by a speedy retreat. In dealing with the minor post-offices, therefore, he has insisted upon the necessity of reforming public opinion as preliminary to any successful reform of administrative practice. He took what many more aggressive reformers considered a backward step when, of his own accord and without any express sanction of law, he gave to the fourth-class postmasters a definite tenure of four years instead of hustling one lot out and another lot in as fast as the clerks at the department could prepare the papers and one of his assistants sign them. To the outside world this appeared like simply beating about the bush, because the term of each postmaster appointed during a previous administration would necessarily expire during the present one, and the sweep would therefore be clean in the long run. From the point of view of Mr. Bissell, however, seated in Washington at the confluence of all the streams of pressure, and at the headwaters of the huge flood of patronage, it was a distinct advance upon former methods. His opinion was strengthened, certainly, by the excitement which it caused among the petty local bosses who visited the capital to "fix things up" for their home post-offices, and were turned away with the frigid statement that the term of one postmaster would not expire for six months yet; that of another not for a year; that a third, if he behaved himself, would serve till January, 1897, and so forth. It was a revelation to the "party workers," and the indignation it aroused among them was a sufficient evidence that it marked the beginning of a new era.

But while the bosses were complaining, the "plain people" were keeping very silent. Here and there some fellow in private life who had the spoils poison in his blood, could not resist the temptation to write a vituperative letter to the department; the rule, however, was the other way, and not a few facts came to notice in Washington which proved that the substitution of an orderly for a chaotic process was appreciated by the patrons of the little offices, and that it was paving the way for something still better in the future. Having allowed this leaven to work in the public mind for a year, the postmaster-general follows it with an argument—ostensibly addressed to the President, but actually to the American people—in favor of doing away with terms altogether in these smaller places, and putting the fourth-class post-offices everywhere on a business instead of a political footing. He suggests that the bill introduced in the Fifty-first Congress by Mr. Lodge of Massachusetts, and in the Fifty-second and Fifty-third by Mr. Andrew and Dr. Everett respectively, may afford a basis, and perhaps something better than a mere basis, for legislation designed to take this class of offices out of politics altogether.

The spoils theory, on which the demand for a redistribution of post-offices by every new administration is founded, Mr. Bissell evidently considers outside the pale of serious discussion. He wastes no time on that, or on its less dangerous twin—the absurd notion that only the members of one party are capable, or honest, or otherwise worthy to execute a public trust. The whole weight of his argument is thrown upon the third and most persistent of the fallacies put forth in defence of the existing practice—the notion that the people of the United States, when they turn the government over from the keeping of one party to that of another, demand a "change" from top to bottom of the administrative staff. Mr. Bissell points out how thoroughly undemocratic and perversive of both home rule and majority rule this theory is. Take a community, for example, containing one hundred voters, eighty of whom cast Republican ballots in 1892: what logic is there in compelling these eighty Republicans to submit to a change of postmaster at the dictation of twenty Democrats—or, possibly, of only ten Democrats, if we suppose the remaining ten of the opposition to be made up of Prohibitionists, Populists, A. P. A.'s, and Independents? It is the spectacle of the tail wagging the dog with a vengeance!

This is a view of the case which few narrow partisans ever take until it is brought home to them by some case in which they happen to be hard hit themselves. It is of broad application, moreover. The Republicans have been the sufferers from the undemocratic practice within the last eighteen months; beginning with March, 1897, it may be the Democrats who will have to swallow the dose. If the Southern Democratic majority in the present Congress, therefore, has any foresight, it will guard against the evil day as well as it can by promoting such legislation as will spare it the sight again of every hamlet in the South having forced upon it some petty boss, picked from the minority, as its postmaster. It was this that the Southerners complained of so bitterly under Wanamaker; it is the same thing that they will have cause to complain of under somebody else if the Republicans come back again into power, unless in the meantime legislation can be enacted to sweep the whole miserable business out of the way.

The coming session is the short one, and it is a common complaint that nothing can be done at a short session. But so was it a short session—that of 1882–83—at which the present civil-service law was passed. Political conditions in the country at large were not unlike those prevailing now. The Republicans, who were then going out of power, were shrewd enough to see where they could strike a blow for good government and for their own benefit at the same time. Are the Democrats equally wise?

*CONSULAR REFORM.*

THE attention of the presidents of the chambers of commerce or boards of trade of our principal cities was recently called to the statement by Admiral Erben, printed in the *Evening Post* last September, about the general inefficiency of our consular service as he had observed it, and the damage which American trade suffers from such incompetency. It seems a very appropriate time to make a vigorous effort to secure the appointment of better consuls, now that we have taken a long step forward in the revision of our customs duties, and in this way have prepared ourselves to secure a larger share of the world's trade. It seems also self-evident that no more powerful influence in rescuing the consular service from the spoils politicians can be had than the active coöperation of the trade organizations of the country. If these organizations make something of a simultaneous and united demand for a better consular system, they will obtain a hearing at Washington where individual effort or newspaper argument might fail.

A step in this direction was taken by the directors of the Boston Merchants' Association more than a year ago; and their executive committee, to whom the matter was referred, reported that "the whole consular service is emphatically business, and the ground plan upon which it is to be conducted should be the same as that upon which business in general is conducted." President Byers of the Denver Chamber of Commerce writes: "I have long considered our consular service a disgrace to the nation, and I see no better course for its reform than to confine it strictly to civil-service rules. We should pattern after the English system in the

and the cultivation of the land in the vicinity of the towns and railways. In the interior mountain country, progress in this direction is slow, but along the Pontic seaboard the almost unbroken forest is giving place rapidly to gardens, farms, plantations, and vineyards.

Hard as was the task of Russia in civilizing Caucasia, it was still harder in civilizing Central Asia. Here there was no abounding source of wealth like the oil-wells of Baku and the wheat-fields of Kuban. The greater part of the country consisted either of lofty mountain regions or of extensive deserts dotted here and there with oases, veritable islands in a sea of sand. Six centuries ago they had been the seat of the empire of Timur, and had sustained an immense population. At the siege of the city of Merv in 1221 700,000 of its inhabitants are said to have perished. When it was captured by the Russians, there was not a house, only tents, in the whole oasis. These cultivable tracts had greatly shrunken, and in many instances entirely disappeared—the result of centuries of war and misrule. The inhabitants, both nomad and sedentary, Turkoman and Kirghiz, were fanatical Mohammedans and held thousands of Christian slaves, captured in border raids or from caravans. Europe was at this moment ringing with applause at Vámbéry's bravery in venturing among them even when disguised as a dervish.

The work of developing the resources of these regions began not, as in the Caucasus, with road-building, but with the repair of the ancient irrigation works and the construction of new ones. Numerous oases were created in this way at the foot of the lofty Ala-Taou and Alexander ranges, where the streams fed by the snows and glaciers lost themselves in the desert. Trees were planted along the canals, and villages built for the colonists, Russians, Jews, German Mennonites, and Chinese Mohammedans. To each Russian family a house was given and a hundred and fifty acres of irrigated land. A different course was pursued with the cultivated territory, as Samarcand and Ferganah. Here colonization was abandoned, after an unsuccessful attempt, and every effort was made to foster the native industries. To improve the cotton, for instance, which had been grown for ages in small quantities, a scientific commission was sent to the United States, which brought back seeds and plants suited to the soil and climate of Turkistan, together with machinery for caring for the crop. Schools for instruction in agriculture and arboriculture also were established in many places. To secure a market for the products of these fertile regions, as well as for military reasons, a railway was built from the Caspian Sea to Samarcand, and is now nearly completed to Tashkend.

What have been the results of these measures in Turkistan, a considerable part of which has not been in the Russian possession more than ten years? A single fact will suffice to show the growth in one direction. The only water-supply for the oases in which are the cities of Samarcand and Bokhara is the river Zerafshan, the former being nearest the source. The population and the amount of cultivated land have so increased, however, and so many new oases have been made along the upper course of the river, that its water is nearly exhausted before it reaches Bokhara, and this place, with a threefold greater population than in Vámbéry's time, is literally dying with thirst. The only remedy is to dig a canal through the desert two hundred miles to the Oxus, and this stupendous work, according to the latest available accounts, apparently has already begun. The cotton crop has increased enormously, the amount raised in Ferganah alone in 1893 being over two million hundredweight, half of which is American cotton. The crop returns for Samarcand for 1892 show half a million hundredweight of cotton, a million and a quarter hundredweight of raisins, and 8,640,000 quarters of cereals—an increase of two and a half millions over the previous year.

The industrial development of Turkistan to which these facts, chosen from a multitude, testify, shows that the Turkomans only needed a firm and just government to become peaceful and industrious. This seems to be true not merely of the cultivators of the soil and the handicraftsmen, but of the nomads. A recent English traveller in this region reports that he found a Russian colonel with eight native attendants administering a district of 30,000 persons "who quite recently were robbers and thieves by profession." Even so strong a Russophobist as Mr. Curzon cannot withhold his praise, though given somewhat grudgingly, for the civilizing influence of Russia in Central Asia. The army has done everything here and in Caucasia. Its officers have drawn the plans for roads, harbors, and irrigation works, and the soldiers have executed them. This is the bright side of Hosea Biglow's truism, that

> "—civlyzation *does* git forrid
> Sometimes upon a powder-cart."

## WORKING WITH FROUDE ON *FRASER'S MAGAZINE*.—II.

NEW YORK, November, 1894.

ON English questions Froude decidedly separated from Carlyle when the Tories were being "educated" by "the man they call Dizzy"—to remember Carlyle's contemptuous phrase for the statesman who presently offered him a title with wealth to support it. I find an undated note from Froude written about that time in which he says:

> "Unless I am mistaken, we are observing the death-struggle of the great anti-reform party in England. Merchants and such like have become so rich, by such bad means, that they are in terror of the people; and the conflict, which is only beginning, will witness changes which no one living can foresee."

Froude's letters never contain the year in which they were written, and I cannot trace the dates of those from which I make the subjoined extracts. The lectures mentioned in the next extract were before the Philosophical Institutions of Hull and Newcastle-on-Tyne:

> "I am here [Hull] lecturing for a day or two. I shall be at Newcastle, I hope, the beginning of next month. I go to Spain for five or six months afterwards, so that I shall be absent during the session—which will be a stormy one. A strongly democratic measure will be pressed eventually, but not just yet. The pressure from below is not great at present; but the Grandees are smitten with confusion of counsels, and do not know what they would be at. The Government, so far as they have any purpose, do *not*, I understand, mean to take up the *Alabama* question."

> "The originality in the author of 'Margaret' [Sylvester Judd, on whom a paper of mine appeared in *Fraser*, July, 1867] I can recognize, and admire most heartily, and so I can of Lowell; but these new people fill their sails with the whirlwinds of the last six years, and I am still heretic enough to regard all that, not as a perennial trade wind of humanity, but as a local tornado generated by temporary electricity. Nothing violent is long-lived, and these all-absorbing, all-enveloping passions blaze like prairie-fires, preparing the ground, indeed, for a future crop, but not things in themselves proper to sympathize with. I do not recognize *poetry* in either of your friends except Howells—who has caught the disease most mildly." (Howells's "Margaret Garner" is the poem alluded to. The other pieces were fugitive verses which I have forgotten.)

> "I have looked through Mr. Howells's [article]. He has much ability, and as a book or part of a book [his paper] might be valuable. A little now and then about old Italy would do well for us [*Fraser*], but I cannot make room for forty pages."

> "I have a long letter from Bret Harte this morning. He talks of paying us a visit at the beginning of next month. Scotland gives him rheumatism, and he would like to be exchanged to England. [Froude is writing from Kingsbridge.] Carlyle I believe to be in London. The last news we heard was that he was impatient to be there. The Doctor [John Carlyle] at that time was still alive, and your letter brings the first information that he is gone. The effect of it on Carlyle, I expect, will only be to irritate him still more at the length of his own stay in a world which has no interest left for him."

> "Mr. Sanborn's paper is very interesting indeed. I cannot use it in July, but it shall have a place on the earliest opportunity. You could not pay us a visit [at Crogen House, Corwen, Wales] when I wanted you in April, but I *must* show you our antiquities some time this summer. The remnants of the old wooden Sea Horn, or whatever it was, on which Derfel Gadern, the Welsh St George, sate for adoration before the Reformation, is one of the most curious pieces of antiquity in the Island. Derfel Gadern wore armour; that is all we know about him. He was brought to London by Henry VIII.'s visitors. He was split in pieces—being made of oak like to horn—and the chips were used to burn Father Forest in Smithfield, when Latimer preached the sermon—'playing the fool,' so he himself described it, 'after his accustomed manner.' It is due to Latimer to say that he tried hard to prevent the burning." (Derfel Gadern was an ancient wooden image, concerning which there was a Welsh prophecy that it would some day "burn a bishop." The persecutors seized the occasion to burn the idol along with the recusant.)

In acknowledgment of a little book on Christianity, in which it was maintained that there was no evidence of Jesus having sprung from a poor or peasant family, Froude wrote:

> "As addressed to those who already believe rightly in these matters, it will be full of interest and instruction. It will not convert, but that you do not expect. I cannot quite reconcile myself to a *rich* Christ. Merivale [the Roman historian] insisted once to me that the Disciples were Jews of good family and position; and when I said they were fishermen—'Fishermen,' he said; 'yes, like you and me. They had their villas on the lake and went out fishing for their amusement.' He felt like you that they were cultivated and educated men, or they could not have done what they did. You and he may be right, and my hesitation may be only

prejudice. You don't allude to the visit of the young Greek to our Lady which you once suggested to me, but you say enough to set the world thinking. . . . I am glad you are pleased with *Divus Cæsar* [one of his 'Short Studies']. It has been on my mind since 1850, and belongs, as you see, to the old cycle of ideas."

"My French is so indifferent that I shall be of no service. For conversational purposes I can command only a traveller's patois, and Renan can speak no English. If you really want me under such conditions, you must let me know again by post. I have already declined dinners on the same ground. Either German or Spanish I could do with tolerably—but I was mistaught French when young, and have never had the energy to reinstate myself."

"I shall enjoy breakfasting with you on the 8th very much indeed. I have not yet met Lowell, and I shall be particularly pleased to make his acquaintance."

"I hope and believe that a time will come when there will no longer be Englishmen and Americans, but we shall be of one heart and mind, and perhaps of one name."

"I almost fear that English interest in Emerson will hardly bear so large a demand upon it. We should like to hear more of his opinions on later matters. We should not care to follow in very great detail the history of the growth of his mind. If you have done the second article, would you not let me have that first?"

"I have read [your] book almost through ['Demonology and Devil-Lore']. . . . Gladstone and those who think as he does explain the similarity of the legends of other countries with those of the Jews by the theory of the Noachian tradition. The same stories were started round the world on the dispersion of mankind which followed the business of the Tower of Babel. Assyrians, Persians, Hindoos, Greeks, Egyptians—all had received the primitive account, and all corrupted in their various ways. I have little to suggest, but I would like for myself to have heard more—1st, of the Greek Mysteries, out of which the Christian Sacraments grew—especially the 'bread and wine' business; 2d, of Mani and the Manicheans; 3d, of the theory that the seat of evil was matter—ὕλη—whence came the notion of the sins of the flesh. . . . I am heartily glad a second edition is called for. I shall read the book again more slowly, when something more may suggest itself."

In 1872 Froude visited America to give lectures on Irish matters, and towards the close of that year I received a letter from him ("Syracuse, October 27," where he had gone with President Andrew White) which expresses much satisfaction at his reception in New York city, notwithstanding the fury of the Irish and of the "Democratic" press:

'The Hall was crowded every night; the audiences of the very best; the applause all that vanity could desire; while privately to *me* a great many distinguished persons have expressed their delight that I have come over for such an object. But this is not the tone of the Democratic press. The Irish are furious and the —— bow down before them. . . . The Republicans generally have been good to me, warm about England, and as to this Irish matter, willing to let the Fenians know that their sympathies are not with them but with us. They are willing to listen to the English side of the history, and are really interested. The American Irish are mad. I have the most furious letters. Father Burke let out at me. I hit back and got the best of it, for which I am hated more than before. A public deputation waited on him to request him to annihilate me, which for his credit's sake he must try to do. . . . I cannot tell you how heartily I like America and the Americans. Nothing strikes me so much as the total absence of everything which we English are brought up to believe constitutes the American character. They are hospitable, kind, simple—essentially genuine in word and deed. I have never heard a discourteous syllable, though plenty of plain-speaking. The press shows the worst side of them, and is inferior to the men who write it. Of course, as you know, the election excitement is over. One hears strange things very openly said; and if one might judge from the general language (which probably one ought not to do) the present system of electing Presidents will not last very long. Many sensible men tell me also that a war of religions is not impossible in America. The Catholics grow stronger every day, and sooner or later it will come to blows!'"

It is to be hoped that Froude's papers will fall into careful hands. Not only are there, to my knowledge, invaluable memoranda among them that have never seen the light, but facts will be discovered which will much soften the asperities with which his own failures, as I deem them, in dealing with Carlyle's papers have been judged. That, as Tyndall said, "Froude damaged Carlyle and damned himself," is a sentence which can be revised only when the world has a true biography of both men. During the uproar excited by his Carlyle volumes, the late Lord Tennyson said in my hearing, "I once asked Carlyle why he had chosen Froude as his literary executor, and he replied, 'Because of his reticence.'" Tennyson said this with a smile, and yet he or any near acquaintance of Froude would previously have said the same thing. While he was engaged on those vast heaps of papers, with public and publishers clamorous for what required years for their adequate treatment, Froude appeared to me as one bewildered. One day he returned me a letter written by Mrs. Carlyle to me, when I was with her husband in Edinburgh (the last letter she ever wrote, which I had given to Carlyle), and he then read me from a letter of hers to her husband, many years before, an anecdote more amusing than dainty. "Now how," he said, "can I print that? It is very difficult to deal with some things in this accumulation, for unfortunately no letter seems to have been ever destroyed by the Carlyles." Had I dreamed that Froude was in danger of suppressing too little, I would have entreated him to summon in consultation Carlyle's most judicious friends, for the most part his own friends also. I know that he did attempt a consultation with Carlyle himself, but the aged author was too feeble to recur to papers that had passed out of his hand, and the interview only irritated him. Froude was an assiduous worker, and, though sociable with his circle of generally eminent persons, was something of a hermit to the world, and I feel certain that he knew not of the existence of the kindred of Carlyle's early contemporaries who were involved in his recollections or letters. He was hurried in his Carlyle work by rumors of books in preparation by which his might be too much anticipated. One writer, who had stolen the letters of Emerson to Carlyle, and other papers, would have written a biography of Carlyle before his death could he have found a publisher. Under this haste, even the proof of Carlyle's Recollections was badly revised, and, if I remember rightly, Sir Henry Taylor, serenest of poets, was described as a man of "masked vivacity" instead of "marked veracity." The friends of Carlyle were for the most part friends of Froude also, and lamented that he had not consulted some of them, before going to press, on passages involving reputations. Some old friendships were bruised, or even broken, in the miserable wrangle that followed. Froude's hair grew white, but his intellect, as his 'Erasmus' proves, lost no fibre of its force.

It is a thousand pities that so kindly, modest, and high-minded a gentleman should have unwillingly hurt the feelings of so many families, and embittered years of his own life; but it is pleasant to remember that these things were largely forgotten, and that his last years were passed among scholarly friends, and in honorable position, in the university where forty-five years ago 'The Nemesis of Faith' was formally and literally burned in the college of which he was a member.

MONCURE D. CONWAY.

## THE HOUSE OF LORDS.

LONDON, November 10, 1894.

LORD ROSEBERY'S declarations at Bradford against the House of Lords announce a great change in the plan of campaign of the Liberal army. A question which it was always recognized must be dealt with some day, but which, from the pressure of smaller, easier, or apparently more urgent reforms, was never suffered to see the light of day, has suddenly been promoted to the top of the Liberal programme. The announcement was, of course, not unexpected. The summary rejection of the Irish Home-Rule Bill, the defeat of the Employers' Liability Bill, and the narrow escape of the Parish Councils Bill in the first session of the present Parliament, brought into a striking light the fact that it was idle for the country to return a Liberal majority so long as an unrepresentative body, composed of Tories in the proportion of ten to one, had the power to reject or mutilate the measures passed by the lower house. The position had become impossible, and the cause of the Commons against the Lords was left as a legacy to his party by Mr. Gladstone in his last words in Parliament.

In the House of Commons the feeling had become very bitter. After six years in opposition, a Liberal minority had been converted into a majority. Yet the majority found itself powerless. The session was one of exhausting labor, and had been prolonged to nearly twice the usual term. Yet its labor had been for the most part futile. When Liberal measures were proposed, it was openly intimated before they were discussed that the House of Lords would reject them. The country likes to see its business done, and it was felt that the impotence of a Liberal government to carry its measures was being used as a strong and effective argument with the ordinary voter against returning the Liberals to power. The parties did not meet in Parliament on equal terms. One could always throw the weight of one of the estates of the realm into the scale. The Liberal party in the country were not slow to see the situation, and, ever since the formation of Lord Rosebery's government, members of Parliament on every platform have found the House of Lords the most interesting and popular of all questions. The experience of the last session has not diminished this feeling. In the budget a Liberal reform of immense importance has indeed been passed in spite of the harassing opposition of the landed interest in the House of Commons. But that was possible only because the Lords cannot touch a money bill; and the Irish Evicted Tenants Bill, which a majority of the House of Commons deemed necessary for the peace of Ireland, was, in spite of the warnings of some of the wisest of the Unionist party, ignominiously rejected by the House of Lords.

It may be asked why the divergence between the two houses, entailing practically a deadlock against Liberal legislation, should have only now appeared intolerable, and whether the present situation is not merely temporary. The answer is that the estrangement between the House of Lords and the Liberal party has been gradual, and arises from the change in the composition of the House of Commons.

Prior to the Reform Act of 1832, the two houses roughly represented the same class, and a large proportion of the lower house was nominated for close boroughs by members of the upper house. That act enfranchised the middle classes, and legislation proceeded mainly in their interest. With the more wealthy and influential among the middle classes, the House of Lords, where railway, brewing, and other capitalist interests are strongly represented, had still much in common. The Reform Act of 1867 extended the franchise in boroughs. But it is only since the Reform Act of 1884, which finally placed political power in the hands of the majority of the whole nation, that the political attitude of the people at large has become irreconcilable with the views of the unrepresentative house. New views, new interests, new tendencies have emerged, with which the Lords have nothing in common. No doubt Mr. Gladstone's Irish policy, culminating in the Home-Rule Bill, which Liberals have always contended is only an example of a just policy on democratic principles, has been the chief immediate cause of the conversion of the House of Lords into a solid Tory committee.

The new departure had therefore become inevitable, and, so far as appears, it is not only approved of but demanded by the party throughout the country. It is obvious, however, that there are difficulties to encounter, mainly of two kinds—the first, jealousy of rival competitors for a first place in the programme for their own particular objects (among these the Irish Nationalist allies of the Liberals, on whom they depend for their majority, are naturally the most important); the second, the difficulty of formulating the precise change in the Constitution which will command the assent of all concerned.

The majority of the Irish Nationalists, nicknamed the Anti-Parnellites, are, it is believed, prepared to support Lord Rosebery's policy. Mr. John Redmond and his followers have declared against it, and press for a dissolution on the question of home rule. His attitude is represented in a caricature in the Conservative *Pall Mall Gazette*, in which Mr. Redmond holds out a sheet containing the resolution against the House of Lords, and exclaims, "Where do *I* come in?" In both cases the decision will be taken on purely Irish grounds. There has been no fusion between the Liberal and the Nationalist parties, though there has been a loyal alliance, and individual relations of mutual cordiality and respect have no doubt multiplied. But with the Nationalists Ireland is first—Liberal aims, British aims, not second, but nowhere. If the larger party of the Nationalists adhere to the line which it is expected they will follow, they will make a large, perhaps a difficult, sacrifice of sentiment, though none of interest. They will follow their real interests. Mr. Gladstone's often quoted phrase, "Ireland blocks the way," may be said to have placed home rule at the top of the Liberal programme. It is something to consent that it should take in point of time a second place, and yield to a question which involves concentrated effort, patience, perhaps time. But the Irish leaders, always able, have advanced in statesmanship as they have gained in experience, hope, responsibility, and the estimation of their British colleagues.

Ireland has blocked the way for a long time and made the House of Commons a less pleasant place than it once was. But already it has been necessary to find a passage round the obstacle. British reforms would not be delayed for ever. Home rule for Ireland has been indelibly and finally written on the Liberal programme. It is astonishing how much enthusiasm it has evoked, considering the indirect interest which it has for the British electors. Six years of opposition, unexampled labor in Parliament, have not been spared. But there are British questions loudly crying for recognition, whose special friends claim for them not the second or the third, but each the first place—temperance, disestablishment, labor, many more. It is not possible again to put Irish home rule before the country as a single issue. As Lord Salisbury said in substance at Edinburgh, no government can prescribe the single issue at a general election, unless the electors themselves choose to concentrate their wishes on a single issue. In the case of home rule that cannot be done. The attempt to force it would be disastrous to home rule for a generation. It is impossible that the British elector should fix his mind on home rule alone, to the exclusion of those objects nearer to himself which have been crowded out during the past eight years.

There ought to be no self-deception on this point. The enthusiasm for justice to Ireland which Mr. Gladstone excited in a large portion of the nation, and which still burns, is almost a miracle, considering how unselfish, at least on a superficial view, its object is. No less wonderful is the utter failure on the other side to excite among the masses any strong prejudice against it. It might easily have arisen. The failure to excite it has always, as it appeared to me, foredoomed the opposition to home rule to eventual failure. The weight of this fact is recognized by an able Unionist journalist, Mr. Edward Dicey, in the *Nineteenth Century*. He is driven to look for a remedy in a redistribution of seats. But without an improvement in our constitutional machinery which will make both home rule and other Liberal reforms possible, the effort for Ireland as the sole and single object of consideration can no further go.

I do not dwell on other reasons which would make the prosecution of home rule as a single object untimely, such as the dissensions among Irish politicians, the damping effect of which, though much greater than is just, it would be difficult to exaggerate; and the demand, not discouraged by Gladstone himself, for adopting some plan and principle which will bring the claims of Scotland, and perhaps Wales, into line. Meanwhile, the determination of the Liberals with regard to home rule is unshaken. But they say, if we want it, we must deal with the House of Lords first.

The other main difficulty is to formulate a plan. There are second-chamber men and single-chamber men. The Prime Minister is a second chamber man. If I am not mistaken, some other members of the Cabinet have declared themselves in favor of a single chamber. Not that there is the slightest risk of dissension in the Cabinet on that question. When a speaker on a platform refers to mending or ending the House of Lords, the loudest voices are all for ending. In the mind of the average Radical the House of Lords is associated with the hereditary principle, which he condemns, and with the constant action of the house during his lifetime, which he resents. Therefore he says, Cut it down; why cumbereth it the ground? On the other hand, there is a large body of genuine Liberal opinion which is not prepared to dispense with a second chamber, at all events not yet. That is the view of men who think that there ought to be some check, be it only temporary, on a possibly rash decision of the House of Commons, and who would not be inclined to seek such a check in any complete novelty in the Constitution, such as the referendum, the working of which it would be difficult to predict. It is most unlikely that a single-chamber scheme will be proposed by the Government after the declarations of the Prime Minister. If it were proposed, I do not believe it could be carried in the present House of Commons.

Assuming that there is to be a second chamber, how is it to be constructed? It may be taken for granted that the hereditary right to legislate must go. No reform stopping short of that would have any chance of acceptance, far less any power to rouse and interest the country. How, then, is the new chamber to be composed? That is in all ways an extremely difficult question. It is not desired to make a rival representative house—the remedy would be worse than the disease; yet any possible reconstitution of the chamber would give it more moral authority than the present house possesses. The advocates of a single chamber among well instructed politicians are disposed to say that the problem is insoluble. At all events, a solution can be found only in some limitation of the powers of the second chamber. There are not many ways in which that could be attempted. It would be extremely difficult to carry out a suggestion which has been made, that certain classes of bills should, as money bills now are, be excluded from the competence of the second chamber. A clear line can be drawn at money bills, but where else could you draw the line? Again, if a certain majority, say three-fourths, were required to make the decision of the Commons prevail, it would greatly strengthen the relative position of the second chamber, both because the majority might rarely be obtained, and because, if it were not, the second chamber would be clearly within the letter and spirit of the Constitution in rejecting any bill. There remain the plans of a final decision being taken by both chambers voting together—a plan which has not been much discussed, and which raises the question of the number of the second chamber; and the better known plan of a time limit on the veto of the upper house—a plan which presents quite different results and raises different objections according as the time proposed is long or short, three months, three years, one year, or till the end of the Parliament, but which in any form would make the Commons the predominant partner, with the constitutional right of even abolishing the second chamber, and yet might be so framed as to leave the latter a good deal of real power.

On all these points there will be, even among Liberals, a great diversity of opinion. The Government, when they have agreed upon their own plans, have the task before them of getting the country to follow them, and the first practical question is, when they propose their resolution, probably in quite general terms, how much of their detailed plan they are to disclose before they appeal to the country. Of course, the essence of the difference between proceeding by resolution and by a bill is that a resolution is purposely general. It assumes that the stage of submitting details which may be picked to pieces has not been reached. There is little doubt that, in the interests of the Government and of the success of their new policy, it is desirable that the issue should be kept as general as possible. If the country accepts the call to battle with the House of Lords, it will rally without much difficulty to the particular scheme when it is developed. The issue in itself is sufficiently broad

and clear. I should expect the Government to take the same view.

There are, however, among leading Liberals some who think that the Government will have to go a considerable length in disclosing their plan when they propose their resolution. Anxious inquirers among the most loyal of their own followers will press for information. Some few voices may be heard from the Liberal benches, which have not been too friendly to Lord Rosebery's leadership and may not be sorry to embarrass his Government. As, in the first session of the present Parliament, assault after assault was led by Mr. Chamberlain when the House had hardly assembled, calling on the Government to explain this or disclose that before any business could be proceeded with, the same tactics may be expected, this time with even more cordial coöperation from the Conservative leaders. There will be the two-fold object of leading the Government into thorny and disputable details, among which the scheme might perish before it was born, and of wrecking the ensuing session, during which, in the absence of any unusual disturbing element, the Government may hope to pass some useful bills, doing something to complete their programme and strengthen their position before the election. C. D.

## THE ANGLO-JAPANESE TREATY.

TOKYO, October 29, 1894.

THE whole controversy concerning treaty revision has turned mainly upon two or three points. First and foremost is the question of foreign jurisdiction or extra-territoriality. According to the treaties still in force, all foreigners, it need hardly be explained, are under the jurisdiction of their own courts. If an Englishman, for instance, be guilty of breaking the laws in Japan, he is tried, not by the tribunals of Japan, but in the courts and according to the laws of his own nation. By the revised treaty with England the present system is to remain in force for five years from the signing of the treaty, at the end of which time, provided the Japanese Government gives a year's notice in advance, Japan may abolish foreign jurisdiction and secure complete autonomy over the entire country, so far as Englishmen are concerned. This provision was undoubtedly inserted to give to the Japanese cabinet power to carry all the codes into operation against the opposition of a portion of the Representatives. Had England demanded the introduction of all the codes before granting full jurisdiction to Japan, the treaty would have provoked much irritation in the Parliament. As it is, the whole burden of abolishing foreign jurisdiction rests with the Japanese Government, which can thus urge the Parliament to introduce the remaining codes without giving offence on the score of foreign pressure.

Of hardly less importance as a source of irritation to Japan in the old treaties have been the limitations imposed on her tariff. Like the provision with regard to foreign jurisdiction, the limitations were once a necessity. When Japan was first thrown open to trade, Western governments saw that she could easily evade all the obligations with regard to commerce by imposing prohibitive import and export duties. Consequently, a clause was inserted in the treaties limiting the amount of duty on imports and exports to 5 per cent. But by degrees Japan felt the advantages of commercial intercourse with foreigners, and for the last twenty years she has been an eager competitor in the world's markets. For many years, therefore, there has been not the slightest ground for the fear that she would use her tariff for restricting trade. Such a policy would be simply suicidal, as foreign nations, from the very nature of Japanese exports and imports, could inflict a much deadlier blow upon Japan than she could inflict upon them. On at least one occasion in the past she has had the opportunity of revising the tariff clauses of the treaties, so far as to raise the rate of duty to 15 per cent., but she has always refused to consider the revision of this clause apart from the revision of the entire treaty, and perhaps wisely so. Moreover, though a protectionist party exists in Japan, mainly as the expression of chauvinism, public opinion has not opposed the tariff restrictions on the ground that they were economically unfair so much as that they robbed Japan of her sovereign rights. The very nations which had forced these treaties upon Japan in her hour of helplessness altered their tariff rates at will; but they refused to recognize Japan's right to do the same thing.

The new treaty with England does not at once restore tariff autonomy to Japan. The tariff is divided into two parts, one conventional, the other statutory. In the conventional tariff, between thirty-five and forty articles are enumerated of great importance to the trade of England, such as iron, cottons, and woollens, on which ad-valorem rates are to be charged varying from 5 per cent. to 15 per cent., the average being about 7 per cent. These are to be converted into specific duties by a supplementary convention, the basis of calculation being the range of prices in the Japanese customs during the six months previous to the signing of the treaty. In levying the duties the value of the goods is to be increased by the cost of freight, insurance, and commissions. All the articles not enumerated are to come under the statutory tariff, and the rates are to be determined by the Parliament. It is likely, however, that the present 5 per cent. rate will remain in force for many years to come in this division of the tariff.

The revised treaty permits the new tariff to go into effect one month after the signing of the treaty. But as the favored-nation clause is invoked, the treaties with other nations must be revised before the old 5 per cent. rate can be abolished. At the end of seventeen years, Japan is to recover complete autonomy with respect to her tariff, and, should she secure equally good terms in her treaties with other countries, Japan will at the end of this period stand on a footing of absolute equality with other nations.

It is hardly necessary to add that in other respects Japan makes all the ordinary guarantees of mutual good faith to England. Inviolability of private residence is specifically affirmed. "Leases in perpetuity, under which property is now held in the Settlements, shall be confirmed." She guarantees complete liberty of conscience, the right of public or private exercise of worship, the right of burial according to any religious customs, equality of taxation, exemption from military service, and other guarantees not necessary to mention. In matters of trade, freedom is complete with two exceptions. The first of these is the coasting trade. Japan reserves this trade to her own vessels, and makes it subject to the law of the land. The other exception refers to the ownership of land. According to the treaty, no Englishman can purchase land in Japan, though he may hold land on lease subject to the same conditions as Japanese citizens. The civil code, which has not yet been put into operation, will determine the length of time for which leases may be granted. It will probably be at least thirty years for ordinary land, and therefore the limitation as to the ownership of this form of property will not be a serious drawback to any one.

It may be selfishly asked what immediate advantage Englishmen will derive from the new treaty, or whether they were not in a better position under the old treaty. In one sense Japan had but little to give in exchange for her demands, but what little there was she has given freely. The most important benefit she has conferred is the abolition of the present passport system. Hitherto the Japanese Government has granted passports outside of treaty limits only to certain districts or prefectures at a time. Travellers who applied through their respective legations were given passports for the space of six months to such districts as they might wish to see; and whenever they wished to visit places not included in the passport, fresh application had to be made. Foreigners in Japanese employ, however, found it very difficult to obtain passports except for very short periods or during their vacations. The necessity for applying for passports was in many cases a bar to making an excursion outside of treaty limits. Under the new treaty all these conditions have been swept aside, and passports will be granted to all applicants, whether travellers or foreign employees, for the space of one year, without any limitation as to territory. Furthermore, after five years, if the treaties are carried into effect, the whole passport system will be abolished, and the citizens of all nations who make new treaties with Japan will have full liberty to travel and live in any part of the country. The Japanese Government has generously extended the provisions of the English treaty so far as they relate to passports to the citizens of other countries, from the 20th of the present month, and henceforth all foreigners will be liberated from the petty restrictions of the old passport system.

Hardly less interesting than the provisions of the revised treaty is the manner in which it has been received by the English residents of the East. From what is generally known of the character of society in the open ports, it is not surprising to learn that the new treaty has been greeted with a storm of opposition and abuse. "Sold to the Orientals by the home Government" expresses the general opinion of Englishmen, and the newspapers with but few exceptions echo these sentiments with monotonous uniformity. Nevertheless it may be well to consider one or two of the formulated objections to the new treaty. The strongest of these relates to the organization of justice in Japan. Japan, say these critics, has emerged too lately from the old feudal state to understand the impartial administration of law in the western sense of the term. She needs a long period of probation before she can be sure that her judges are not influenced by personal prepossessions or anti-foreign prejudices. Particularly in critical cases which are likely to arise when popular feeling runs high, foreigners will find it impossible to secure such justice as they have been accustomed to in their own country. The answer to this is, that Japan has been organizing her law courts for over twenty years on European models. Not only has she sent men to Europe and America to study law, but she has had foreigners of ability to teach law in her universities. Japan has an elaborate system of courts of justice, to which foreigners already appeal whenever they bring

an action against Japanese. Thus far there has been no sign of unfairness shown by her judges to foreigners. It is true that judges have not the same honor and dignity in Japan that they have in England, but then we must remember the extraordinary respect accorded to the bench in England. Mr. Bryce notices this peculiarity in his 'American Commonwealth': "The British judge is as abnormal as the British Constitution. . . . In most parts of the Continent the judge, even of the superior courts, does not hold a very high social position. In no part of Europe do his wishes and opinions carry the same weight or does he command the same deference as in England." Bearing this in mind, the English residents in the open ports cannot complain if the Japanese have followed the Continental rather than the English rule in the organization of the bench.

It is only when a Japanese brings an action against a foreigner that the case is tried before a foreign judge in the consular court. Why a Japanese judge should be less inclined to render impartial justice in this case than when a Japanese is the defendant, I have never been able to discover. But if, either through judicial incompetency or prejudice, a foreigner finds it impossible to secure justice, diplomatic negotiations might bring Japan to terms. Certainly one flagrant case of this kind would injure the reputation of Japan to such an extent that she would lose a thousand times more than she could possibly gain. No country in the world is probably more sensitive to her reputation for honor, or more anxious to secure the good opinion of western nations in this respect, than Japan. These very critics, when confronted with the question whether they would more willingly submit, say, to Russian administration of justice, have no better answer than that they are not living in Russia. Lastly, it may be remarked that the office of the impartial judge was by no means wholly unknown in old Japan. Though loyalty was the highest of all the virtues, justice had no unworthy place in her category of honor.

Some of the other objections to the administration of law hardly deserve mention. One of the most persistent relates to the rights of women. Says the Japan *Gazette* (of Yokohama): "Women are mere chattels. . . . They may be divorced for ill-temper, talkativeness, and other cardinal crimes." Perhaps no sentence could be penned that would give a more erroneous impression of the status or rights of women in Japan than this. In the first place, no woman in Japan can be divorced against her will without having recourse to the law. Some of the newspapers of Yokohama write as though the only bond uniting an English husband and wife was the force of English law. They seem to fear a general application for divorce if only the marriage laws be relaxed. It is true that until recently there was little law in Japan regulating either marriage or divorce. The whole institution was under the influence of certain customs which we know may be even more binding than law itself. But, except in the poorest classes, divorce is probably as rare in Japan as in the United States. The most tragic act in the celebrated play of the "Forty-seven Ronins" is the well-known divorce scene where the leader of the band gives a letter of divorce to his wife in order to disarm the suspicion of those who are sent to watch him. I have seen a whole theatre in tears when the final separation takes place. It is this kind of brutal, ignorant criticism of their institutions, of which the quotation from the *Gazette* is an example, that stirs up the Japanese to a sense of the essential unfairness of foreign opinion.

Of all the criticisms of the revised treaties with England, there is but one to which, so far as I am aware, any weight can be attached, and this has reference to the treatment of criminals and prisoners. As soon as Japan acquires full jurisdiction in the foreign settlements, a foreigner charged with the commission of a crime or misdemeanor will no longer be lodged in the consular jail, but in a Japanese prison. It is well known that Japan has been for a long time engaged in perfecting her prison system, and even the harshest critics acknowledge the excellence of it. But the mode of life to which the Japanese are accustomed—their food, clothing, and sleeping arrangements—is so essentially different from our own that it is well-nigh impossible for us to adapt ourselves completely to it. It is no answer to say that Japanese criminals are not in Europe or America treated according to their own customs. The Japanese quickly acquire our habits in these respects, and in fact prefer them to their own. It would have been only fair had England, in revising the treaty, stipulated for some conditions as to special treatment of her subjects in Japanese prisons. Doubtless the omission was an oversight, and can be easily remedied, for Japan has certainly proved to be one of the foremost countries of the world in applying the most humane standards of the West to all sorts and conditions of men. G. D.

# Correspondence.

## THE UNSTABLE VOTE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There seems to be a disposition, on the part of the Independent press, to rejoice at the spirit displayed in the recent election; but independence of party ties appears to me of slight value to the cause of good government if such independence be unreasoning. Independence is helpful only when it springs from a growing intelligence and a capacity to discriminate.

That a party representing a certain policy—a party the larger number of whose best men are conscientious believers in and strongly committed to that policy—should be decisively routed because a handful of Senators proved recreant to their trust, would seem to show a strange lack of discrimination on the part of the people who only two years previously were clamoring for that the very name of which, we are asked to believe, now fills them with a senseless dread. An intelligent foreign observer of our affairs might well be amazed at the vacillating tendency of our people, so prone to changes and so fearful of the consequences of their own deliberate actions; and he might well wonder how our best men could ever be forced to accept nominations dependent on the suffrages of a people so unstable in their beliefs.

I have no desire to pose as the apologist for the dominant party in the present Congress. I realize that its faults were many and serious, its errors grave and damaging; but considering and appreciating all the errors of that Congress, a fair-minded, intelligent, and independent observer may well admit that its record for good far surpassed that of its Republican predecessor. Yet the Democratic was far worse than the Republican defeat!

Does this show an intelligent discrimination in which we as Independents may feel a just pride? May we glory in an independence which defeated Mr. Wilson because he dined with the Board of Trade in London, and elected—Quigg? Even the mangled Hill, prostrate "outside the breastworks," finds that he is in such good company that he may well be excused for attributing his downfall to a decree of inscrutable fate rather than to the seasoned convictions of a discriminating public.

Let us not exult too rashly, nor claim too much from a spirit which in its blind rage spares neither the innocent nor the guilty. There is an element of danger in political upheavals which are unreasoning. Let us not forget that until the average voter has reached an intelligent comprehension of such questions as are brought before him, a conclusion based upon his vote on these questions must be a delusion and a snare. C. A. W.

Baltimore, November 24, 1894.

## A SUCCESSFUL ARCTIC EXPEDITION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Since the return of Lieut. Peary from his successful Greenland expedition, several projects for explorations in the far north have been suggested, some of which have reached the dignity of serious undertakings, well planned and thoroughly equipped, which have been watched with unusual interest, and have commanded unusual attention from the press.

All of these enterprises have been entered into with confidence by their projectors, but most of them have returned with tales of disaster, or at least insuperable difficulties. Only one, so far as the writer knows, has come back triumphant, and that one is unknown to the general public. It went forth with no advertisements from the press, with an equipment that did not impose the necessity of paying baggage-excess charges, with funds that would by many be considered meagre for an individual's summer's outing, and it consisted of a single, unassuming young man, with his personal baggage. This expedition has been in the field for two years and a half, has penetrated the wilderness lying between the Saskatchewan River and the Arctic Sea, has accomplished all and more than it had in view at the start, and has returned, after almost circumnavigating Alaska, to its starting-point, the State University of Iowa, under whose auspices Mr. Frank Russell has carried through a really and completely successful arctic exploration.

After his graduation in 1892, Mr. Russell volunteered to undertake, for the benefit of his alma mater, zoölogical explorations involving extraordinary hardship, and even peril, with funds necessarily so meagre as to seem ridiculous. His mission was to collect a series of the animals of the far north and study their habits, to live among the most remote and degraded tribes of Indians and Esquimaux, to report on their daily life, folk-lore, and superstitions, collecting as much ethnological material as could be secured, and to do all this *alone*, except at the posts of the Hudson's Bay Company, which powerful organization agreed to encourage and assist Mr. Russell by every means in its power—an agreement most faithfully adhered to throughout.

The winter of 1892-3 was passed on the northwest shore of Lake Winnipeg, where the young explorer went into training for the dangerous work of the next year. Here he mastered the art of driving dog-teams and all that pertains to their care and management, prac-

tised daily the accomplishment of running on snow-shoes, and became inured to camp life in severely cold weather. Here also he was initiated into the wood-craft and "snow-craft" of the Indians, moose-hunting, trapping, trailing and snaring, until he was able to run all day with the best of them and make himself comfortable while camping out alone at night. That scientific work was not neglected is attested by voluminous notes and extensive ethnological and zoölogical collections.

In February, 1893, Mr. Russell demonstrated the effectiveness of his winter's training by running behind his loaded sled the whole length of Lake Winnipeg, nearly three hundred miles, in ten days, experiencing some of the severest cold met with during his entire trip, but reaching Winnipeg without mishap.

The following spring and early summer were passed in making collections at Fort McLeod, near the foothills of the Rocky Mountains, and on Lake Athabasca, where he camped out alone for a month. Still going northward, he reached and crossed the Great Slave Lake, arriving at Fort Rae, a frontier Hudson's Bay post on the northern arm of the lake, early in July. This was his base of operations for ten months, during which time he travelled nearly twenty-two hundred miles on snow shoes, besides other hundreds in his canoe, exploring the region around the lake for several hundred miles in almost every direction. He went up the Yellow-Knife River on what might be called a zoological reconnaissance, and travelled five hundred miles to the north and east after the Barren Ground caribou, of which he secured an abundant series. In midwinter he made a long circuit in another fruitless hunt after wood buffalo, going far to the south and west of the lake. His life was an unending round of hardship and exposure such as few men could endure. Once he lived for a week on short rations, and then was storm-bound for four days more with nothing to eat. Most of the time he hunted in company with the Dog Rib Indians (a tribe noted as most degraded and untrustworthy), living their life and doing his own work throughout.

The main object of the whole expedition was to secure, if possible, a series of that most inaccessible of American mammals, the musk-ox. These were reported to be on the Barren Ground some four hundred miles northeast of Fort Rae and two hundred miles from timber. The difficulties and dangers of such a trip are enough to appal the bravest, but the one that appeared the most serious was the unexpected opposition of the Indians, who would not allow Russell to accompany them to the Barren Ground, because they were firmly convinced that if an *entire* musk-ox skin were taken to the far south country, *all the other musk-ox would follow*, and the Barren Ground would be barren indeed. No present good could tempt the Dog Ribs to mortgage their future, and they departed without the sorely disheartened young naturalist.

Russell did not give up, however, but adopted a novel, although dangerous, expedient. As is usually the case, the Indians used up their somewhat scanty supply of ammunition in killing caribou before leaving the timber, and sent a messenger back for more. When this worthy arrived at the fort, Mr. Russell pounced upon him and announced that they would return together to the Barren Ground, *nolens volens* so far as the Indian was concerned, who was, however, to be paid for his involuntary service. This rather summary business arrangement was consummated; the plucky explorer driving his own dogs and doing his own work, the Indian assisting in the one item of disposing of the food.

They joined the other Dog Ribs at the edge of the timber, two hundred miles from the Fort, and started for the "Musk-ox Hills," two hundred miles out on the desolate and treeless Barren Ground, not far from Bathurst Inlet. Reaching the "Hills," which proved to be mountains several thousand feet high, the party divided into two bands, and succeeded in killing about one hundred musk-ox, which were found in small herds, rounded up by the dogs, and ruthlessly slaughtered, Mr. Russell killing four that broke away at full speed, besides several others. He skinned five of the largest, and with great difficulty packed the skins, skulls, and horns on his own sled. After twenty-two days spent on the Barren Ground with no fuel but that which they carried from the timber, the party again entered the woods. Fort Rae was reached after an absence of two months, Mr. Russell having travelled about eight hundred miles on snow-shoes, being compelled to push on the sled during a great portion of the time to assist his exhausted dogs in transporting the heaviest load ever taken from the Barren Grounds. Few, if any, pluckier undertakings have been carried to a successful issue by explorers in the arctic regions.

Last spring the journey northward was resumed, the traveller proceeding by dog-sledge to the Mackenzie River. A considerable portion of the trip down that river was made alone in his canoe. At Peel River Mr. Russell joined the French explorer Count de Sainville, in whose company the rest of the journey was made, our young friend still paddling his own canoe to the mouth of the Mackenzie, one hundred and sixty miles distant, and then one hundred miles through the ice-floes of the Arctic Sea to Herschel Island, a feat probably never before attempted in a one-man canoe.

Two months were spent at Herschel Island and the adjacent mainland in securing zoölogical, botanical, and ethnological collections characteristic of the arctic coast, and then passage was secured on the American steam whaler *Jeannette*, Capt. Newth. The remainder of the whaling season was passed on board, the *Jeannette* going north of Wrangel Land, and then touching at two points on the Siberian coast, where Mr. Russell secured important additions to his collection, notably a gigantic polar bear killed the preceding winter by the natives, and a large and unusually valuable collection of ivory carvings and other ethnological material. The *Jeannette* then turned homeward, and, after a very rough voyage, entered the Golden Gate October 27. Mr. Russell reached Iowa City about a week later, and was received by his alma mater in a manner worthy of his unique achievement and splendid services in the cause of science.

C. C. Nutting.

## FOREVER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of November 1st I met with the following phrase, which has given me much concern: "Vanessa's death will for ever lie at his door."

I am not concerned about Swift and his flirtations, but for a much more serious matter. I write a great deal; my contributions are occasionally accepted by newspapers. In matters of style and the nice use of language I always look to the *Nation* for guidance. Have I been wrong in writing "forever" as one word? I am aware that the crasis is a comparatively recent innovation, but I thought it was well established. The learned Calverley asserts as much in a poem full of feeling, which I will venture to copy:

Forever! 'Tis a single word!
Our rude forefathers deemed it two:
Can you imagine so absurd
A view?

Forever! What abysms of woe
The word reveals! What frenzy, what
Despair! "For ever" (printed so)
Did not.

It looks—ah me!—how trite and tame!
It fails to sadden, or appal,
Or solace—it is not the same
At all.

O thou to whom it first occurred
To solder the disjoined and dower
Thy native language with a word
Of power,

We bless thee! Whether far or near
Thy dwelling, whether dark or fair
Thy kingly brow, is neither here
Nor there.

But in men's hearts shall be thy throne
While the great pulse of England beats,
Thou coiner of a word unknown
To Keats.

And nevermore must printer do
As men did long ago; but run
"For" into "ever," bidding two
Be one.

Forever! passion-fraught, it throws
O'er the dim page a gloom, a glamour:
It's sweet, it's strange; and I suppose
It's grammar.

Your very obedient servant,

Papyrius Cursor.

## AMERICAN ENGLISH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There seems to be at present a revival of interest in the subject of American English, and it may, therefore, not be inappropriate if I call the attention of your readers to a circular I have issued in reference to the subject. The object of the circular is to get as many answers as possible to a set of questions designed to bring out such facts as will enable me to outline—however vaguely—a dialect map of this country.

It is evident that scientific detail work cannot progress to advantage until we have more definite ideas than we now possess as to the geographical distribution of speech usage. The first work in this direction must be done, for the most part, through the mails, and therefore the questions are directed towards points of divergence in vocabulary rather than in pronunciation. The more delicate test of phonology must, in large measure, be reserved for personal investigation.

The circular was reprinted in the *Dial* for May 5, in *Modern Language Notes* for May, and, in its most recent form, in *Dialect Notes*, Part viii. Copies will be sent—in such numbers as may be desired—to any one forwarding his address to me. Between five hundred and six hundred sets of answers have been received, but I prefer not to begin classification until there are at least a thousand. Replies come in but scantily from the South and from Canada, and I am therefore most anxious for more from those sections; but all replies are very welcome.

George Hempl.

95 E. University Ave.,
Ann Arbor, Mich., November 21, 1894.

# Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have in preparation a 'History of the Fifth Army Corps,' by Lieut.-Col. Wm. H. Powell, U. S. A., and will begin publication on receipt of a sufficient number of orders.

Duprat & Co., No. 349 Fifth Avenue, solicit

orders for a work on 'The Library of Robert Hoe, Esq.,' by O. A. Bierstadt. The description of the features of this valuable collection, numbering some 15,000 volumes, including illuminated MSS., will be accompanied with 100 illustrations, nearly half of which will be artotypes.

Prof. H. Carrington Bolton of New York and Reginald Bolton of London invite subscriptions to a new and much amplified edition, with illustrations, of 'The Family of Bolton in England and America, 1100–1894.' It will form an octavo volume of some 600 pages. Prof. Bolton's address is University Club.

Macmillan & Co. will undertake a complete American edition of Björnson's works. For Mrs. Steel's 'Tales of the Punjab' they have secured the clever pencil of the senior Kipling.

Silver, Burdett & Co. issue immediately 'American Writers of To-day,' by Henry C. Vedder.

Two illustrated missionary works are announced by Fleming H. Revell Co., viz.: 'Joseph Hardy Neesima,' founder of the first Christian institution of learning in Japan (Doshisha University), by the Rev. J. D. Davis, one of the professors there; and 'The Neglected Continent,' an account of the mission tour of the Rev. G. C. Grubb through South America, by Lucy E. Guinness and E. C. Millard.

A financial novel, '6,000 Tons of Gold,' by H. R. Chamberlain, will be reprinted in this country by Flood & Vincent, Meadville, Pa.

The exercises held at Knox College, Galesburg, Ill., on November 3 in honor of the 100th anniversary of the birth of William Cullen Bryant, will be reported in a volume sold only by subscription in a limited edition. Each copy will be numbered and signed by the poet's brother, John Howard Bryant. The publisher is Earnest Elmo Calkins, at Galesburg.

A New York firm having announced an edition of the 'Autocrat of the Breakfast-Table,' legal proceedings in restraint have been entered upon by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Prof. Archibald MacMechan of Dalhousie College, Halifax, has edited 'Sartor Resartus' for Ginn & Co., Boston, with copious citations in the notes from Carlyle himself by way of commentary.

A. Constable & Co., London, have in press 'The Travels of the Tsesarevitch in the East,' with 500 wood-engravings and photogravures from the sketches made by the artist who accompanied the suite. Vol. i. will appear in January. They will also publish 'Songs of the Soil,' by Frank Stanton.

There is a protest in the very name of "The Duodecimos" (a new book-club), which will waken an echo in the breasts of thousands who love a handy book. The membership, to correspond to the size of the projected publications, is also of twelve, widely scattered; and the limit of the edition a gross. The president is Francis Wilson, the treasurer Francis M. Larned, and the secretary W. Irving Way, Monadnock Building, Chicago. The club's first book is a facsimile of the first issue of 'Poor Richard's Almanac,' from a unique copy, and they have printed it at the De Vinne Press on genuine eighteenth-century paper (spoils of old ledgers), on a hand-press made in Philadelphia probably before 1800. The fore part of the work is antithetically up to date, with expressly new type and fresh hand-made paper. Mr. John Bigelow furnishes an agreeable historico-bibliographical introduction. More still: fourteen Franklin portraits, genuine and apocryphal, carefully distinguished, are interspersed with the letterpress. Better taste and judgment we have never known in the first venture of such clubs. The public is admitted to compete for the 132 paper copies at $10 each. The Duodecimos themselves are content with vellum.

With the aid of a well-known amateur photographer, Dr. Charles L. Mitchell of Philadelphia, Porter & Coates have brought out a very attractive edition of Miss Zimmern's translation of De Amicis's 'Holland' in two volumes, prettily bound in blue with the stamp of the Dutch tulip. The views number forty-four, and are, if not always pertinent to the page they face (though this often enough happens), always locally in the right place. The total effect is very pleasing, and a good map crowns all; but the work deserved still greater pains in the supplying of an index.

Of pocket Shaksperes there is no end. The latest to reach us is the Lansdowne Edition of Frederick Warne & Co., in six volumes, in a box. There is a brief memoir of the poet and a brief glossary; the rest is text pure and simple, which the editor of the Chandos Classics has constructed. The thin paper is not too thin, and the print is good.

The aim of Mr. Clifton Johnson, in his attractive book 'The Farmer's Boy' (D. Appleton & Co.), has been to describe by word and picture the various occupations of a boy in his early teens on a New England farm. Beginning with winter, he shows him at work doing the chores, weeding the garden, raking hay, picking apples, skating, fishing, swimming, and nutting. There are many homely and natural touches, evidently drawn from the author's own experiences, and revealing an intimate knowledge of and sympathy with boys. The many hardships of life on a farm, its constant and wearisome toil, are not concealed nor regretted. The pictures, which are reproductions of photographs of actual scenes, are chosen with great taste, and some are very beautiful, as "Some Fun in a Boat" (p. 44), and the haying scene (p. 71). There are twelve full-page illustrations and fifty-two in the text. Though it is not a story, few boys or their elders can fail to enjoy this charming book.

It is not apparent why a New York publisher (Francis P. Harper) should care to republish Jesse's 'Memoirs of King Richard the Third, with an Historical Drama on the Battle of Bosworth,' in two volumes. One can only suppose that there is some demand among people of means for well-printed editions of gossipy books professing to be histories. Jesse's book was written three and thirty years ago, and was unscholarly even for that time; and most people who know anything about the period will turn rather to Mr. Gairdner's works. But most people know nothing, and only want to be kept awake after dinner; and these "Memoirs" may be recommended as not too severe for their purpose.

The University Press at Cambridge, Mass., has issued Messrs. Rand and Redfield's 'Flora of Mount Desert Island, Maine.' The catalogue of plants observed is very carefully made out, and definite localities are given for all but the commonest species. A good map of Mt. Desert and the little islands about it accompanies the work, and, besides a preface and a statement of the authors' plan, there is an introduction in which the flora of the region is generally considered, and the Rochester code of nomenclature discussed, and good reasons given for condemning it. Accordingly, the names of flowering plants are those found in Gray's 'Manual,' and the names of mosses mainly those given by Lesquereux and James. An outline of the local geology, by William Morris Davis, occupying some twenty-nine pages, is of especial interest. When the authors began to study the Mt. Desert flora, they found very few foreign plants; but now, it seems, the usual weeds of civilization are establishing themselves on the island, and purslane and peppergrass, wild carrot, tansy, and oxeye daisy have come to stay. The genus of milkweeds is unknown, and so are the gentians; trailing arbutus and *Arethusa* still linger in a few places; but the foreigners will surely expel them in time, just as the French and the Anglo-Americans have replaced, or nearly replaced, the Pasamaquoddy and the Penobscot Indians.

The third volume of Hooker and Jackson's 'Index Kewensis' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) begins with K, and stops in the middle of the genus *Psidium*, the last species indexed being *Psidium galapagœum*, leaving the delicious Guava (*Psidium Guajava*) to come near the top of the first page of the last volume. The genera most numerous in admitted species are *Panicum*, with 746 species, and *Piper*, with 725. Next to these come *Mamillaria*, with 413, and *Loranthus*, with 402. These figures considerably exceed the estimates of Bentham and Hooker in the 'Genera Plantarum,' where of *Panicum* it was stated that "the species preserved in our herbaria are probably between 250 and 280, but thrice as many are enumerated by various authors." Of *Piper* the same authorities said the species were "beyond 600." But it should be noticed that the plan of the present work is to include a great many references to names of plants which, if carefully studied, would in many cases be reduced to other acknowledged species. A noteworthy practice in this index is that the authors have refrained from multiplying synonyms by giving new specific names in cases where different botanists have employed the same name for distinct plants. Thus *Panicum aquaticum* of Poir, from Porto Rico, and *Panicum aquaticum* of A. Richard, from Abyssinia, are both listed in Roman letters; and similarly there are two admissions of *Panicum clandestinum*, *P. conglomeratum*, *P. discolor*, *P. emergens*, *P. leiophyllum*, and so in many other instances. This is as it should be in an index; though it would have been very easy for Messrs. Hooker and Jackson to pose as authors of new names by hundreds if not by thousands, if they had been willing to propose a new specific name for the second one of each of these pairs. Would that this moderation were generally imitated.

The very varied contents of the *Annales de Géographie* for October include a paper on the relations of geography to meteorology, by Prof. Duclaux, an account of the irrigation of the arid lands of the United States, and an interesting statement in regard to the two projected railways through the Pyrenees. The western of these is to go from Oloron in France by way of the Col du Somport to Jaca in Spain. This will require a tunnel a little over five miles in length at a height of 3,300 feet. Nothing appears to have been done as yet, except that the Spaniards are building several forts at the foot of the pass. The eastern route is a prolongation of the line from Toulouse by the Port de Salau to Lerida. All that remains to be done on the French side is to construct a road about twenty-five miles long, of which two and a half will be tunnelled. A loan of six million francs has just been authorized for the building of the first section of ten miles. The railroad on the Spanish side is still 100 miles distant from the frontier, and it is doubt-

ful if it will be completed at the appointed time. The Spanish Government has just proposed to the French that the tunnel should be constructed by one of the countries, the other to bear half the expense, but the French strenuously insist that each shall build its own part. These roads will open to the markets of the world the now undeveloped, but rich, mines of iron, manganese, lead, and copper, and the extensive marble quarries of the Pyrenees and the fertile valleys of northern Spain. With this number is issued a magnificent map, 28x36 inches, of Indo-China, including Siam and part of Burmah, giving the results of the mission headed by M. Pavie. There is also a supplemental number containing a very useful list of the principal geographical publications, books, pamphlets, transactions of societies, etc., during the year 1893. It is classified according to subjects and countries, and nearly every entry is accompanied by a critical note.

*Petermann's Mitteilungen* for October opens with a detailed description, accompanied by maps and a plan, of last April's earthquake in Locris, Greece, by Prof. Mitzopulos of Athens. This is followed by an account, with a map, of two expeditions in northern Somaliland, undertaken by J. Menges for the collection of wild animals for zoölogical gardens. The business is becoming more difficult, as the larger game is gradually disappearing from the regions adjacent to the coast, on account of the English sportsmen who come here from Aden to hunt. Farther inland there are to be found wild asses of remarkable size, "scarcely inferior to the horses of the Galla and Somali." The natives, however, do not attempt to capture and tame them. Remains of ancient cisterns show that this desert was formerly cultivated—according to native tradition, by the Persians.

"Two Months in Korea" is the title of a very timely and entertaining article by Capt. Cavendish in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for November. He gives a lively picture of Seul and the peculiar customs of its inhabitants. Among these is the arrest and flogging by the police patrol of every man found in the streets at night, this being the time "set apart for the women to take exercise in." With the exception of the road to the capital, there are only bridle or foot-paths in the country, which generally follow a watercourse, and hence at the time of the rains are impassable. This difficulty of transport, together with the laziness of the men and the corruption which reigns in every department of the Government, forms the great obstacle to the development of the undoubted riches of the country. Accompanying the article is an admirably clear map of Korea and the adjacent parts of China and Mantchuria, colored to show elevation, and giving the principal roads.

The article of greatest popular interest in the *Geographical Journal* for November is Mr. W. H. Cozens-Hardy's account of a journey in Montenegro. He had the good fortune to be present at the celebration of the four-hundredth anniversary of the establishment of the earliest Slavic printing-press in the country. The festivities, which lasted a week, consisted chiefly of dancing and singing by the bards. One, a blind man, sat on the palace steps and sang of the recent wars with the Turks. The people are described as honest, temperate, with a respect for women and an esteem for education, which is universal and compulsory; but their progress and the development of the ample resources of their country will be impossible so long as they do not shake off their old idea that every occupation except fighting is beneath the dignity of a man. An improvement in their relations to their Turkish neighbors was shown a few months ago in a solemn reconciliation between the Montenegrins and the Albanians. A battalion of Turkish soldiers and two battalions of Montenegrins were drawn up facing each other on the banks of a stream near the frontier. After a religious service, conducted first by the Montenegrin popes and then by the Mussulman hadji, a stone held by the leaders was thrown into the water, with the words, "As this stone is washed away and disappears, so let the blood-feuds between us be washed away and disappear." This same friendly feeling prevailed in the neighboring sandjak of Novi Bazar, which presents the anomaly of being jointly occupied by Turkey and Austria. The latter country declined to undertake the administration of the sandjak when it was ceded to her by the Berlin treaty, but reserved the right to garrison it. Consequently there is "a Turkish civil and military administration of all, and an Austrian military occupation of part" of the sandjak. Mr. Cozens-Hardy's attempt to travel in Albania was unsuccessful, on account of the disturbed condition of the country. His principal object, as holding the geographical studentship of the Royal Geographical Society and the University of Oxford, was to determine the eastern boundaries of the principality and of Novi Bazar. In this he succeeded, and in the map which accompanies his paper both the old and the present boundaries are shown.

The same number contains a valuable but rather technical account, by Mr. J. B. Tyrrell, of his remarkable journey through the Barren Lands of Canada to Hudson Bay. A large part of the total distance travelled, 3,200 miles, was through absolutely unknown country. On one of the numerous lakes discovered was a sloping bog, the surface of which was bright-green turf composed of lichen, low bushes of cranberry, Labrador tea, etc., with a subsoil of bright-yellow moss, which at the depth of about a foot was frozen into a solid mass of ice. The whole bog was moving slowly down the gentle slope, like a true glacier, ending at the lake in a cliff some twelve feet in height, from which large masses of peat were constantly falling on the sandy beach. An excellent map shows the results of the surveys of Mr. Tyrrell's party.

M. Lionel Dècle begins an entertaining though very sketchy account of his recent journey in Africa from the Cape to Uganda in the November number of the *Pall Mall Magazine*. This first instalment is chiefly taken up with a very graphic picture of the discomforts of wagon travelling in Matabeleland. M. Dècle formed a very unfavorable impression of Khama, the chief of the Bamangwato, asserting that, in his eagerness to make his people temperate and religious, he neglected to enforce the simplest sanitary regulations among them. "The result was that out of a population of 15,000, the death-rate amounted to forty a day."

The proverbial long-felt need of a special organ for German universities is to be met by the *Academische Revue*, "internationales Organ für Universitäten," under the direction of Dr. von Salvisberg, a stately quarto in Roman type (New York: B. Westermann & Co.). The prospectus dwells with much earnestness on the fact that even the United States of America is still in many ways so sorely misunderstood by Europeans—a fact emphasized by the following misprints: New Hawen, Harward, *John* Hopkins, New *Yersey*. In the editorial introduction we make a new acquaintance in Erneste Renan. The reciprocity of communication between universities of the Old and the New World aimed at by the *Revue* seems, therefore, most desirable. K. Roeth reviews at length in the first number Prof. Lot's 'Enseignement Supérieur en France,' from which he quotes, with pardonable pride, the statement that "the scientific leadership of Germany, in all branches of science, without exception, is now recognized by all civilized peoples," thanks to the superior organization of German universities and the excellent work done by their feeders, the Gymnasia. French students study, and their teachers teach, only such subjects as are required for the "licencié" examinations. Study for its own sake, without utilitarian ends, there is none; and this seems to Lot to be the mildew which blights French scientific activity.

The Necrology of Andover Theological Seminary is so admirably prepared by its devoted editor, the Rev. C. C. Carpenter, as to be interesting reading even for those who had no personal acquaintance with the clergy whose lives are therein epitomized. The dead for the year ending in June, 1894, number forty, and their average age was about seventy-two years. This average is greatly reduced by the deaths of a few at the beginning of their careers, as appears from the fact that fourteen of the forty lived to be over eighty, and thirty-one were above seventy years old. While there are no names of great distinction upon the list, the brief record of their lives impressively suggests the vastness of the labor that has been performed by the Church in supplying our growing country with Christian institutions.

We learn from *Nature* that a medical school for women is to be established by the Russian Government at St. Petersburg. Only a few years ago the Minister of Instruction was strongly opposed to every movement favorable to the higher education of women. This step, which is said to be due to the influence of Prince Volkonski, marks the beginning of a distinct change in Russian sentiment towards women.

The governing body of the Medical School of the University of Bucharest has just decided that Madame Sacara Tulbure, whose brilliant work as a student secured her being granted a travelling fellowship by the Rumanian Government, shall not be allowed to compete for the vacant professorship of children's diseases. The fertility of invention exhibited in the reason assigned for this restriction may perhaps be accounted for by the fact that a son of a member of the governing board is a competitor for the same position. The argument is this (and it deserves to be imitated by excluding bodies in other countries): The university is represented in the Rumanian Senate by a member elected by its professors; but since women in general cannot vote, no woman professor could fulfil this duty of her office, and hence no woman can be a professor. It seems that this decision may induce Dr. Sacara to take up the practice of medicine in this country.

Prof. Wilder contributes to the Ithaca *Journal* of November 14 a timely "practical protest" against raising $10,000 to send the Cornell crew to England. He enumerates several departments of the university which are embarrassed for want of funds, and continues: "Let me add my conviction that, as mere advertisements, and as attractions to the kind of students for which this university was founded and has been maintained, not all possible athletic victories can compare with publications of our alumni such as Gage's 'The Microscope' and Comstock's 'Entomology.'"

—Regarding the review of Spinoza's 'Ethic,' in No. 1532 of the *Nation*, a correspondent writes:

"Your reviewer ought to have been aware of an American translation. Had he been, he would not have mentioned only those made abroad, as if none had been made at home. He blames his translators for their title *Ethic* as 'an ignorant corruption of *Ethica* from a neuter plural to a feminine singular.' The American translator did not make that mistake, and his work seems for many reasons more worthy of reproduction than that reviewed. This translator was Henry Smith, who, in 1836, was a university student in Germany, who, in 1844, published a translation of Crusius's 'Homeric Lexicon,' and for twenty years, as professor and president at Marietta, did much for that study of Latin which the reviewer so extols. At Lane Seminary Dr. Smith for twenty years lectured on Spinoza, and had completed his translation of the 'Ethics' before he had ever seen any other in English. Though his style is terse, his prolegomena fill 179 pages, embracing a minute analysis of every point in the 'Ethics,' as well as the relations of that work to other philosophic systems, *e. g.*, those of Bacon, Descartes, Kant, Coleridge, and Hamilton. His work 'Spinoza and his Environment: A Critical Essay, with a translation of the Ethics,' was ready for the press in 1877. Its publication, delayed by *res angusta domi* and the author's death, was in 1886, by Robert Clarke & Co. The 'Ethics' was his pet theme, and so his students brought it out *in memoriam*."

Another correspondent, writing in praise of Elwes's translation of the 'Ethics,' calls our attention to the fact that he was well aware of Spinoza's acquaintance with Hobbes, and cites a passage to that effect.

—It is well known that the late Prof. Froude, having been censured for the theological views contained in the 'Nemesis of Faith,' and in other writings, published in 1847-8, had to resign his fellowship in Exeter College. The statement that the 'Nemesis of Faith' was publicly burned by the Oxford authorities, though sometimes made, is not true. The last time that books were burned by authority in Oxford appears to have been in the year 1683. As a matter of fact the 'Nemesis of Faith' was burned in the quadrangle of Exeter College by William Sewell, who was at the time a fellow of the College, and who afterwards became Warden of the short-lived Radley College. In after years Mr. Froude was made honorary fellow of Exeter College, and as Regius Professor of History he became a fellow of Oriel College. As a final and further act of reparation may be mentioned the impressive words spoken in the Oxford University pulpit by Prof. Sanday on the day after Mr. Froude's death. At the close of a most scrupulous appreciation of the historian's character, Dr. Sanday said: "We all know how the young and ardent churchman followed his reason where it seemed to lead, and sacrificed a fellowship, and, as it might have seemed, a career, to scruples of conscience. That, at least, was a Christian act, and He who weighs all deeds and motives will doubtless judge it differently from some who thought to be zealous in His service at the time. Now we can see that the difficulties which led to it were real difficulties. It was right, and not wrong, that they should be raised and faced."

—A contributor to the *Nation* sends us a copy of a note made by him on the 8th of December, 1873, after a visit to the Deanery, Westminster, the previous afternoon. The note gives an instance of the "bold and original views" of the late James Anthony Froude, who had himself been present at the Deanery on the 7th:

"There was an interesting conversation between the Dean [Stanley] and Mr. Froude about the Dean's having allowed Mr. Max Müller to lecture in the Abbey last week. The Dean said he had taken legal advice and been informed that no lecture could be given 'at a service.' He said he had introduced Bach's Passion music, on the principle that it was as allowable as an oratorio. Mr. Froude said he had often suggested to clergymen that they should give up one day in the week to laymen, to ask questions concerning the clergy's sermons, or to answer them. The Dean thought this a good idea."

—Of the bitter feeling which Mr. Freeman had for his brother historian, some explanation will doubtless be given by the biographers of those distinguished men. Mr. Froude himself was of opinion that Mr. Freeman's bitterness was intensified when the former voted for and supported the nomination of Dean Stanley to be one of the Select Preachers at Oxford, in 1872. It was in no measured terms that Freeman would denounce what he considered Froude's ignorance and inaccuracy. "*Froudacity*, in fact!" he has been heard to exclaim, as he ended his denunciation. Of this same word *Froudacity* there is a story which has not yet been seen in print. The word was coined by the writer of a review of Froude's 'English in the West Indies.' Afterwards, an educated African, living on the island of Trinidad in the West Indies, wrote a book upon Froude's book, with the title 'Froudacity.' When Freeman died, his 'History of Sicily' was going through the press. The publisher having to send proofs to the Freeman family, some of these proofs were wrapped up in sheets of 'Froudacity,' which had not been in such demand as to require binding. The Freeman family were somewhat nettled at this, but, on inquiry of the publisher, were assured that there had been no plot in the transaction. It was a mere coincidence.

—"College Histories of Art" is the general title of a series of text-books of which Prof. John C. Van Dyke is editor, and the first of which, 'A History of Painting' (Longmans), is from the hand of the editor himself. The purpose of the book requires so much condensation that the result is dry reading, but the writing must have been still more dry. Prof. Van Dyke has performed his uninviting task with great thoroughness and good success. One is naturally tempted to compare this work with Prof. Goodyear's 'Renaissance and Modern Art,' recently noticed in these columns. Prof. Goodyear's volume deals with sculpture and architecture as well as with painting, so that his field is larger while the space of time covered is shorter than with Prof. Van Dyke. Prof. Van Dyke's adoption of the division by schools makes the general thread of artistic development harder to follow, and does not give so clear a conception of the transference of art methods and art supremacy from one country to another as does Prof. Goodyear's chronological treatment, where all the countries of Europe are driven abreast. On the other hand, Prof. Van Dyke's book is the fuller of names (biographical facts he, wisely, does not deal in), and his judgments, particularly as regards modern artists, are more discriminating. He seems to us singularly happy in his characterization of various artists, and amazingly just in proportion. We have hardly found an instance in which the relative importance accorded a given artist seemed to us manifestly wrong, and hardly one in which the special characteristics of a style were not adequately presented. Of course such a book makes no claim to originality, but it should prove useful. The style is not always free from carelessness, but is sufficiently clear. Other volumes of the series announced as in preparation are a 'History of Architecture,' by Alfred D. F. Hamlin, A. M., and a 'History of Sculpture,' by Allan Marquand, Ph.D., L.H.D.

—We have received the second volume of M. Salomon Reinach's 'Description raisonnée' of the contents of the Museum of St.-Germain, the first volume of which, devoted to remains of the alluvial and cave-dwellers' epoch, we noticed at the time of its appearance. The present volume, an octavo of 384 pages, describes the *bronzes figurés* (that is, the statuettes and bas-reliefs) of Roman Gaul, and does not include arms and utensils decorated with purely vegetable or geometric patterns. An important feature of the book, and one which, thanks to the cheapness of modern reproductive processes, is becoming common in museum catalogues, is that every specimen is illustrated, there being 595 cuts in the text, and a Dujardin plate of the Évreux Jupiter, which serves as a frontispiece, although the Museum possesses only a reproduction of the figure. A study of the illustrations shows that the Gallic bronzes of the Roman period are interesting more from an ethnological than an artistic point of view, as they betray the influences of a dominating style of art upon people whose artistic instincts were certainly not in the direction of the human face or figure. Those statuettes of Greek or Roman subjects which are not evidently importations, are but rude imitations of the beautiful types found in Italy and the eastern Mediterranean countries; but they are interesting because of the light they throw upon the artistic condition of the Gauls at the time of the Roman dominion, and still more so because of their testimony as to the direction from which the influence of classical art came into Gaul.

—In an introduction, the only defect of which is its brevity, M. Reinach discusses this subject, and makes it clear that the principal school which affected Gaul was the Græco-Egyptian one of Alexandria, which came into Gaul not only through the intermediary of Rome, but directly by sea to the ports on the southern coast, and thence up the valley of the Rhone. Another interesting point which he brings out forcibly is the essential difference in artistic tendencies between the people north of the Alps and those of the Græco-Roman civilization. Even at the time of the Roman Empire, the northern races gave proof of the decidedly individual tendencies which were later to play such an important part in the development of Byzantine and Romanesque art. In contrast to the classical love of animal forms, M. Reinach summarizes as the characteristic principles of the arts of all northern Europe at that time a prevalence of geometric decoration, showing a taste for symmetry rather than living forms, a development of logic rather than imagination, a love of bright colors and open-work relief, and a strong inclination for *stilisation*, or the conventionalizing of natural forms into decorative motives.

—The fact that a cat, when it falls from any considerable height, lands always on its feet, is so well known as to be proverbial. What is perhaps less known is, that this seemingly simple performance has been, for a week's time, an inexplicable puzzle to the learned. A very lively debate sprang up over the question in the Académie des Sciences at its session of October 22, and it is possible that the savants might have

decided in favor of what they fondly deemed to be the laws of mechanics and against the cat if M. Marey had not brought in documentary evidence, consisting of sixty instantaneous photographs that he had taken, representing every stage of the animal's descent. The first showed the cat with its feet up; then, as if making desperate gestures of appeal with its paws; then, turning progressively on itself; and, at last, landing on all fours. M. Marey was of opinion that a complete turn was made within the first metre of the descent. M. Guyon thought that the rotation was due to the displacement of the members during the fall, which overcame the inertia. M. Marcel Deprez was of the opinion that no body could turn itself thus without an assisting force. MM. Loewy, Maurice Lévy, Milne-Edwards, Bertrand, and Berthelot thought that the cat found a *point d'appui* in the hand that dropped it, or the object that provoked its fall, from which it gained a movement of rotation. But M. Marey replied that no indication of this was to be seen in the photographs. M. Marcel Deprez then suggested that the displacement of the intestines might play some part in the matter, though, whatever it might be, it would be contrary to all known laws. M. Marey promised that he would continue his researches, and would suspend his cat hereafter by a string, which he would cut at the proper moment, and then, as before, would photograph the successive phases of the animal's fall. At the next meeting, M. Maurice Lévy rose and said that, in his opinion, the whole difficulty in the case had sprung from an inexact interpretation of some fundamental principles of mechanics. He then passed to the blackboard, which he rapidly covered with figures that proved clearly to the severest understandings that the cat broke no mathematical laws by its fall. Peace settled down on the Academy: *Causa finita est.*

## PICKARD'S WHITTIER.

*Life and Letters of John Greenleaf Whittier.* By Samuel T. Pickard. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1894.

Mr. Pickard's Life of his distinguished relative is a very creditable performance. It could not be written more modestly, so far as he is personally concerned; and his claim for Whittier, whether as poet, politician, or reformer, is nowhere in excess of what the fairest will allow. As a piece of literary work, without any charm of style, the book has the merit of simplicity, a Quaker plainness making it absolutely transparent for the facts and Whittier's personal image to shine through. If it never delights us by the felicity of its phrases, it never once offends us by inflated rhetoric or questionable taste. Losing his life in order to find it in this fashion was something which Whittier dreaded quite as much as Dr. Johnson; but he knew it had to be, and he conspired with Mr. Pickard for the event. The greatest merits of this biography are its fulness and its honesty. It is very rich in information, very strong in facts. Many will miss some knowledge that they crave, but many more will perceive, as they go on, that the omissions are provisional. So doing, they will find themselves wondering whether the arrangement of the matter is the best conceivable. Especially in the thirties it is annoying to have a thrice-told tale of the abolitionist reformer, the Whig politician, and the Liberty Party abolitionist. If the three had been fused, the result would have been more satisfactory. In other places the narrative often returns upon itself. It is in the treatment of Whittier as a Whig politician that the honesty of this biographer is most apparent. Less honest, he would have suppressed some things that can hardly fail to shock some of the many who have never thought of Whittier except as a poetic reformer and a saint. The book abstains from anything that can properly be called criticism of Whittier's literary art. This is a great deficiency, or it would be if no other biography were in prospect. Of course there will be others, and some one of them will make good what is lacking here.

Mr. Pickard enters into the labors of so many others that he has little new for us concerning Whittier's family and his ancestral tree. The name, it appears, is spelled eighteen different ways in the Essex County records. Mr. Pickard confirms the rumor of Whittier's remote cousinship with Daniel Webster, marked by their common heritage, "the Bachiler eye." He pleads certain facts in arrest of Whittier's judgment on their common ancestor, the Rev. Stephen Bachiler, the poet having followed Gov. Winthrop's blackening. The story of Whittier's boyhood is admirably told. He grew too fast, attaining his mature height, five feet ten and a half inches, when he was about fifteen; and too much toughening, he fancied, spoiled his health for life. His intellectual growth, on the contrary, was extremely slow. It is hard to find in what he wrote for Garrison in 1826, the promise and the potency which made Garrison so confident of his future. But the remarkable thing is that for five or six years after this he made little or no progress, though he wrote and published hundreds of poems, none of which received the certificate of his final approbation, though a few have been preserved as curiosities in an appendix to his collected works. His political activity may have been injurious to his poetical development, but the truth appears to be that it was "the wingèd Hippogriff Reform" that was his poetical salvation. Those who have fancied that his poetical genius suffered from his anti-slavery connection will find no warrant in these volumes for their belief. One is even compelled to wonder whether without that connection he would have attained any abiding fame. Abolitionism was the good angel that first troubled the depths of his nature. After the war it was the energy generated by his anti-slavery experience that he converted into "Snow-Bound" and many other beautiful things which, with his anti-slavery poems, made his place secure.

Before 1831 there was about as little in Whittier's course prophetic of a splendid moral earnestness as of real poetical ability. Politics, not poetry, was the main region of his ambition, and his political writing and thinking were not marked by any superiority to distinguish them from the common run. Even when he had fairly joined the abolitionists, he remained for six years a Whig politician, a valiant henchman of Caleb Cushing, who was thrice indebted to him for his election to Congress. Of course, we must avoid the fallacy of reflecting the ultimate Caleb Cushing of the pro-slavery Democracy back upon the earlier man; yet, whatever his alliances, his character and methods underwent no serious change. That his methods, those of the average logroller and wire puller of 1830-'38, were worn by Whittier with so little difference, is the surprising part of Mr. Pickard's revelation. His fourth and fifth chapters, which detail the circumstances of Whittier's enlistment for the anti-slavery conflict and those of his parallel course as a local politician devoted to the interests of Caleb Cushing and Henry Clay, are the most interesting in his book, but the interest is more painful than agreeable at some points along the way. It is hard to reconcile the writing of his 'Justice and Expediency' in 1833 (an elaborate pamphlet following in the wake of Garrison's attack on Colonization), and his publishing it at his own expense—nearly a whole year's hard earnings—with the fact that while he was writing it he was electioneering for Cushing in the most lively manner.

For years he had no such sense of detachment from his party as we associate with the early abolitionists, perhaps because we unwarrantably anticipate a later phase of their development, and do not recognize how liberally the anti-slavery hopes were cherished by the most eager partisans on either side. Considering that Cushing began his efforts to get into Congress in 1826 and did not succeed until 1834, and that all these years Whittier was a worker in Cushing's interest, it is astonishing that the true anti-slavery spirit found any lodgment in his breast. When Cushing's chances were poor, there was a makeshift nomination, and in 1832 this seemed to be coming Whittier's way, and he ran eagerly to meet it. "His few years' experience in practical politics had fostered an ambition for power and patronage of which those can have no idea who only knew him after he had devoted himself to philanthropic labors" (p. 167). A letter on pages 168-9 marks the degree of Whittier's danger, at this time, of hopeless moral wreck. He finds that he is not quite old enough to be a candidate, so he works up a brilliant scheme for keeping Cushing in the field until after November, and then going in himself to win. How painfully familiar are such phrases as the following, as if we had read them in some preëxistent state! Referring to his possible election he says, with the italics:

> "It would give me an opportunity of seeing and knowing our public characters, and, in case of Mr. Clay's election, might enable me to do something for myself and friends. . . . In this matter, if I know my own heart, I am not entirely selfish. I never yet *deserted a friend*, and I never will. If my friends enable me to acquire influence, it shall be exerted for *their benefit*. And give me once an opportunity of exercising it, my first object shall be to evince my gratitude by exertions in behalf of those who had conferred such a favor upon me."

When Cushing was at length elected, he was generally distrusted by the anti-slavery men, but Whittier twice helped him to a re-election, believing he could turn his great ability to the advance of anti-slavery ends. Cushing paid dear for his help by offering the anti-slavery petitions that poured in from his district as from no other. When in 1838 Cushing kicked hard against the anti-slavery pricks, he finally agreed to sign any letter that Whittier might write, and a letter thus written and signed, and hailed by Whittier in the *Pennsylvania Freeman* as "a private note from him in reply to one from ourself as his former neighbor and personal friend," saved him from threatened defeat by a considerable majority. In 1841 it was the anti-slavery record that Whittier had made for Cushing that prevented his confirmation for a place in Tyler's cabinet. Whittier never sailed so near the wind as in the use he made at this time of the letter which he forced on Cushing in 1838.

These aspects of Whittier's career must be taken in connection with his anti-slavery labors as a poet and a journalist before we can have a complete idea of the man. Often it seems as if we were reading, not of one man,

but of two. Yet whatever is left doubtful, it is perfectly plain that, in allying himself with the Liberty party when it attained a definite consistency, he took no backward step. He did not become more a politician and a partisan than he had been before. He had always been both in one, and for eight years an abolitionist into the bargain. He simply transferred his allegiance from a party hopeless for anti-slavery ends to one which might grow into a powerful instrument of these ends. It did so, giving up the *abolition* of slavery for the prevention of its extension as the final cause of the great agitation. There was not a man alive in 1840 less prepared than Whittier to accept the non-partisan, non-voting programme of Garrison. His political predilection was immense, and so inwrought with every fibre of his character that here, also, he "obeyed the voice at eve obeyed at prime." Nor do these pages afford any evidence that he ever repented of his early doctrine of the claim of the political victors on the spoils. If there is a hint of his devotion to or interest in civil-service reform, it has escaped our scrutiny.

For some years he prevented a congressional election in his district by remaining the Liberty party candidate, but when, in 1843, he could easily have been elected by a coalition of Whigs and Birneyites, his health obliged him to decline the nomination. His political ambition, but not his political influence, ended then and there. It was undoubtedly the greatest disappointment of his life. "A kind Providence," says his biographer, "by a seeming affliction, had set him apart for a still higher usefulness." It is appalling to think how much less Whittier might have been to us if his health had permitted him to enter on a political career. Such a career could not have been a brilliant one, but it might have been profoundly influential. Even his extra-political activity was always that. He dearly loved a political coalition, and in 1850-1 he was a leading spirit in that coalition which elected Boutwell to the governorship of Massachusetts and Sumner to the Senate. Such was his revulsion from Boutwell's conduct as Governor that he at first advised Sumner to withdraw from the contest. Connecting himself with the Free-Soil and Republican parties, neither of which declared for abolition as even the ultimate goal, he was as much an abolitionist as ever in his personal effect, and did splendid service towards that abolitionizing of the Republican party which checked the rage of base concession in 1861 and in a few years made the war-power of the Government an instrument for the emancipation of the slave. Would he have done more or less if his political ambition had been gratified? It is greatly to be feared that his passion for political management would have been fatal to some of the finest motions of his mind and heart, and that, for this reason, together with his engrossment in political affairs, all that is rarest in his later poems, and all that is noblest in his spiritual influence and his personal character, would have come far short of what they actually attained.

In Mr. Pickard's second volume we are on much more familiar ground, and the Whittier presented to us there, in his domestic life, his friendships—largely with women and not always comprehensible—his correspondence, his literary work, his social activity and religious fervor, is much more the Whittier of the common imagination and the common heart than the sharp and eager politician of the earlier times. The meagreness of his returns for literary work before 1868 will be a surprise to many. The *Atlantic* gave him a new market and a better one than he had had before, except the *National Era;* but when that had been going for some years, his livelihood was precarious, and a mortgage threatened his modest house in Amesbury. Then the grief for his lost mother and sister flowered into 'Snow-Bound,' the first sales of which brought him $10,000, and after that he had an easy time. 'The Tent on the Beach' sold a thousand a day for weeks, and he wrote to Fields: "This will never do. The swindle is awful. Barnum is nothing to us." He was a little jealous of the public preference for 'Snow-Bound' over other things. There is much about the origin of various poems and their fortunes that is pleasant reading, and much that is amusing in his relations to his editors and publishers. They gave him many useful hints, and the multitude of his atrocious rhymes was much reduced upon their urgency. To Lowell, it seems, we are indebted for the dialect form of the refrain in "Skipper Ireson's Ride," which Whittier first essayed in 1828. The interrelations of Whittier, Holmes, Emerson, Longfellow, and Lowell are an altogether pleasing and delightful addition to Disraeli's 'Amenities of Literature.'

Whittier did not care for posthumous fame. He early quoted with approval Halleck's couplet:

> "If a garland for my brow
> Is growing, let me have it *now*."

He was not indifferent to admiration and applause, but the notoriety which his reputation finally entailed was a burden almost too great for him to bear. It had many amusing incidents, as had the course of his domestic life, and with these Mr. Pickard has enlivened his pages, and with a kindly inventory of the poet's personal traits. Like Bryant, Whittier had to hold in leash a temper that was naturally quick and hot. Like most people, he liked to tend his own wood-fire, and objected to others' interference. His personal loyalty to Sumner when Sumner broke with Grant in 1872 was greatly to his honor, but then he was always loyal to his friends. He insisted that the anti-slavery cause did more for him than he had ever done for it, and, without underrating his service, it is impossible to read this noble and sincere biography without feeling that he spoke the simple truth.

## MEMOIRS OF THREE PAINTERS.

*Reminiscences of a Portrait Painter.* By George P. A. Healy. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1894.

*Pen and Pencil Sketches.* By Henry Stacy Marks, R.A. 2 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1894.

*The Life and Times of A. B. Durand.* By John Durand. With Illustrations. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894.

THE reminiscences of artists have made some very amusing books. Not to dwell upon the immortal Cellini, we have in the "Egotistography" of so comparatively unimportant a painter as our own Chester Harding a vastly entertaining work. It was, therefore, with anticipations of pleasant reading that we took up the posthumous 'Reminiscences' of the late G. P. A. Healy. In no sense a great artist, Mr. Healy was yet a successful portrait-painter, and during a long life the exercise of his profession brought him into contact with many of the foremost men and women of two continents. He had the typical portrait-painter's character and manner—cool, suave, polite—and must have been, less the genius, not unlike the great Sir Joshua, the accomplished model of a successful portrait-painter. He displayed much ingenuity and persistence in wringing sittings from unwilling patients, and seems to have left a pleasant impression on his sitters and to have converted many of them into warm friends. From popes and kings to scientists, statesmen, and American generals, his acquaintance was vast and varied, and we looked for a fund of interesting anecdote and many little revelations of the character of illustrious men. Our expectations were doomed to disappointment. Either Mr. Healy's sitters never did or said anything particularly characteristic in his presence, or he had not the gift to remember and set down the characteristic things they said and did. His narrative is smooth and colorless, and even the death bed of Gen. Jackson, at which he was present, is not made to interest us. Some account of Thomas Couture, Healy's fellow-pupil under Gros and his lifelong friend, and a couple of rather pale stories about Thackeray, whom he knew slightly, are almost all that remains with one after perusal.

There are some points of resemblance between this book and the second on our list, notably in the arrangement by subject rather than by date, but the points of contrast are far greater. Mr. Marks, not being a painter of portraits, has nothing to tell us of the great ones of the earth. His dramatis personæ are his brother artists, and the only sitters he discourses of are the humble professional model and the birds of the Zoo. There is something of John Ruskin, but otherwise even the literary craft is scarcely represented in his pages. The painters of London seem to live much by themselves and to form a society, or societies, of their own, and it is such an artistic society that is pictured for us "in pen and pencil" in this volume. The artist has often been attempted in fiction, but with little success. Nowadays every one has been reading 'Trilby,' and that novel, written by an artist, comes nearer to portraying the genuine artist life than any other. Mr. Marks, however, gives us the real thing. There is not much of Paris, where neither Marks nor Fred. Walker studied for any length of time; but the circle of which Fred. Walker and Du Maurier himself were part, and which undoubtedly supplied Du Maurier with much of the material for his romance, is here portrayed to the life. There is not so much sentiment as in the novel, but there is a good deal more reality and a good deal more humor.

Most of the members of the "St. John's Wood Clique," to which Mr. Marks belonged, became R.A.'s later, but none of them except Walker has attained to that kind of celebrity which inclines the world to listen with interest to any details that may be vouchsafed us about his life or character. The chapters on Ruskin, Walker, and Charles Keene are those, therefore, that will have the most personal interest. In the rest of the book it is the life itself that interests—its freedom, its gayety, its larks, and its work; the pictures of country holidays, and models, and Academy elections, and Hanging Committee work, and studio bores, and artists' parasites. The actual life of an artist in London, from his student days to the final achievement of Academic dignity and repose (and artist life anywhere is much like it in many things), is here set forth by a clear-sighted observer who has lived the life he writes of, who brings to the painting of it much sense and shrewdness and kindly fun, and who has no other object than to tell the truth. It is not a very exciting life, and the artist is not so

different from the rest of mankind after all; but if any one is interested to learn what it really is, we know of no book that will so well instruct him.

Other things there are in the book too. Mr. Marks, while declining to give his views of art, has revived some of the papers he wrote while art critic for the *Spectator*, which include accounts of the casting of a bronze statue and of the English method of producing stained glass, as well as an entertaining article on "A Pugilist Painter" and another on theatrical prints. He has also given us a chapter on his admiration for the horse, and his very heterodox dislike of the dog, together with some clever bits of humorous verse of a rather local nature.

We have seen too little of Mr. Marks's painting to speak confidently of his achievement as an artist, but the many illustrations in this book show him to be a conscientious and respectable draughtsman, with a good deal of special knowledge of birds. As a man he reveals himself as a lovable person, and would seem to deserve the stock epithet, the constant application of which to himself he seems somewhat to resent, of "the genial Academician."

Very different is the life depicted in the somewhat ambitiously named volume which we are now to consider. Asher Brown Durand was one of the pioneers of art in a new country. For him there were no student days as there were no schools of art. All the things that make up the life of an artist to day had to be created in his lifetime. The American Academy of Arts was founded in 1802 and incorporated in 1808, but it was not an institution of artists, and the facilities it offered to students were so meagre that a revolt, similar to those which afterwards produced the Society of American Artists and the Art Students' League, took place in 1825, and resulted in the founding of the present National Academy. Durand, then thirty years old and an engraver of reputation, was one of the original members. He was also one of the founders of the Sketch Club, which afterwards became the Century Club. Singularly enough, this volume devotes only a few lines to an incidental mention of the founding of the Academy, and does not give the date of Durand's election as president of that institution. We are told at one point that the Academy has been founded, and at another that Durand has become its president—that is all. The 'Life and Times' of a founder of the National Academy with the founding of the Academy left out is not unlike the play of "Hamlet" without the Prince, but that is what Mr. John Durand has given us.

But if he has left out much that we had a right to expect, he has inserted a good deal that we could readily have spared. Chapter iv., for instance, contains disquisitions on the "nature of art," the "utility of the artist in society," and other equally abstract matters; and the thread of the story is continually interrupted to make place for the author's opinions on "impressionism," or the "decline of the American school," or what not. The "decline of the American school" is a particularly amusing topic in these days when American painters are beginning to take a high rank among the artists of the world, and when there is more able work done in America in a month than used to be done in ten years. In the view of Mr. John Durand, however, even a foreigner who came to America a grown man with his artistic education completed, became, in the old days, at once a representative of the American school, while nowadays a young American who studies for a few years in Paris has for ever lost his Americanism and can never regain it, no matter how long he paints native subjects in his native country. A little knowledge is a dangerous thing—at least to Americanism. But our younger painters are quite able to take care of themselves, and we shall devote ourselves at present to the life of their forerunner.

Asher B. Durand was born in Jefferson Village (now Maplewood), N. J., in 1796. His father was a clockmaker and general mechanic of French Huguenot extraction, and his mother was of old Dutch stock. He seems to have been, like Harding, an example of mechanical ingenuity becoming artistic impulse in the second generation. His father, who, as the story goes, once mended Gen. Washington's spyglass, could do anything with tools, and his brother invented a machine for the teaching of grammar from which the future Academician "learned all the grammar he knew." This same brother afterwards invented the geometrical lathe for banknote engraving. Durand was a delicate child and had little schooling, but spent most of his time rambling in the woods and imbibing a deep love for landscape, or working and playing in his father's shop. Here he began to engrave monograms and ornaments, and soon even figures and animals. Some of his father's customers observed his talent and recommended that he be regularly apprenticed to an engraver. One of them, a Mr. Enos Smith, volunteered to take him to New York and introduce him to Mr. W. S. Leney, "then the most prominent engraver in the city of New York." Mr. Leney's terms were much too high for the slender purse of the elder Durand, and the young man returned home disappointed; but he had seen "the splendid print shops in the vicinity of the City Hall," and never again in his life did he "experience such profound admiration of works of art as was then inspired by this display of colored engravings." A master whose terms were more reasonable was found, and in 1812, at the age of sixteen, Durand was apprenticed to Mr. Peter Maverick of Newark, N. J. He soon surpassed his master, and, at the expiration of his apprenticeship in 1817, became a partner, and before long the leading partner in the concern.

By 1820 his reputation had so increased that Trumbull intrusted him with the engraving of his "Declaration of Independence," and as that artist objected to joining Maverick in the commission, the partnership was dissolved, and thereafter Durand worked for himself. The engraving was completed in 1823, and seems to have placed the engraver at once at the head of his profession—a position he maintained as long as he continued to work on copper. Much of his work was banknote engraving, and in this the lathe invented by his brother was of so much use that a partnership was formed between the two. The vignettes were designed as well as engraved by Durand himself, and some of them are reproduced from the original drawings in this volume. They are pretty and graceful, and were highly appreciated, and the artist built up an enormous business. One of his first attempts at "high art" was an original engraving of "Musidora" from Thomson's 'Seasons,' but as a model for the nude figure could not be found at that time, and "scarcely a plaster cast of any description," it is hardly necessary to add that the result was not very good. A later plate, after Vanderlyn's "Ariadne," is better, but was, of course, equally unsalable in that epoch. The date of the "Musidora" is not given us, but the "Ariadne" was finished in 1835.

The greatest employment of the engraver, as of the painter, in those days, was portraiture, and Durand did a great number of engraved portraits for the "National Portrait Gallery" and other publications. Occasionally one of these is described as "from a painting by the engraver," and gradually the painter of portraits displaced the engraver, as the landscape painter afterwards displaced the portrait painter. Here again the lack of dates makes itself felt in this biography, but as early as 1830 Durand was conscientiously painting landscape out of doors—perhaps one of the first of our artists to do so. It was 1840 before he went abroad and saw the masterpieces of elder art. In 1869 he retired to his birthplace, where he lived until his death in 1886.

Such a life furnishes much to interest and amuse. We will not pick all the plums from the book, but will indicate a few of them to the reader. At twenty-one Durand was "speaker of the day" at a Fourth of July celebration in Jefferson Village, and his speech, extracts from which are given on pp. 31, 32, is one of the most absurd pieces of old time spreadeagleism it has ever been our fortune to see. No burlesque could be funnier than this piece of earnest. Durand's literary style always remained rather florid, but he could write sense. Two passages of comment on English pictures which he wrote while abroad in 1840 are worth quoting as instances of sound critical judgment. Of Turner he says:

> "He appears to me the most factitious and artificial of all the distinguished English artists. I discover in him much of imaginative and poetic power, but that appears developed at too great a sacrifice of truth and propriety. At all events if Turner is to be judged by the acknowledged standard of excellence presented in the works of the Old Masters, or by nature in the commonly received acceptation of the term, he must be found wanting."

Nothing could be better than this, and his judgment of Constable, by whom he saw "one picture evincing more of simple truth and naturalness than any English landscape I have ever before met with," shows also that he had eyes wherewith to see.

Of the "cranks" and eccentrics with which this country abounded "before the war" Durand knew not a few, of whom two of the most amusing were Pekenino, the Italian engraver, who in a moment of impecuniosity, by a simple change of lettering, converted a portrait of "A. B. Durand" into one of "Bolivar" (an impression of this plate should be a "find" to the collector); and Sylvester Graham, who divided his time between trying to revolutionize the diet of mankind and trying to "set the world on fire" with poetry. Of all the droll things in the book, however, the drollest is perhaps the account of the art patron as he occasionally appeared in those times. One example of the sort of thing to which our artist was sometimes subjected we cannot refrain from quoting at length:

> "One day a genteel old lady with a bundle of engravings under her arm called upon my father, and introduced herself by stating that she wished to engage him to paint a landscape for her. She had always admired his trees, and wanted a picture composed mainly of these objects. Unrolling her engravings, she pointed to a group in one of them which pleased her very much, also another group in another engraving which was to be copied and placed in front of that group. In one corner of the picture a thicket was to be introduced, from which a lion was to be seen rushing towards a river with a lamb on the shore. The sky was not to occupy much space; the rest of the canvas should be filled with trees. She

had made a tracing of a stump which she greatly admired, and this was to appear somewhere in the foreground. The river was to be called the Jordan, and John the Baptist with the Saviour were to be seen standing up to their knees in the water. On my father's remarking that these models, copied indiscriminately from works by Rubens, Poussin, Claude, and other modern painters, were not consistent with Oriental history, she replied that 'any other baptism would do as well.' Finally, on his declining the commission, she regretted this very much, as she had been reflecting on the design for two years, and had brought the material with her to save the artist trouble."

The book, the edition of which is limited to 500 small-paper and 100 large-paper copies, has been printed in London, with English orthography. It is provided with two appendices, an index in which we have been able to find nothing we have looked for, and *two* tables of errata !

*Golf: A Royal and Ancient Game.* Edited by Robert Clarke. Macmillan.

A FEW years ago we called attention to the good qualities of the game of golf and predicted its spread in this country. To-day the word is on everybody's tongue, the supply of golf implements is in constant danger of exhaustion, new links are being laid out on all sides, and young men and maidens are scattering lost balls and imprecations over the length and breadth of the land. It is even reported that domestic feuds have arisen over the question whether the word should be pronounced as written, or according to the English fashion *goff*, or the Scotch fashion *goaf*. However this weighty question may be finally decided, there is, unfortunately, no doubt whatever that the disappointments of the game are conducive to bad language. A Scotsman, who was once singing its praises, admitted that it led to much profanity, and that he, being in the ministry, had had to give it up. "What!" said his friend, "give up golf!" "No," said he, "the ministry."

Casual observers regard this sudden infatuation of the community as a transient fashion, like voluminous sleeves, but those who know the history of the game know that when it comes it comes to stay. It would be difficult to determine what particular feature of the game it is that makes it so generally attractive. What usually happens is that A sees B and C playing, and says to himself that it is easy to learn and that he could probably play quite as well as they do. Now, good play requires much more skill than the uninitiated spectator imagines, and a desperate desire to improve seems to take possession of every beginner as soon as he realizes that success is not easy. At this stage of the golf disease the sufferer pores over the diagrams in the Badminton volume, and is discovered by his friends, club in hand, in the act of performing sundry strange contortions not unattended by danger to the ornaments on the mantelpiece. If his rooms in town are too small for the purpose, he has been known to arrange a net in the back-yard and there spend his leisure moments in the effort to *swing* with accuracy and freedom.

After six months of such serious endeavor, he will have mastered the rudiments of the art, and his education will be so far advanced that he can appreciate the mass of curious golf lore which Mr. Clark has gathered together in this book. Here he will find epics and lyrics and long lists of bygone champions, together with a great variety of illustrations and a wealth of anecdote. He will be interested to learn that the game is as old as the Romans, and that there may even be some foundation for the improbable story that Rameses II. once made a successful tee-shot over the apex of the Pyramid of Cheops. With pardonable pride he will read how, in later years, the game became so important and so universal as to influence the balance of trade between nations, so that James I. conferred a monopoly of ball-manufacture on one James Melvil, in order to prevent the export of "no small quantity of gold and silver" to pay for Dutch golf-balls. And, having absorbed from Mr. Clark's pleasant pages a quantity of such information, he will resume the practice of driving with a chastened spirit and a profound sense of archæological responsibility.

*The Pearl of India.* By Maturin M. Ballou. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1894.

ONE can almost hear the shrill sound of the Surrang's whistle to "let her go," as the anchor drops in the harbor of Columbo from the bow of the "good ship" (all ships that carry us safely are "good") that conveyed Mr. Ballou from the Straits Settlement to "India's utmost Isle." It is not India's Isle at all, though the poet said so; but the saying is too good to be gainsaid two hundred years after his death, even if Ceylon has meantime acquired a political autonomy perfectly distinct from that of the "Imperial Government"—by which high-sounding title the Viceroy of India and his Council are officially styled. Mr. Ballou admired the palms, of course, and the splendid foliage; but, long before the anchor drops, one has peered into these until the vision grows dim. The traveller is early interested in the first visitors to the ship. Mr. Ballou does not venture to decide the mooted point whether the crows in search of chops or the Moormen in search of cash first pay their respects to the incoming ship. The Moormen are intensely interested in the passengers. Mr. Ballou calls these visitors "a set of confirmed knaves and adroit swindlers," offering extraordinary opportunities to acquire the choicest gems of the East. Glass and low-class sapphires disguised under the name of diamonds occasionally bring high prices in Columbo Bay. The traveller will act wisely in following Mr. Ballou's advice, and be chary of all dealings with the man who says: "Master, give you bargains—good bargains—morning time."

"It is safe to say," remarks Mr. Ballou, "no point presents more varied attractions to the observant traveller, more thoroughly and picturesquely exhibits equatorial life, or addresses itself more directly to the delicate appreciation of the artist, botanist, antiquarian, general scientist, and sportsman, than does Ceylon, gem of the Orient." The stranger is assured of "safety and good health" in "this fabled isle of Arabian story." The climate is "equable and most delightful"; the cost of living is "as moderate as in Southern Europe"; and the land is "traversed by railways and excellent Government roads." The nights, too, were "gloriously serene and bright," "so full of a delicious sense of repose." This is a just account; the public highways, in particular, are not surpassed by those of any country in Europe.

The description of life in the Pettah, the black quarter of Columbo, is exceedingly well done. There Mr. Ballou was much struck with the presence of the nude in real life, the great abundance and cheapness of fruits, with one exception—grapes, for which the price of thirty cents per pound was demanded. It is just possible that Mr. Ballou confounded the coin denominated a cent in Ceylon with the American cent. The Singhalese cent is not more than two-fifths the value of the American cent. The rupee contains the same quantity of silver as an American half-dollar, and the Singhalese cent is the one-hundredth part of a rupee, which has only the commercial value of the silver it contains. While the observations upon native life are keen, it does not appear that our author often saw much of the inside of European life. He speaks highly of the Grand Oriental Hotel in Columbo, but has a poor opinion of the two Kandy hostelries. Personal comfort has much to do with the delights of travelling, and it is to be feared that Mr. Ballou did not enjoy the courtesies of the Kandy Club or of the Hill Club at the Hill station, Newera Elia. The latter place he denominates the Saratoga of Ceylon, though it might be more properly compared with Asheville. He states that the island has an excellent system of free schools, a government which in form and effect is a "paternal despotism," a system of railways that pays expenses and a handsome dividend to the State —and a great abundance of snakes. The snakes may be passed by with this single comment, that the danger from their presence has been unduly magnified. The cobra is a much abused and misrepresented animal. He rarely attacks except in self-defence, while another species of snakes performs the important function of ratcatcher. These snakes may be frequently seen on the ceilings—not on the walls—of the Kandy Club engaged in this legitimate and meritorious occupation.

The Singhalese and the Tamils from southern India are the leading races, the latter being largely engaged on the tea and coffee plantations Mr. Ballou falls into error in stating that the Tamils are imported by the planters. The planters contract for plantation-labor with local labor-brokers, called "chetties," who import the laborers from southern India, upon terms that enable them to share a considerable proportion of their wages. The laborers are distributed on the estates in charge of "kinganis," the native equivalent for "bosses." The chetties are large dealers in rice, and are also the native private bankers. One may not rarely meet a chetty in Columbo whose personal outfit consists solely of a turban on his head and a thin gauze about his waist, the value of the whole outfit not exceeding a dollar and a half, whose personal credit at the banks is good for twenty thousand pounds. Mr. Ballou says little or nothing of the system of banking or the currency. Every chartered bank retains on its staff a "schroff," or native cashier, who is paid a large salary. He decides what accounts shall be accepted from natives, and guarantees the payment of these accounts. There are few losses from this source. Polyandry, it is stated, "is still countenanced in Ceylon." This statement must be taken with some qualification. Polyandry largely prevailed in the Kandian district, and the legal effect of marriages contracted before 1871 is still recognized. Since that date an island ordinance has made polyandry illegal, and, with the above exception, it now receives no countenance from the law.

The ruins of Anuradhapura evidence the existence of a large city on the great central plain, but it may be doubted whether the author has not, to use his own phrase, passed beyond the "trail of history" in attempting to reconstruct, so to say, the "buried cities," and in peopling Anuradhapura with a population

of 3,000,000 souls—about equal to the present population of the whole island. He passes a just censure upon the mummeries daily practised at the Temple of Buddha's Tooth in Kandy. "The famous tooth itself," he declares, "is far too large to have ever come from the mouth of a human being, and is probably that of some defunct elephant or crocodile." The systems of irrigation both ancient and modern, which are among the most remarkable that ever existed, are lucidly discussed.

Upon the whole, although 'The Pearl of India' lacks the splendid reveries of 'Eothen,' or the judicious reflections of Dr. Field in his voyage 'From Egypt to Japan,' it is one of the most interesting books on Ceylon yet written. It is not overladen with statistics or encumbered with uninteresting details. The narrative is enriched by comparisons with scenes in other lands, of which the author speaks from personal knowledge.

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*Wild Beasts:* A study of the characters and habits of the elephant, lion, leopard, panther, jaguar, tiger, puma, wolf, and grizzly bear. By J. Hampden Porter. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 1894. Pp. viii, 380, 8vo. Illustrated.

THE author of this interesting volume seems to have been impressed by the uncritical and inaccurate character of much of the literature relating to wild animals, especially that which treats of temperament and disposition, or of their methods of attacking their prey. It is an easy matter, especially if one goes back to the time of Buffon, to find much that is unjustified by real knowledge put forth as fact in journals of adventure and popular works on natural history. But few will have realized, before reading our author's very effective polemic, how much there is of tradition and pure assumption in the prevalent ideas about wild beasts. It is the most natural thing in the world in speaking of them to interpret their actions, as we do those of our fellow-men, as if based on a purely human motive, or to weigh them by the standard of human ethics. The beast that springs from ambush on an unsuspecting traveller is termed "treacherous," though we do not call a gunner treacherous who shoots ducks from a blind. There is a story of a famous elephant who bore the imperial standard on some old Mogul-Mahratta battle field. The day had gone against his side, the color-guard was scattered, retreating squadrons swept past the animal, and his mahout was dead. He stood fast, however, and finally the retreating forces rallied around him and the field was retrieved. Imaginative writers have discovered here a high sense of duty and heroic self-sacrifice, like that of the unrelieved Roman sentinel at Pompeii, who stuck to his post to the last. Actually, the animal had been ordered by his keeper, whom he was accustomed to obey, to stand still, and did so. But there is as much (or little) reason for the ascription of moral sentiments to this elephant as there would have been had he been ordered to run away and obeyed.

Mr. Porter seems to have had and improved many opportunities for observing the larger wild animals. An account of a tame puma which he possessed for a long time, is a valuable contribution to our knowledge of animal psychology, as well as a very interesting story. The discussion of the intelligence, the courage or cowardice, and the feral morality (to coin a phrase) of the particular wild beasts to which the book is devoted, is interspersed with illustrative anecdotes and evidence at first hand. We think no one who follows the author's argument will lay the book down without a clearer conception of the real life of wild animals and a better understanding of their relations to man and to each other.

As regards intelligence and courage in these beasts, the author comes to a conclusion not very different from that of the best students of wild animals of the last twenty years. The chief discrepancy is in regard to the elephant, which Mr. Porter regards as less intelligent, less responsive, and more dangerous than he has hitherto been described. Not only do these animals become insane, but many of them seem to bear a grudge against the human race, and are controlled only by fear. In general, the author believes that there is a wider range of individual characteristics, mind, and temper among animals than is usually supposed; that they modify their habits to meet the changes of the environment, including the presence of trappers and hunters; and that it is unsafe from a few observations, or from observations of them in a few localities, to make wide generalizations on such matters.

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*The Natural Law of Money.* By William Brough. Putnams. 1894.

THIS little book is one of the most meritorious of recent publications upon monetary science. In a remarkably simple and lucid style Mr. Brough shows that the tendency to substitute credit in place of material substances is the distinctive mark of progress in the art of effecting exchanges. Following the great law of action in the line of least resistance, as civilization has advanced men have used and discarded as money a number of substances, such as shells, cattle, iron, copper, tobacco, and silver. Gold has now become the standard money of international trade, but its use as currency is decreasing as compared with that of credit. The more economical and effective instrument displaces that which is less so. Only let men be assured that promis s to pay are well secured, and for the purposes of currency they would rather have them than payment.

As Mr. Brough clearly shows, the action of Government in attempting to make anything "legal tender" is often futile and generally mischievous. Men have their own opinions concerning values, and if they regard the legal-tender money as of inferior value, they are sure to put up the prices of whatever they have to sell. Even if they are assured that the power of Government is sufficient to hold inferior money up to its nominal value, they are constantly uneasy for fear that the will of the Government may not correspond with its power. What the Government can do, as experience (at least modern experience) has proved, is to assay the precious metals and coin them into pieces of convenient size, shape, and fineness. Having done this, and having prescribed that where men are silent as to the medium of exchange required by their contracts, specified coins shall be presumed to have been agreed upon, the duty of Government is discharged. Then men can employ as money whatever they choose, and they will choose what they can employ to the best advantage.

Under such a system as this, silver would be used as money in those regions where it was preferred, and gold and paper would be employed where they were found advantageous. The inconveniences and disasters that have been attendant upon the recent silver agitation would have been avoided had governments not attempted to fix its value. There is unquestionably room for the employment of vast quantities of silver as money. Had it not been given a factitious value by the action of governments in making it a legal tender, it would not have been subjected to the violent fluctuations caused by the change in governmental policy. Its value would have declined normally and gradually if the quantity produced had been found to be greater than the market requirements, and the consequent diminution of the quantity produced would have restored the value. The actual circumstances indicate that a considerable part of the value of silver was due to the fact that the action of Government enabled the owners and producers of it to get more gold in exchange for it than they could have got in a free market.

It seems deplorable that the bimetallists should be so actively employed in endeavoring to force silver as a legal tender upon those who do not want it. They cannot fully accomplish their purpose unless they can secure legislation and judicial decision which will avoid contracts specifically payable in gold by making them payable in silver. But they can accomplish a good deal. As Mr. Brough says, if silver is to be restored at any higher valuation than what it has in the market, a derangement of prices will take place which will result in transferring a large part of the property of the simple to the possession of the astute. The mass of the people would be quite incapable of estimating the value of their goods according to the depreciated standard, and would be likely at first to underestimate the value of their property in the new and cheaper money. They would be likely after a time to overestimate values, and the wicked capitalists would cheat them at both ends of the fluctuation, buying their property of them for less than it was worth, and selling it back to them for more than it was worth. They might even lend them money on bond and mortgage, and then by another gigantic and wholly unsuspected conspiracy restore the gold standard, with all its horrors for the debtor class.

The example of Canada is very effectively presented by Mr. Brough. The gold reserve of that country is but about $13,000,000, but the currency is perfectly safe, and the banks are able not only to supply the wants of Canadian trade, but also to render valuable assistance to our own. Their notes are not secured by the deposit of bonds, but are a first lien upon the capital of the banks, and are further secured by the double liability of the stockholders, by a note-redemption fund, and by the combined guarantee of all the banks. No Canadian bank has failed since 1880, and no suspension of specie payments has taken place for a generation. The system is weakened by the issue of Government notes, which are legal tender, and which the banks are compelled to hold as part of their reserves; but with all its imperfections it compares favorably with our own. According to Mr. Brough's computation, a paper currency of $16.40 per head is maintained in Canada upon a metal basis of only $2.64 per head; while the same proportion of paper in the United States is combined with gold to the amount of $4.16 per head and silver to the amount of $7.20 per head, assigning silver its nominal value. It seems, therefore, that with one third the metallic reserve the Canadian system works very well, while ours, in spite of its expensiveness, works very poorly. It is evident that in modern times what is demanded is neither metallic money nor a large metal reserve. Credit money is the best money, and the examples of Scotland and of Canada show that it can be made safe, while it is perfectly

elastic. We do not need to annex the Dominion, but we might profitably copy its monetary system.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Francis. A Child of the Age. London: John Lane; Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Aldrich, T. B. The Story of a Bad Boy. Illustrated by A. B. Frost. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Allen, C. D. American Book Plates: A Guide to their Study with Examples. Macmillan. $3.50.
Allen, J. L. A Kentucky Cardinal. Harpers. $1.
Allen, Prof. A. V. G. Religious Progress. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Allen, W. B. Lost on Umbagog. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. 75 cents.
Allen, W. C. A Son of the Morning: Incidents in the Life of Richard Davies. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
American Annual of Photography. Scovill & Adams Co. 50 cents.
Axon, W. E. A. The Ancoats Skylark, and Other Verses. London: John Heywood.
Barnes, Profs. Mary S. and Earl. Studies in American History. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Barrett, Frank. The Justification of Andrew Lebrun. Appletons.
Block, Clementina. An Agitator. Harpers. $1.
Bolton, C. K. On the Wooing of Martha Pitkin. Boston: Copeland & Day. 75 cents.
Bramwell, Amy B. The Training of Teachers in the United States. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Braddon, M. E. The Christmas Hirelings. Harpers. $1.25.
Briggs, Prof. C. A. The Messiah of the Gospels. Scribners. $2.
Briggs, W., and Bryan, G. H. A Text-Book of Dynamics. London and New York: W. B. Clive.
Briggs, W., and Bryan, G. H. A Text-Book of Statics. London and New York: W. B. Clive.
Browning, Robert. Complete Works. 9 vols. Macmillan. $20.
Bruce, Wallace. Wayside Poems. Harpers. $2.
Burnett, Mrs. F. H. Piccino, and Other Child Stories. Scribners. $1.50.
Burtsall, Sara A. The Education of Girls in the United States. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Butterworth, Hezekiah. The Great Composers. Revised and enlarged edition. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.
Cesaresco, Countess Evelyn Martinengo. The Liberation of Italy. Scribners. $1.75.
Chandler, Mrs. Izora C. Three of Us. Hunt & Eaton. $2.
*Chatterbox* for 1894. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.25.
Clement, Clara E. Naples, the City of Parthenope. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $3.
Cummings, F. D. Religion and the Bible. *Truth Seeker* Co. 50 cents.
Dement, Isaac S. Baron Kinatas: A Tale of the Anti-Christ. Chicago: M. T. Need. 50 cents.
Dumas, Alexandre. The Three Musketeers. Illustrations by Maurice Leloir. 2 vols. Appletons. $12.
Errera, Prof. Leo. The Russian Jews. Extermination or Emancipation? London: D. Nutt; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Fazy, Henri. Les Suisses et la Neutralité de la Savoie, 1703—1704. Geneva: Georg & Cie.
Fields, Mrs. James T. A Shelf of Old Books. Scribners. $2.50.
Gamlin, Hilda. George Romney and his Art. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Garnett, Edward. An Imaged World: Poems in Prose. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Gaye, Selina. The Great World's Farm. 2d ed. Macmillan. $1.25.
Goodwin, Maud W. The Colonial Cavalier. Illustrated. Lovell, Coryell & Co.
Gordon, Mrs. The Life and Correspondence of William Buckland. Appletons. $3.50.
Gosse, Edmund. In Russet and Silver. Chicago: Stone & Kimball.
Harper's *Young People*. 1894. Harpers. $3 50.
Harte, W. B. Meditations in Motley. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Haynes, Mary S. New Streams in Old Channels: Selected from the Writings of Lyman Abbott, D.D. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.
Hicks, John. The Man from Oshkosh. Chicago: C. H. Sergel Co. $1.25.
Hill, G. B. Harvard College, by an Oxonian. Macmillan. $2.25.
Hilty, Prof. C. Glück. Zweiter Teil. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs.
Hosmer, F. L., and Gannett, W. C. The Thought of God in Hymns and Poems. Second Series. Boston: Roberts Brós. $1.
Jacobs, Joseph. More Celtic Fairy Tales. London: David Nutt; New York: Putnams. $1.75.
Jacobs, Joseph. The Fables of Æsop. Illustrated. Macmillan. $2.
Johnston, R. M. Little Ike Templin, and Other Stories. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.
Jones, H. A. Judah: An Original Play in Three Acts. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Kaplan, A. O. The Prince of Hades. Illustrated. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co.
Lathrop, George P., and Rose H. A Story of Courage: Annals of the Georgetown Convent. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Leclerc, Max. Les Professions et la Société en Angleterre. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Leune, Albert. Difficult Modern French. Boston: Ginn & Co. 85 cents.
Locke, W. J. At the Gate of Samaria: A Novel. Appletons. $1.
Lodge, Harriet N. A Bit of Finesse. Indianapolis: Bowen-Merrill Co.
Loftie, W. J. The Inns of Court and Chancery. New ed. London: Seeley & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Longfellow, Samuel. Hymns and Verses. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Maclaren, Ian. Beside the Bonnie Brier Bush. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Mann, Dr. E. C. The Rights and Duties of Citizens of the United States. F. H. Revell Co. 75 cents.
Marshall, Prof. A. A. Lectures on the Darwinian Theory. Macmillan. $2.25.
Moffett, S. E. Suggestions on Government. Rand, McNally & Co.
Molesworth, Mrs. Blanche: A Story for Girls. Whittaker. $1.50.
More, Paul E. The Great Refusal: Being Letters of a Dreamer in Gotham. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Novicow, J. La Guerre et ses prétendus Bienfaits. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Page, Mary B. Graded Schools in the United States of America. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Pardoe, H. C. Up the Susquehanna. Hunt & Eaton. $1.
Parkhurst, H. E. The Bird's Calendar. Scribners. $1.50.
Parigot, Hippolyte. Génie et Métier. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Paston, George. A Bread and Butter Miss. Harpers. $1.
Paterson, Arthur. The Daughter of the Nez-Percés. G. G. Peck.
Paull, Minnie E. Ruby at School. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.
Pope, Joseph. Memoirs of Sir John Alexander Macdonald, Prime Minister of Canada. 2 vols. Ottawa: J. Durie & Son.
Randall, Paul Astor. Chicago: Donohue, Henneberry & Co. 50 cents.
Repplier, Agnes. In the Dozy Hours. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Ritchie, Mrs. Anne Thackeray. Chapters from Some Unwritten Memoirs. Harpers. $2.
Robinson, Rev. C. S. Simon Peter, his Later Life and Labors. T. Nelson & Sons. $1.25.
Rogers, R. C. The Wind in the Clearing, and Other Poems. Putnams. $1.25.
Samuels, Adelaide F. Father Gander's Melodies for Mother Goose's Grandchildren. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Sharman, H. R. The Power of the Will; or, Success. Boston: Roberts Bros. 50 cents.
Simonds, Prof. W. E. An Introduction to the Study of English Fiction. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.
Smith, Prof. C. L. The Odes and Epodes of Horace. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.60.
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Social Register, New York, 1895. Social Register Association.
Society List and Club Register. Tenth Year. Brentano's. $3.
Southwick, Dr. E. B. The Better World. *Truth Seeker* Co. 50 cents.
Stagg, A. A., and Williams, H. L. A Scientific and Practical Treatise on American Football. Revised to date. Appletons.
Steel, Flora A. Tales of the Punjab, Told by the People. Macmillan. $2.
The Adventures of Ferdinand Tomasso. The Irving Co.
The Adventures of Robinson Crusoe. [The Children's Library.] London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Macmillan. 75 cents.
Todd Mrs. Mabel L. Letters of Emily Dickinson. 2 vols. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.
Walker, Gen. Francis A. General Hancock. [Great Commanders.] Appletons.
Watson, Rev. R. A. The Book of Numbers. [Expositor's Bible.] Armstrong. $1.50.
Waxweiler, Emile. Choses d'Amérique. Brussels: P. Weissenbrugh.
Waxweiler, Emile. Les Hauts Salaires aux Etats-Unis. Brussels: Jean Viselé.


DECEMBER

# EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 6, 1894.

## The Week.

We suppose that it is a purely perfunctory task on the part of the *Tribune* to ascribe to Democratic mismanagement the fact that the Treasury has been running behind since Mr. Cleveland came into office. This accusation is one of the things that are to be looked, for "about this time," like the weather predictions in the old almanacs. Opinions may differ as to the necessity of a Government loan at this time, but if it was necessary, there can be no doubt that it was made so by the Republicans during President Harrison's term of office. It was made so by three specific acts, namely: enlargement of pensions, repeal of duties on raw sugar, and the Sherman silver act. These three things made a difference of $125,000,000 in the Treasury balance sheet. Secretary Foster saw the inevitable result of this combination, and he expected that it would be necessary to issue bonds to keep up the gold reserve before the end of his term of office. This was the reason why he made a speech at the Chamber of Commerce dinner three years ago, declaring his intention to issue bonds, if necessary, under the resumption act of 1875. The fact is that if Mr. Harrison had been reëlected, a bond issue would have been necessary at exactly the same time and in exactly the same way as that of last February. It could not have been avoided. There had been no new tariff legislation up to that time. The McKinley act was still in force; and, so far as tariffs go, the present one has certainly more revenue in it for the Government than the former one had. Now two of the three things which made bond issuing necessary (pension enlargement and sugar repeal) were distinctly Republican measures, and these two account for $100,000,000 of the $125,000,000 of the difference in the Treasury balance-sheet. The responsibility for the Sherman silver act may be divided between the two parties, for while the Republicans passed it, they did so only to avoid something worse which a minority of their party, aided by the Democrats, were trying to force upon them. The measure of the shortage in the Treasury balance caused by this act was the difference between the requirements of the Bland-Allison act of 1878 and those of the Sherman act of 1890, which was about $25,000,000 per year, or only one-fifth of the total shortage.

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Discussion of the Baltimore plan of currency reform in the newspapers has taken a fresh start in consequence of the new Government loan. The St. Paul *Pioneer Press* publishes an interview on the subject with ex-Gov. Merriam of Minnesota, who is himself a banker of distinction. Gov. Merriam approves the plan, but would like to have something added to it to compel, or at least to accelerate, the return of banknotes to their place of issue after the immediate demand for them ceases. He desires some provision for *driving* circulation home, especially the "emergency circulation." He thinks that a special tax might do this if it were heavy enough. The Baltimore plan proposes a "heavy tax," but does not mention any particular sum. The first draft of the plan provided for a tax of 4 per cent. per annum, and it is not likely that Congress would agree to a smaller one. Experience would show whether a heavier one was necessary. But there can be no such thing as real elasticity of the currency while the channels of circulation are clogged with Government legal-tender notes. While these continue, all that we can hope for is that any sudden demand for more currency, like that of midsummer 1893, may be easily and quickly supplied, and that the law of supply and demand may have a chance to work within these limits. What is wanted most of all is a gradual retirement of Government paper and a filling of the vacuum with banknotes. The Government can take its share of the profit by taxation, just as it takes its share of the profit on distillation and on importation. When this condition is reached, most if not all of the trouble which Gov. Merriam justly complains of will disappear. It will then be the interest of each bank to send home the notes of every other bank in order to make room for its own notes. It is this principle, and not the branch-bank system, that the Canadians rely upon to produce elasticity of the currency.

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Mr. W. C. Cornwell of Buffalo furnishes to *Bradstreet's* an article on the experience of Canada during our panic of last year. In the first place, Canada had no panic, because she had no cause of panic. She had no Sherman silver law in operation, pouring millions of Treasury notes into the circulation whether they were wanted or not. The banks, and not the Government, supplied the currency of the country as it was wanted, and redeemed it when it was not wanted. The results of the two different systems stand in glaring contrast to each other. The deposits in the banks of the United States fell off 20 per cent. between May and September, 1893, while those of Canada fell off only 3 per cent. The loans and discounts on our side of the line fell off 12½ per cent., while on the other side the shrinkage was only 1⅓ per cent. Savings-bank deposits in the United States during the same time declined 8 per cent., and would have declined much more but for the enforcement of the sixty-day rule. In Canada these deposits remained stationary or slightly increased. In fact, the only trouble in Canada was due to its proximity to us—it was a sort of induction from the great disturbance in the neighborhood; but Canada fortunately had the means for minimizing even this. Her bank system was so arranged that the demand for more currency could be met on the very day and hour when it came, and did not require the banks to put up $114 in order to get $90 of circulating notes three or four weeks after the event. The difference between the two countries is stated by Mr. Cornwell thus:

> "The business conditions in Canada have been somewhat similar to our own during the time under consideration as to dull trade, etc., but with this vital and all-important difference, that she has had no panic. This is due to difference in conditions as to currency. Canada's banknote circulation, while it increased slightly, was on the 30th of June, 1893 (perhaps our hottest panic date), in round numbers $33,500,000, and in November, 1893, $38,000,000. Banknote circulation is limited by the capital of the banks—in round numbers $60,000,000—so that Canada had all this time a wide leeway which was not used."

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Secretary Herbert's annual report is mostly taken up with the routine work of the department. Its most significant parts relate to the increase of the navy. On this account the country is in to pay $10,111,725 during the present fiscal year, and is to be asked to pay $13,259,302 in 1895-96. This is almost wholly due to the building of battle-ships and cruisers ordered two and three years ago. This Congress would not agree to any new ships, but it has to furnish the money for those voted before, the bills of one Congress being thus presented to the next or the one after the next. Mr. Herbert thinks it an alarming thing that less than $1,000,000 will be required year after next to pay arrears on new ships, and so recommends the construction of three new battle-ships to cost "not exceeding $4,000,000 each." Why do we need these ships? The secretary speaks vaguely about the "standpoint of national defence," though he admits elsewhere that we have not men and officers enough properly to man the ships we now have. His real reason appears in the following passages:

> "As both the establishments making armor for us now have their plants in operation, and their skilled workmen assembled, ready, with the experience they have acquired, to continue the manufacture, the question now seems to present itself for immediate solution, Shall Congress authorize any more armored vessels?
>
> "Wisdom and experience demand that the present well-organized, highly trained, and exceedingly efficient body of mechanics and skilled laborers engaged in the work of naval ship-building shall not, at least, be entirely disbanded. With the stoppage of this work many large plants now at work for the navy will have to shut down either completely or in part, and their corps of skilled workmen employed in the various phases of naval construc-

tion and development be discharged and scattered, while the plant and machinery for the production of vessels-of-war must of necessity become idle and be allowed to deteriorate."

In other words, we must build more ships not because we need them, but because the builders need work. This shows how correct an idea of the situation those naval contractors had in 1891–'92 who said that the Chilian war might not be very bloody, but it would at any rate serve to throw a few good jobs their way.

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The more the report of the Strike Commission is examined, the less favor it receives at the hands of the press. There is a definite number of newspapers in the country that may be said fairly to represent public opinion on non-partisan questions. The Debs strike of last summer was a non-partisan affair. Republicans were not more concerned with it than Democrats. While Gov. Altgeld, a Democrat, encouraged the strikers, President Cleveland, a Democrat, struck the decisive blow which restored law and order in Chicago, and for this he received the eulogies of men of all parties. We have seen no comments on the report of Mr. Carroll Wright and his associates which have any political tinge whatever. All are directed to the merits of the case, and nearly all are condemnatory of the report; not because it is for or against one or the other party to the controversy, but because it is unfair, and because it lays down rules under which society cannot last.

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Compulsory arbitration, of course, involves nothing less than slavery for the workingman. If the Government may force him to labor against his will, we might as well go back to fugitive-slave laws. "Labor" is quick to see this, and at the recent labor congress in Chicago not a word was said in defence of the proposition, while it was stoutly opposed by the president of the Amalgamated Association of Iron and Steel Workers, the president of the American Federation of Labor, the secretary of the United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners, and other representative leaders. As for Carroll D. Wright's absurd scheme of one-sided compulsory arbitration—in which the Government always forces the employer to yield, but never the employee—nobody takes it seriously enough to discuss it. Even the "walking delegate" realizes that the public would never stand that sort of thing.

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Gov. Hogg's requisition on Gov. Flower for the delivery, as fugitives from Texan justice, of men who have neither committed crime in Texas nor fled from that State, is a curious reversion to Southern methods of two generations ago. In 1835 Gov. Gayle of Alabama made a requisition on Gov. Marcy for the delivery of Robert G. Williams, who, he alleged, had "evaded the justice of our laws." Williams was publisher of the *Emancipator* in this city, and his specific offence against the laws of Alabama was his declaration that "God commands, and all nature cries out, that man should not be held as property." For this obvious crime he was duly indicted by the grand jury of Tuscaloosa County, Alabama, and his surrender demanded of Gov. Marcy under article iv. section 2 of the federal Constitution. Gov. Gayle, in making the requisition, showed that he felt somewhat embarrassed, as a jurist and a logician, by the fact that Williams had never been in Alabama, and hence had never "fled therefrom," but he proceeded to argue the case as follows: "It has been improperly admitted by writers in the South who have engaged in discussing this subject that the Constitution and laws of the United States, in regard to fugitives from justice, do not authorize a demand for the delivery of these incendiaries to the States whose laws they have violated. This opinion has been embraced under the erroneous impression that the rules of strict construction which, with great propriety, apply to certain parts of the Constitution, must necessarily apply to all others." This delicious argumentation, which we are sure the innocent Hogg could not improve upon, was contemptuously dismissed by Gov. Marcy, low as was his opinion of the abolitionists.

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Four years later a case came up in a form still more analogous to Hogg's requisition for the Standard Oil people. In 1839 the Governor of Virginia demanded of Gov. Seward the surrender of three colored sailors, freedmen, who, it was alleged, had "stolen" a slave—that is, had helped him to run away. Gov. Seward refused the request, partly on the ground of defective affidavits, but really on the ground that the crime for which surrender of fugitives should be made must be such in the State called upon to make the surrender. It was impossible, according to the laws of New York, that a man could be stolen in the sense in which the word was understood in Virginia, because in New York no human being could own another. Seward's arguments and correspondence on the question cover more than fifty pages in the second volume of his works. This controversy between New York and Virginia, which John Quincy Adams declared to be of "more vital importance to the Union than the Bank, the tariff, the currency, or the land and State-debts questions," is now one of the things which public men and even historians find it convenient to forget. Gov. Hogg may not care anything about such precedents, but the retaliatory action of Virginia in refusing to surrender a forger wanted in New York ought to be of interest to him. How better could he vindicate the sovereignty of Texas than by holding on to every New York criminal with the loving embrace of a brother?

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The city's deliverance from Tammany was naturally and appropriately the burden of most of the Thanksgiving sermons in this city. Bishop Potter was especially impressive in his treatment of the subject, giving his hearers and the public generally an admonition in civic duty which ought to be taken to heart by everybody who wishes to see the city's redemption made permanent. He held that the most appalling danger threatening the church, the community, and the individual was that of the permanent division of religion, patriotism, and morality, and pleaded for their union in all matters of life—public, private, religious, and secular. Of the future in this city, he said:

"Having freed ourselves for the time being from the infamy of an oligarchy as ignorant, as brutal, as corrupt, and as unscrupulous as history has ever known, it is now proposed in certain quarters to make it impossible for it to return, by legislation devised to that end. It is as though a bank, having been robbed by a clever scoundrel who had been intrusted with the custody of the keys, should buy a new lock for its vaults and then go to sleep again. What matters it who made the lock, or how ingenious its mechanism, if, so soon as you have procured it, you hand over your keys to another scoundrel?"

The safety of our institutions, he argued, consists not in the vigilance of our official servants, but in our own. "The whole structure of our civic future," he said, "rests upon two piers: one is the enduring right of every citizen to challenge, to criticise, to scrutinize the servants of the people; the other is that officeholders and placemen are servants." This is not the doctrine of Henry Cabot Lodge, for he deprecates criticism, and looks upon critics as "bad Americans"; but watchfulness and criticism are nevertheless the only safeguards against the misuse of office by even the best of politicians.

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The Committee of Seventy has no difficulty in finding first-rate excuses for its continued existence. Its latest plan of appointing sub-committees to ascertain what is needed and what can be done in the way of improving the city, is most commendable. Some of the subjects to be inquired into are sanitation, school accommodation, water-front improvement, and excise. The various inquiries will be in charge of experts, and the results will be, therefore, of unquestioned value. It would be difficult to hit upon a plan better calculated than this is to arouse public interest and local pride. The various reports will, we presume, be laid before the public, and their consideration cannot fail to draw attention to the city's needs, and thus create a desire to have those needs attended to. We are far behind the other great cities of the world in nearly or quite all the matters which the sub-committees propose to take up, and we are behind simply from the lack of

public interest in them. If the Seventy can arouse this interest, it will take the first step towards the creation of that civic pride which is the city's most crying need.

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The attitude of Platt and of Republican machine politicians generally in this city is the strongest possible evidence of the great need of the Committee of Seventy's continued existence. If the committee were out of the way, the non-partisan public would have no medium through which it could make its wishes known, and no organized method by which to get its desires for better municipal government formulated in legislative measures. Platt would have his own way in all things, and nothing would go before the Legislature save what met his approval. As it is, the committee will be spurred to greater activity by the knowledge of his hostility, and, being forewarned by the revelation of his intentions, will prepare for a fight with him at every point. There is no doubt that a great army of Republican place-hunters has sprung up in this city since election; in every Assembly district it has a large contingent whose members have been holding almost daily meetings for the parcelling out of offices among themselves. These all agree with Platt that Dr. Parkhurst and the Committee of Seventy and the reformers generally who believe that the interest of the city must stand before the interest of any political party, are "all wrong," are "meddling with something that is none of their business," and "ought to be called down." These men really want to set up a Republican Tammany in place of the old Tammany, and they would have their way if they could "shut up" the reformers who are opposing their plans.

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The most interesting action of the Vermont Legislature, which adjourned last week, is the action which it did not take. The professional politicians, who have always been disgusted that the State was persuaded to adopt the Australian ballot, set out to secure the repeal of the law, and appeared to be quite hopeful of success. Vermont being so terribly one-sided in politics, the professionals are there chiefly Republicans, and their main argument was the claim that the secret ballot "hurt the party." One man who appeared before the committee on elections declared that "the system now in vogue lost the Republican party 8,000 votes at the last election," and he seemed to regard this assertion as all the argument that needed to be made for its repeal. But when it came to the point, the courage of the repealers gave out, and no change was made in the system, for fear of the public sentiment which demands its maintenance. The same thing happened in Indiana, another State where the Republicans have claimed that the Australian ballot hurt the party, and have threatened to do away with it, but were finally constrained to cease their opposition. Doubtless it will turn out the same way in Maine, where Chairman Manley of the Republican State committee and that champion Bourbon, Boutelle of the Bangor *Whig*, have been vowing that they would have the system abolished.

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"Bill" Chandler is one of the most bitter partisans in the country, but he cannot stand Parkerson, the New Orleans man who led the mob which slaughtered the Italian prisoners three years ago, and who was recently the honored guest of the Home Market Club in Boston because he has recently turned Republican. The Senator's home organ, the Concord *Monitor*, characterizes the club's action as it deserves. It declares that Parkerson "deserves reprobation by all intelligent and humane persons, deserves hanging for his crime"; condemns those who were responsible for inviting him to the dinner; and says, "So far as we are concerned, we repudiate Mr. Parkerson. We at least will have no fellowship with him as a Republican." This is, of course, only the proper attitude to assume in the matter, but the most remarkable thing about it is that it is left for Chandler to define the position of self-respecting Republicans. So far as we have observed, the Concord *Monitor* is the only Republican newspaper which has thus told the truth about Parkerson. Neither Senator Hoar nor ex-Speaker Reed, who shared in the honors paid him, has said a word to indicate that he felt any shame at meeting this murderer on equal terms.

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John Burns's talk at Cooper Union on Monday shows that he has learned something in the past few years. He now thinks workingmen must not be "impatient" or "want to accomplish everything at once." This speaks for a very chastened and subdued John Burns compared with the one who, with Tom Mann, was going to bring in the millennium immediately by means of great national and international strike confederations. Looking back upon that period of madness—the great dockers' strike in London—when many of the Anglican clergy and Cardinal Manning and the sentimental economists of all shades were going in for the right to work, and "the living wage," and all that, Mr. Frederick Greenwood justly says that "it was a monstrous dream, beyond all possibility of realization, but not beyond the range of attempt, however disastrous the result for labor, capital, and all concerned." At that time, as Mr. Greenwood says, "there were in England many Thinkers, Intellectualists—men apparently provided with the whole apparatus of reasoning and reflection—who rejoiced at the prospect of what could be done by an amalgamated strike confederation," and who expected to create out of hand a "flourishing population of work-people, with higher wages than could ever be hoped for without such coercion, and with fewer hours of labor into the bargain." But the rough battering of a few years' experience has shattered that pretty fancy.

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Another truth which the running up against hard facts has been calculated to teach, and has, we believe, in a good degree taught, is that the clergy and other economists by way of the feelings, who have so bitterly denounced political economy, have really been denouncing their best friend. M. Claudio Jannet writes with great force in the last number of *La Réforme Sociale:* "To-day the orthodox political economy—that is to say, the political economy which is scientific, not fanciful—is the most powerful ally of religion in its struggle against socialism, which is going to be the great heresy of the next century." This truth was strikingly embodied in a manifesto on the industrial situation and the labor question in Belgium lately put forth by the "General Association of Catholic Employers." They appeal especially to the clergy to work together with them as well for the defence of property as for that of industry, and to refrain from "venturing along a perilous road." If the employers are dependent upon the good will and coöperation of the clergy, say these Catholic Belgian manufacturers, it is no less true that the clergy can do nothing effective in the social sphere without the support of the captains of industry. We imagine that the recent political developments in Belgium, with their sharp arraying of socialists against clericals, will make the latter somewhat more teachable on this subject.

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Ex-Minister Stevens emerges from the retirement which no one would willingly disturb, to urge the annexation of Hawaii at once and without asking any more questions. There is no use, he says, in waiting till the American people want to annex. Not so did we get Florida or Louisiana or "our vast frontage," as he calls it, along the Pacific. Various foreign and pernicious influences are waxing in power day by day in the islands, and nothing but "prompt annexation" can make virtue and true Americanism triumph there. These are the Hon. John's ostensible reasons, somewhat vaguely expressed, it must be admitted. His real reasons, or at any rate the real reasons of the men in Hawaii who are getting nervous over delay and American indifference, are set forth in a late issue of the Honolulu *Star*. This is the most intensely American and patriotic of all the papers published in Hawaii, and it says of the beautiful free institutions founded there that no one "could hold the republic together for twenty-four hours without the cement of the political idea of annexation," adding that "the republic and annexation are inseparable."

*THE DISAPPEARANCE OF ISSUES.*

In the speculation as to the issues which may enter into the Presidential contest of 1896, one occasionally hears the suggestion that the attitude of the Republican party is settled in advance, and that its platform must necessarily endorse the principles of the McKinley law. Consistency requires that the party shall stand by the high-tariff theory, it is said, as though this argument settled the question. In point of fact, nothing in our political history is better established than the ease with which parties discard even those issues upon which they have laid most stress. Over and over again it has happened that one of the great political organizations has declared the establishment of a certain principle absolutely essential to the well-being of society, and within a few years has accepted the very opposite of this principle without a protest. A single overwhelming defeat has sometimes sufficed to bring about such a revolution.

The Republican party in Iowa twelve years ago took up prohibition, and in canvass after canvass stood by it as a fundamental principle of party faith. In one platform, only five years ago, they declared that "prohibition has become the settled policy of the State," that "there should be no backward step," and that "we stand for the complete enforcement of the law." They were beaten in that campaign, however, and beaten again two years later, when a Democratic Governor was re-elected upon an anti-prohibition platform. Thereupon the Republican managers concluded to repudiate prohibition, Instead of treating it as "the settled policy of the State," and calling for "the complete enforcement of the law," they declared that "prohibition is no test of Republicanism," and, having recovered control of the State, proceeded virtually to repeal the law, so far as the chief centres of population were concerned, by enacting a new statute which allows any community to have saloons where public sentiment sustains them.

In 1890 the Republicans of Wisconsin passed a compulsory education law which they pronounced of the greatest importance to the commonwealth. Their platform characterized the law as "wise and humane in all its essential purposes," and declared that "we are opposed to its repeal." The campaign was fought on this issue, and the Republicans were overwhelmingly beaten, losing both the governorship and the Legislature. The Democrats promptly repealed the law. In the next campaign the Republicans surrendered unconditionally. Instead of standing by the "wise and humane" principle, they adopted a resolution declaring that "we regard the educational issue of 1890 as permanently settled in this State, not to be revived in any of its phases by the Republican party."

We have seen the same thing in national politics. For some years after the civil war the Democrats denounced the reconstruction legislation of Congress as intolerable, and pledged themselves to fight without ceasing for its overthrow. In the Presidential campaign of 1868 they adopted a resolution declaring that "we regard the reconstruction acts, so called, of Congress, as such, as usurpations, and unconstitutional, revolutionary, and void." Within two years Vallandigham had told the party that they must accept the inevitable, take a new departure, and give up their fight against public sentiment. By 1872 the reconstruction issue had dropped out of Democratic platforms.

During the past month we have seen the total disappearance of one issue upon which the Republicans have long laid great stress, and which has been prominent in their national platforms for many years. Federal interference with elections in the States has been one of the chief articles of Republican faith, and the attempt to pass a "force bill" pushed by Henry Cabot Lodge was the last desperate effort of the Harrison Administration before the Democrats came into possession of the House of Representatives by the elections of 1890. All of the federal election laws were repealed by Congress at its last session, and the recent elections were held throughout the South without any interference from Washington. For the first time since reconstruction days, the Republicans carried State after State in the South—West Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee—besides congressional districts in other States which had been Democratic for twenty years; and there is entire unanimity of opinion among the Republicans and Democrats of that section that the chief agency in this great change was the repeal of the federal election laws, which broke down the old race line and enabled the whites to divide in the South in the same way as they do in the North, but as the Southern whites never would so long as the old sectional issue was maintained. Even the blindest Republican can see the point of this. Lodge himself says that a man would be a fool who should ever again propose a force bill, and Harrison's home organ, the Indianapolis *Journal*, cites the recent Southern elections as a conclusive argument against any further attempt in the way of such legislation as Harrison so strongly urged only four years ago.

It will involve no greater change for the Republicans to abandon high protection. Indeed, it is an easier thing to do. Force bills were defended on the ground that they were absolutely necessary to establish a principle which the national platform of 1888 declared to be "the foundation of our republican government." When the foundation-stone is rejected, it need not be a difficult task to get rid of part of the superstructure. The Republicans are abandoning the force-bill issue because they see that the people are as weary of it as they were of the reconstruction issue a quarter of a century ago. They will abandon the high tariff as readily in 1896 if they find that the people will not have any more of it. There is to-day every indication that the new tariff will work so well during the next two years that the voters will have no patience with any proposal to restore McKinleyism. Even McKinley himself begins to see the way the tide is running, and tells the *Tribune* that "great power brings great responsibilities," and that "tariff legislation of the future will be moderate and conservative." Evidently the high-tariff issue is destined to disappear along with the sectional issue, and the Republicans will not fret any more over their lack of consistency in accepting the position of their opponents than the Democrats did when they made up their minds to accept reconstruction. The logic of events is unanswerable.

*THE NATIONAL CURRENCY.*

The report of the comptroller of the currency proposes some radical changes in the monetary policy of the country. Most important of all is its recommendation that the legal-tender notes be retired. In this policy the President and the secretary of the treasury concur, but with some differences of detail in the arrangements for carrying it into effect. As the law requires the comptroller to report directly to Congress and not to the secretary, these differences of detail do not betoken any want of harmony in the department, and the differences, so far as we can make them out, are not very important. We shall direct our attention at present to the comptroller's report.

An official recommendation that the policy of requiring bond security for the issue of banknotes be abandoned, that the banks be allowed to issue notes against their assets and in a certain proportion to their capital, and that the Government's legal-tender notes be retired, might be justly considered the bravest that ever came from the comptroller's office. The movement of public opinion during the past two years, and especially the adoption of the Baltimore plan by the American Bankers' Association, have undoubtedly smoothed the way for these recommendations, but it is none the less creditable that the comptroller has seized the opportunity to give an official sanction to the movement.

While the execution of any plan depends upon its details, the value of it is not bounded by such limits. If it sets people to thinking who had not thought before, and if it confirms those who were previously inclined to agree with it, it accomplishes a great benefit. So much we may confidently look for. What the Baltimore plan is, our readers already know. The arguments in its favor are repeated by the comptroller, who gives statistical information showing that if that plan had been in operation from the beginning of the national banking system there could have

been no loss to the note-holders or to the Government through failed-bank notes.

The comptroller's plan for retiring greenbacks is in substance that the banks be allowed, in the first place, to issue circulating notes, to the amount of 50 per cent. of their paid-up unimpaired capital, against their assets, fortified by a safety fund, and that then they be allowed to issue 50 per cent. more by depositing an equal amount of legal-tender notes in the Treasury which shall be held there until the banks go into voluntary liquidation or insolvency, in which case the Government shall cancel the legal-tender notes held for the retiring bank, and then redeem its outstanding notes on presentation. The issuing of the first 50 per cent. of circulating notes is to be made conditional upon the bank taking out the second 50 per cent. and depositing the corresponding sum in legal-tenders.

The working of this plan would depend upon its profit to the banks operating under it, and the profit would depend upon the question whether they could keep out circulation to the amount of 100 per cent. of their capital, or a sufficient part thereof to make the whole operation a paying investment. At first blush it would seem that this might be done, since the second 50 per cent. of notes merely takes the place of an equal amount of greenbacks. But in the past history of the country it has been found that banks cannot keep out circulating notes to the extent of more than 50 per cent. of their capital under the conditions of specie payments and free competition. If we suppose that the retirement of say $50,000,000 greenbacks by deposit under the plan has created a vacuum to be filled, it does not follow that it will be filled by those who have made the deposit. It may be filled by anybody who chooses to start a bank; and although the conditions of starting a bank are alike to all, it might turn out that all of them together could not keep circulation outstanding beyond 50 per cent. of their capital. In that event there would be no profit in the business of issuing notes. Still, this is a question not to be dogmatized upon. Practical bankers are the best persons to pronounce an opinion upon it. There is also the objection to any plan for retiring greenbacks without cancelling them, that Congress will be importuned to reissue them, or an equal amount, and that in times of severe stringency the demand might be irresistible. Notwithstanding these criticisms of detail (for criticism of detail will lie against every plan), we consider it a notable victory for sound principles of finance that such a report should be sent to Congress, and this quite irrespective of the question whether the present Congress approves it or not.

## *THE RESPONSIBILITY OF READERS.*

Mr. Hall Caine delivered an address at Edinburgh a few days ago on "Moral Responsibility in Fiction." His view of the novelist's function is serious and sober enough, and we have no exceptions to take to it. If anything in his remarks could be considered startling, it would be his description of the novel of the future, which will be, he thinks, a sort of compound of the penny newspaper and the Sermon on the Mount. The new journalism united to the New Testament may possibly be conceived of by an active imagination; but that the resulting mixture could be called a novel, or in any way classified with books whose aim is to amuse or entertain, is too much for mortal credulity. Mr. Caine, we suspect, does not know what the new journalism really is—evidently laboring under an insular prejudice and ignorance as regards that subject.

But upon neither that nor any other part of his address do we mean to dwell; we refer to it only as one among a great number of similar deliverances. Almost every writer of any note has, in fact, at one time or another had his say upon the duties and responsibilities of authors. If novelists have done this oftener and more solemnly than other members of the writing profession, it is probably because novelists nowadays lead the rest in solemnity, and take the world and themselves more seriously. This is not their fault. They have long been encouraged by the public in their tacit assumption that the reading world is at their mercy. The very point of their earnestness and of their appeals to each other to take themselves sternly in hand and make the world wiser and better by their stories, is the quiet inference that there is no help or escape for their readers if they wickedly give themselves a loose rein. It is not strange, we say, that writers should draw this inference, for readers have long taken it for granted. The plea of the latter, whenever made public, has been for good fiction, but in the background has all the while been the saving clause, "Anyhow, give us fiction, good or bad, for fiction we must have."

It is time, we think, that the responsibility of the reader should be a little more insisted upon. He has a complete remedy in his own hands, if he did but know it. In other departments of artistic production he knows it and uses it without any hesitation. He does not get on his knees to theatre-managers and beg them to give wholesome and enjoyable performances, all the while tacitly conceding that he will go in any case. He does not beg painters to avoid producing meretricious or repulsive canvases, admitting that he will buy them just the same. If the play is bad, he does not show his face at it; if the paintings are lurid or hideous, he turns his back on them. But what does he do about the books which he does not approve of, or the newspapers which disgust him? Why, the simple soul buys them and reads them, and goes off to his club to lament the degeneracy of literature and the unscrupulousness of journalism.

There never was a more mistaken sense of helplessness. The reader has the whole thing in his own hands. He can knock all the theorizings of the writer into a cocked hat by one snap of his purse. Let Zola rage and Valdés imagine a vain thing; the reader (who is the buyer) may laugh at them, if he will, and hold them in derision. Hawthorne frankly declared that he would never have put pen to paper were it not for the hard cash to be had by it. If this was true of a master of pure art, how much more must it be of our latter-day pornographists-in-waiting? Sales are the *ultima ratio* with them, and the sales are in the control of the reader. How foolish of him, then, to rail at them for falling short of their duty to the public and their art. What about his duty? Is he bound to take a dive into a sewer simply because it is opened at his feet? People say they must read contemporary literature, good or bad. But we do not see the necessity of that, as the minister of state said to the lampooner who declared that he must live. In every language there are books enough, contemporary or other, to occupy the time and satisfy the wholesome tastes of the most voracious readers; and the sooner they determine to let the ill-smelling literature alone, the sooner will it be overpast.

One application of the responsibility of readers we must make, however delicate the ground may appear to be for a newspaper writer to tread upon. There is a great deal of foolish and futile protest against bad newspapers, just as there is against bad books—foolish and futile because the protesting readers have the remedy in their own hands, but do not use it. How common it is to hear it said by respectable men, in regard to a certain type of journalism: "Yes, we admit the editor is thoroughly unscrupulous. His columns are evidently for sale. His jocose treatment of crime and wickedness is, indeed, outrageous, and we would not take his paper into our houses for any consideration. But then he has some bright writers on his staff, who do say amusing things, and are so consistently malicious and spiteful that they are actually funny. One really has to buy the paper to see what they will say next."

That is all that the unscrupulous editor wants. You can despise and distrust him as much as you please, but if you buy him, he is well content. Respectable readers who "must" get his paper to see what new deviltry he is up to, are the men who keep him alive. If they would taboo his paper in club and office and on the cars as resolutely as they do in their homes, he would come to a bad end in a year, disappearing, as ghosts used to, with a strong smell of sulphur in the air. As long as they do not, they are really responsible for him and all his works, and their deprecating remarks about him and his evil deeds are a waste of breath. In an age of oral teaching, the Scriptures solemnly warned men to take heed what they heard. In an age of print and paper that

means to take heed what we read. The responsibility of the reader is as grave, in its way, as that of the writer.

## LIFE IN THE NORTH ATLANTIC.

OBERLIN, November 17, 1894.

UPON reaching Newfoundland, the ordinary tourist finds himself in a new world. Though the island has an area of 40,000 square miles, its population of 200,000 is limited to the coast, being almost wholly dependent upon the sea for a livelihood. The bustling centre of this new world is St. John's, a city of 30,000 inhabitants, whose importance is well shown in the fact that, though twice during the century it has been almost completely consumed by fire, yet, phœnix-like, it has each time arisen from the desolation more prosperous than before. Projecting far out into the Atlantic, this commodious harbor affords for ships of every class a convenient refuge, and abundant facilities for repairs of every sort in case of accident.

Nominally Labrador is a part of Canada. But so many of the inhabitants are from Newfoundland, and are in Labrador for temporary purposes, that the Government is turned over to the doughty little island province, which so far has refused to join the Dominion. In Labrador, too, as in Newfoundland, the population is limited to the seashore, and is wholly devoted to fishing. Only about 5,000 can be reckoned as permanent residents. These, in little hamlets, are scattered along the coast for several hundred miles, in conditions of life that seem to the outsider forbidding enough, but which are accepted without complaint by the inhabitants themselves. They are nearly all Protestants, and speak the English language with purity. Everywhere the aspect of the coast is barren in the extreme. No timber is in sight as one sails along the shore, and in the interior what little timber there is in the river valleys has little or no commercial value. Snow lingers throughout the entire summer in protected places, even down to the water's edge, while a long even line of water-washed rocks bears enduring testimony to the great height and violence of the waves that beat upon the shore during the frequent periods of stormy weather.

The scanty permanent population of Labrador is reinforced during summer by 25,000 or 30,000 fishermen from Newfoundland. For the most part these come in families; the father (and sometimes the mother) and the older children, both boys and girls, manage to combine pleasure with profit, and to make the fishing season a kind of summer vacation. The house occupied is rude and has scanty furniture, yet is not much less comfortable than one finds at many of the "Chautauqua assemblies" in the United States. Still, everything shows that the main purpose is business, and not pleasure. The girls do the cooking and keep the house; being ready, however, to devote several hours of the day to assist in cleaning the fish which the male members of the household bring in to harbor. The Government of Newfoundland and the religious and charitable organizations, both of the province and of the mother country, look as well as they can after the interests of this temporary population. A line of mail steamers is maintained, running once in two or three weeks from St. John's as far up the coast as the ice will permit. Temporary post-offices are established at every landing-place, but one will not find them always supplied with postage-stamps. Usually he will pay his postage, and trust the fisherman's daughter to purchase the stamps when the steamer comes along. In the winter season, when all the inlets and bays are frozen over, and the population has shrunk to its minimum number, the mail is carried at infrequent intervals on dog-sledges, and, strange as it may seem, is distributed from house to house. This, however, is not so difficult as might be supposed, since nearly everybody lives either along the shore or some miles back in tempo rary houses made in the timber.

The isolation of many of these families is calculated to touch the sympathies of the transient visitor. It is not unusual to meet grown-up young people who have never been ten miles away from the little settlement to which they are anchored on these barren shores. Yet upon investigation the seclusion is not so great as it seems. Trading vessels frequently call during the summer season, not only from the provinces, but from all parts of Europe. At the "Punch-Bowl," where there is not even a permanent settlement, we found two ships awaiting cargoes of fish for the Catholic populations of Spain and southern Italy. Little chapels are built on conspicuous points, where religious services are held pretty regularly by laymen, and occasionally by clergymen, who are provided with a special boat to make their long tours. A flagstaff adjoins the chapel, up which a flag is run as a convenient signal to notify the scattered population of the advent of the welcome missionary. A hospital is maintained at Battle Harbor, to which the unfortunate fishermen have ready access by means of the frequent passage of vessels of various kinds up and down the coast. There is, to be sure, no telegraphic communication with the outside world, and the newspapers received are a long way behind date. Yet interest in the outside world is maintained, and the political questions agitating Europe and America are everywhere intelligently discussed.

Reference to the ice which encumbers the coast of Labrador until late in the summer introduces us to the most impressive of all the phenomena affecting human life in the North Atlantic. Though in the latitude of London, the southeastern portion of Labrador has the climate of the North Cape in Lapland, several degrees above the arctic circle. This is caused by the cold current of water which comes down from Baffin Bay, laden with innumerable icebergs of immense size and with endless fields of pack-ice. The presence of so much ice in so low a latitude is both a cause and an effect; for while to some extent the ice lowers the temperature of the water, the low initial temperature of the current is a principal reason why the ice floats so far south without melting. Two important services are rendered to the inhabitants by this ice-laden current. From the far north it brings down vast numbers of seals and a few polar bears, affording a livelihood to great numbers of adventurous seamen who come up from St. John's in the spring months before the fishing season begins, and venture out upon the floating ice to capture these valuable animals, and secure their pelts and their abundant supplies of valuable oil. Yet it is easy to see that the present increased activities in this direction are a sure precursor of serious ultimate disappointment. While the number of sealers is, according to the Malthusian law, tending to increase with great rapidity, the number of seals is diminishing. According to all reports, there is such a pressure for employment in St. John's that all the sealing-vessels in the spring are overcrowded, so that none of them obtain adequate compensation for their labor and risk. The great abundance of "baby seals" on sale for ornaments in the shops of St. John's has an ominous look for the future of the species, even in the far north; for it is sure evidence that the small profit to the people from each animal is obtained only at the expense of the death of both the mother and her offspring.

But Labrador is the present limit of travel by regular lines even in the summer-time. To cross the rough seas of Davis Straits and reach the coast of Greenland a ship must be chartered for the purpose, or the traveller must go by the way of Copenhagen, and take advantage of the opportunity offered by the two or three vessels that sail from there in the interest of the Danish Trading Company, which controls everything in Greenland. Possibly, however, one might get a chance to reach the extreme end of southern Greenland by the freight steamers from Philadelphia which go to Ivigtut for the products of the kryolite-mines, which are there operated with profit.

In many respects the conditions of life in southern Greenland are similar to those in Labrador. There is the same encumbrance of polar ice, but, strange to say, it comes from the south, and not from the north, being a continuation of the Spitzbergen ice-floe, which, having coursed along the eastern shore, and having rounded Cape Farewell, is deflected northward through the influence of a branch of the Gulf Stream, which projects upward in the centre of Davis Straits. In crossing from Labrador to Greenland, vessels get clear of the Labrador ice about 100 miles out, and encounter no more until within fifty or sixty miles of the Greenland coast. The driftwood which is cast upon the shores of southern Greenland, amounting to several hundred cords a year, is mostly the product of Siberian forests, but the influence of the Gulf Stream is distinctly witnessed to by the logs of mahogany which have been found floating near the centre of Davis Straits almost as far up as the latitude of Disco. So well known is the course of these currents that the Danish vessels avoid the ice by sailing about 100 miles south of Cape Farewell, and keeping at the same distance west of the shore until reaching the vicinity of the arctic circle, where the coast is always free from ice in the summer.

The differences between the conditions of life in southern Greenland and in northern Greenland are summed up in those connected with the presence or the absence of the dog. South of Disco Bay the dog is almost unknown. Here his company would be an unmitigated nuisance, while north of Disco Bay and along the whole coast of Labrador he is a necessity as well as a nuisance. The reason of this difference is, that in southern Greenland the fiords and bays never freeze over sufficiently to make it safe to travel upon the ice, while in northern Greenland for full half of the year all the interior and coast waters are frozen, so as to preclude travel by any other means than dog-sledges. As a result of this condition of things, the isolation of the colonies in south Greenland is even greater than of those in the north. Nansen remained the entire winter at Godthaab without their having heard of his arrival at Sukkertoppen, 100 miles to the north. Yet the highly cultivated Danish officials seem rather attracted than repelled by this isolation. Supplied beforehand with two years' stock of provisions, furnished with snug houses and with clothing adapted to the climate, and surrounded by a confiding colony of natives needing their advice and protection, they pass the

winter months with their books and papers, in a manner that to many will seem almost ideal. At Sukkertoppen the official colony consisted of two men, with their wives and young children, and a governess, who was the daughter of the professor of Sanskrit at Copenhagen. The ladies could all speak English fluently, while the library was generously supplied with English books and periodicals. Thus equipped, they look upon the absence of news from the outside world for more than half the year as no serious hardship. It is related of one of the governors at Upernavik, which is visited by the Government vessel but once in a year, that he maintained the semblance of civilization more completely by having his daily paper brought to him every morning 365 days behind date.

The wreck of the *Miranda* upon the Greenland coast last summer afforded its passengers the great privilege of coming home upon a Gloucester fishing-schooner, and of gaining an insight into the character and life of that large section of our own population who still maintain the fishing industries of the country. This schooner (the *Rigel*) was of only 100 tons burden, but it was a beautiful craft, built after the pattern of a celebrated racing-yacht designed by the late Mr. Burgess. The captain and crew were all from Gloucester and vicinity, and in their dialect and humorous sense were excellent representatives of the hardy yeomanry among whom James Russell Lowell spent his boyhood, and whose characteristics are so faithfully portrayed in the 'Biglow Papers.' There were eighteen in the schooner, and all were interested directly in the success of their summer's catch—the profits being shared in proportions agreed upon at the start. When asked who was the first mate, the captain replied, that they were all first mates, and that any of the men could run the ship. The captain himself was never heard to give a peremptory command. But it was noticeable that when he said, "Hadn't you better haul up the topsail?" the topsail was always promptly hauled up, and when he said, "I guess you had better haul down the Jumbo," it was no sooner said than done, and the big canvas went down.

Early in the spring this crew had left the home port for the north coast of Iceland, where they had fished for halibut during the months of May and June, and then had come around to the west coast of Greenland to finish their season's work. It was while off the coast in the vicinity of Holstenborg that one of the "kayakers" who had been sent out with the news of our distress found them. The readiness with which they responded to our request for help, and the close intimacy which in our restricted quarters we were compelled to have with them for the next two weeks, were well calculated to raise our estimate of human nature, as well as to increase our knowledge of the life, the habits, the trials, and the compensating rewards of a most important and interesting portion of our fellow-citizens. The more intimate the knowledge which one gets of the people who live in these unfrequented portions of the world, and of the conditions to which they have adapted themselves, the less is he inclined to pity them, and the more to admire or even envy, for the struggle of life develops both physical and mental qualities which enable their possessors to meet the necessary ills of their condition with composure, and to luxuriate in the features of their existence which make the region specially attractive to the tourist and the adventurer.

G. Frederick Wright.

## PASQUIER'S NAPOLEONIC MEMOIRS.—X.

Paris, November 22, 1894.

How differently men are judged at different times. If we are not over-indulgent towards our contemporaries, we are too severe. We have no exact rule, and we are led away by our passions. I take Chancellor Pasquier as an example. At the present moment we are all reading his memoirs, and, though we do not find in them a great or powerful writer, we are struck by his veracity, by the weighty character of his testimony; and, as he speaks of the most extraordinary events of modern times and of the most extraordinary man who has in many centuries ascended the stage of history, we shall certainly give a permanent place to these memoirs in our library. Pasquier was judged more severely thirty years ago, before his memoirs had received any publicity. Curiously enough, while I was engaged in reading the fifth volume, which has just now appeared, I fell accidentally upon this passage in the 'Journal des Goncourt'—a journal which will remain a curious document on the literature and the literary men of our age:

*Monday*, April 11 [1864].—At Magny's [the restaurant where the little group consisting of Goncourt, Gautier, Sainte-Beuve, etc., met twice a month]. Duke Pasquier is on the carpet.

—A very little man who has grazed very great things, shall we say?

—Well! you are very hard, says Sainte-Beuve with a sigh, and with his gesture of ecclesiastical repose. And then the defender, the champion of this memory, begins to turn it over in all directions: I will not precisely speak of him as a littérateur. In the society of Chateaubriand he was hardly tolerated. . . . In Joubert's Letters they have suppressed all the pleasantries in which Joubert covered Pasquier with contempt. . . . And, after all, you cannot say anything stronger than what Rémusat said before me, at Madame X.'s: 'Pasquier understands nothing of anything,' and, after having enumerated all that Pasquier was ignorant of, he added: 'He is only capable of being the minister of all that.' And then the academical eulogies . . . the venerable priest . . . all that Dufaure has told us. . . . Well, here is the truth. Two hours before his death he had the 'Contes Philosophiques' of Voltaire read to him. He had spent all his lifetime in citing verses from the *Pucelle*—always wrong. It is so!

—Ah, said I to Sainte-Beuve, if I die before you, may God preserve me from being mourned by you.

Sainte-Beuve's cat's paw was often exercised in this way; we must also make allowance for the freedom of an after-dinner conversation. We have now to deal with Pasquier only as a historian, or rather as a contributor to the history of his time. The first four volumes of his memoirs certainly deserve much attention; in the fifth volume we enter upon a less interesting period, and I must confess that to go over the years of the Restoration extending from 1820 to 1824 is hard work. The diplomatic history of this period has still some interest. After the fall of Napoleon the sovereigns of Europe formed a Holy Alliance against revolutionary ideas; and it was more or less understood that they would unite their action and combine their efforts against revolution in countries where a government was in danger of being upset. The Congresses of Troppau and Laybach were called against the revolutionists in the kingdom of Italy and the Two Sicilies. Pasquier furnishes many details on the subject of these two Congresses, and shows how the secret divisions of the courts counteracted their avowed intentions; further, how the two principles of intervention and non-intervention came slowly into conflict.

The leading spirit of the time was Prince Metternich; he became by degrees, but not without difficulty, master of the Emperor Alexander's mind. Alexander began life as a liberal. The Empress Catherine had given him for a tutor a Swiss, Laharpe, a republican and a philosopher. During his terrible struggle against Napoleon, Alexander found himself the representative of the idea of national independence. When he entered France, he astonished the French by his generosity; he used all the influence he possessed upon the proud spirit of Louis XVIII. in favor of the grant of a constitution to France. He himself gave a constitution to the Poles of the kingdom of Warsaw. His natural liberalism was fortified and warmed by a curious religious mysticism. He became an adept of a Livonian lady, Mme. Krüdener, who was a sort of Mme. Guyon of the North—a prophetess, a believer in the doctrine of Quietism. Pasquier gives us curious particulars on this point; he says that

"A woman, Mme. Bouche (she was no longer young, and lived in the Pyrenees, near Bayonne), had in 1818 and 1819 communicated to the Emperor conversations which she pretended to have had with the Holy Virgin and with the archangel Saint Michael. The Russian ambassador in Paris received an order to search for Mme. Bouche and to give her the means to go to St. Petersburg. As soon as she arrived, the Emperor went to see her very often. Their relations lasted more than a year; she then went back to France with a pension and with considerable advantages."

The revolutions in Naples and in Spain disturbed not a little the philanthropic and mystic Emperor. With the same versatility which he had shown in his dealings with Napoleon, he began to warn the Poles, in opening their Diet, against the dangers of liberalism. The Diet unfortunately justified his dissatisfaction by its turbulence; at the same moment and without any apparent reason, there was a mutiny at St. Petersburg in the favorite regiment of the Guard in which the Emperor had served as a young man. Alexander from that moment threw himself completely on the side of the repressive policy of which Metternich was the avowed and constant advocate.

At Troppau, Metternich represented the revolution in Naples as a mere episode, as part of a general plot of the revolutionary party. The Austrian army, assembled in upper Italy, would soon, in his opinion, get the better of it. Alexander readily entered into a plan when it was of great magnitude; it was not difficult to persuade him that the French liberals were the moral allies of the insurgents in Italy and in Spain, and he at once withdrew the support which he had for a time given to the liberals, and became more favorable to those who were called the ultras. Metternich, in the solitude of Troppau, established very intimate relations between Alexander and his own Emperor, Francis, a quiet, simple, and modest man; he kept the King of Prussia completely under his influence; he found a very valuable ally in Nesselrode, a German by birth, of limited capacity, but well versed in the details of diplomacy.

Metternich opened the conferences at Troppau by reading a memoir on the general situation of affairs in Europe. He maintained, as "in conformity with the strictest principles of public law," the axiom in virtue of which each state has a right to intervene in the changes of the political system which take place in a neighboring state, when these changes are of such a nature as to affect its own just interests and compromise the very basis of its existence. Such an axiom opened the door to all the armed interventions of Austria in Italy, and this was Metternich's

real object; but he was careful, especially with a view to gaining over Alexander, to conceal it behind the veil of a general theory. Pasquier, who was minister of foreign affairs at the time, was not favorable to the principle of intervention, or, at least, to its generalization; the English Foreign Office equally felt the dangers of the Metternichian theory. Pasquier makes it clear how strong already was Italy's aversion to the Austrian rule. How slowly history moves on. Aspirations towards unity were created in the peninsula by the French victories, by the establishment of the Kingdom of Upper Italy, by the substitution of Murat for the Bourbons. After the downfall of Napoleon they were stifled for a time, but were never satisfied till Victor Emmanuel formed his alliance with Napoleon III.

The Prince of Carignano, who became afterwards Charles Albert, was engaged in a conspiracy against the Austrian rule as early as 1820; the movement was to be purely military. The heads of the conspiracy were San Marzano, Santarosa, Collegno, and Lisio. The arrest of the Prince della Cisterna, who was in the secret of the plot, threw the Prince of Carignano into a state of great irresolution. The orders given were countermanded, but the garrison of Alexandria, following the orders first given, revolted, and the young noblemen, San Marzano, Collegno, Santarosa, Lisio, were obliged to join in the pronunciamiento of the troops. The Prince was suspected by all, by his brother the King, and very unjustly by some of his accomplices. The military chiefs of the rebellion at Alexandria had proclaimed their fidelity to the King, their hostility to Austria: "War against Austria, and the Spanish Constitution; these are our demands." The King found no other solution for his difficulties than to abdicate and to proclaim the Prince of Carignano Regent for his own brother Charles Felix. The Regent proclaimed a constitution similar to that which the Cortes had just adopted in Spain. "After the disembarkation of Bonaparte at Cannes," says Pasquier, "no event caused so great an impression in Europe as this revolution in Piedmont." The end of it is well known. While the Piedmontese liberals were preparing against an attack from Austria, Charles Albert, frightened by the violence of the Carbonari, by the attitude of the great Powers, left Turin in the night, with the guards, the light artillery, and two regiments hostile to the revolution. He joined at Novara Count della Torre, who had not allowed his garrison to join the revolutionary movement; he resigned his function as Regent, and joined King Charles Felix at Modena. Charles Felix refused to see him, and sent him to Tuscany. The Piedmontese revolution was doomed from that moment, and Gen. della Torre admitted the Austrians to Novara and himself entered Turin with his troops. The Austrians entered also without difficulty the Neapolitan States, and reëstablished the King on his throne.

The counter-revolution, as it was called, in opposition to the revolution, was equally successful in Spain; but there it was the part of France to become its instrument, and, by a strange irony of destiny, the Prince of Carignano was one of those who shared in the great expedition to Spain, which ended in the complete defeat of the revolutionary party. It has been a subject of great astonishment for many minds to compare the difficulties which Napoleon encountered in Spain with the easy intervention of the army under the Duc d'Angoulême, which went almost without opposition from the Pyrenees to Cadiz, and ended a bloodless campaign by the storming of the Trocadero. The behavior of the Prince of Carignano at the Trocadero was much remarked. He offered to serve as a volunteer in the French army, and took his place among the grenadiers, who, in honor of his courage, conferred on him the right to wear their red epaulettes. When he was afterwards asked to court in Paris, during his exile, he was always careful to wear his grenadier uniform. He was six feet high; his stature and the simplicity of his soldier's uniform made a great impression upon those who did not know who he was. There is something very poetic and romantic in the career of the man who was the true representative of the future fortune of Italy.

Pasquier was not romantic: he had all the dryness, he had also all the exactitude and good sense, of a clever lawyer. The information he gives us on the political trials and the Bonapartist conspiracies which took place between the years 1820-1824 is valuable. I have no space to bestow on the once famous sergeants of La Rochelle, on Colonel Caron, etc. Bonaparte's memory was not extinct: the last plots were like the smoke which is still emitted by a volcano long after a terrible eruption.

# Correspondence.

## OLYMPIAN ATHLETICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Collegiate gymnasiums were established to counteract physical infirmities engendered by the sedentary lives of students. Their exercises were deemed to be conducive, if not necessary, to the highest intellectual culture. But this opinion has proved unwarranted unless where athletics have been practised very moderately—in fact, no more than was needful for health and some slight recreation.

The best gymnasts are rarely the best scholars. Such must be the fact so long as no man can serve two masters or two mistresses. It has always been so. Hercules was not Apollo, and could not walk in his circle. The athlete has his own sphere, but his training is no preparation for excellence in the spheres of other temperaments. The more nearly that training reaches its acme, the more it incapacitates the athlete for attaining to excellence in intellectual achievement. The truth of this assertion is evinced by an undeniable fact, which has not been alluded to in recent discussions, and which should therefore all the more be kept before the people. The fact is this—that no Olympic victor was ever victorious in any department of Greek literature. None became famous as poet of any sort, or philosopher, orator, historian, artist, or even general.

The names of all Olympians during eight centuries now lie before me. They represented three continents and many cities in each. Their training was the best which the wit and experience of many generations could devise. It did its perfect work on men most receptive of its lessons how to make the most of themselves in contending for the most enviable prizes the world has ever bestowed on physical prowess. Who were these Olympian victors? More came from Sparta than from any other State. The Spartans were twenty-three—the Athenians eight. What Spartan has a name to live in Grecian literature? It is more surprising that no one of the twenty-three attained distinction even as a general. The eight Athenians were Pantacles, Stomas, Phryon, Minos, Sosippus, Pythostratus, Aristolochus, and Anticles. No one of these names belongs to an immortal Greek. The only name ever heard of is Minos, and that not as an historical Athenian but as a mythical Cretan. Nothing is known concerning any Athenian or Spartan Olympian beyond the fact that he was a victor.

Such being their record, it seems hardly worth while to inquire about the one hundred and forty-four crowned athletes from obscurer States. Their names strike the classical scholar as having never been before heard of. The only one noticed in Smith's ponderous tomes of Grecian biography, so far as I have searched, is Eubotas. Regarding him nothing is added to the fact of his victory, save that it is doubtful how his name ought to be spelled. There was one Olympian Xenophon. All we know of him is that he was not the Xenophon who glorified the Ten Thousand.

The force of athletics can go no further than among the Olympians. Through all their ages they never produced a Pindar to save their exploits from oblivion. They never brought a single one of their protagonists to intellectual eminence—poetic, philosophic, historic, artistic, political, or military. The road to excellence in all these lines they seem to have hedged up. Walking, then, in the light of Grecian experience, aspirants to anything beyond physical development must read over the gate of the athletic palæstra the dolorous Dantesque legend—

"Lasciate ogni speranza, voi ch' entrate."

James D. Butler.

## A CASE OF LITERARY METEMPSYCHOSIS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Macmillan & Co. have just published a book of delightful fairy tales entitled 'Tales of the Punjab, Told by the People,' by Flora Annie Steel, with illustrations by J. Lockwood Kipling, C.I.E., and notes by R. C. Temple. The preface states that "many of the tales in this collection appeared either in the *Indian Antiquary*, the *Calcutta Review*, or the *Legends of the Punjab*." There is no hint here or elsewhere that these tales (as was natural enough for Indian stories) have ever enjoyed a previous existence in book form. This is, however, the case, and the 'Tales of the Punjab' are nothing but a reprint, with illustrations, of 'Wide-Awake Stories: A Collection of Tales Told by Little Children, between Sunrise and Sunset, in the Punjab and Kashmir,' by F. A. Steel and R. C. Temple (Bombay Education Society's Press; London: Trübner & Co. 1884).

The preface has been slightly condensed, and the first sentence of "To the little Reader," "Would you like to know why these are called Wide-Awake Stories?" has been changed to "Would you like to know how these stories are told?" The title of the first story is altered from "Sir Bumble" to "Sir Buzz"; but the former name is retained in the "Analysis," which, with change of pagination, is reprinted *verbatim et literatim*. (One curious result of this is that in the "Survey of Incidents," 'Wide-Awake Stories' only are cited, and no mention whatever is made of 'Tales of the Punjab.') A few words have been changed in the "Notes," otherwise the two works are exactly the same, except that the "Index," an

indispensable adjunct to the valuable notes, has been omitted, probably on account of the labor involved in repagination.

The object of this communication is in no way to criticise the publishers, who may be entirely ignorant of the original work, and to whom we are grateful for the reprint of a useful book; but solely to save folk-lore students and bibliographers some time and money. The former class never find, alas! the "inexhaustible purse" of their heroes, and may be tempted to buy the 'Wide-Awake Stories,' now out of print and commanding a high price. It would also be unfortunate, in view of the large and increasing number of collections of popular tales, to duplicate or confuse references to the 'Wide-Awake Stories' and the 'Tales of the Punjab.' T. F. CRANE.

ITHACA, N. Y., November 28, 1894.

# Notes.

ROBERTS BROS. will publish directly 'As a Matter of Course,' by Annie Payson Call, author of 'Power through Repose'; 'The Great God Pan and the Inmost Light,' by Arthur Machen; 'Discords,' by George Egerton; 'Ballads in Prose,' by Nora Hopper; 'The Song-Life of a Sculptor,' by Wm. Ordway Partridge; and 'The Minor Tactics of Chess,' by Franklin K. Young and Edwin C. Howell.

Further announcements by G. P. Putnam's Sons are: a translation, by Helen Zimmern, of Louis Lewes's 'Women of Shakspere'; 'King Arthur,' a comparative study, by the Rev. S. Humphreys Gurteen; 'Three Men of Letters,' viz., Berkeley, Timothy Dwight, and Joel Barlow, by Prof. Moses Coit Tyler; 'A Buddhist Catechism,' compiled by Subhadra Bhiksu; 'Force and Spirit, or the Scientific Evidence of a Supreme Intelligence,' by Col. H. M. Lazelle, U. S. A.; 'The Relation of Religion to Civil Government in the United States,' by the Rev. Isaac A. Cornelison; 'In the Heart of Bitter-Root Mountains,' the story of the Carlin Hunting Party, September-December, 1893; 'Personal Recollections of War Times, 1861-65,' by Albert Gallatin Riddle; and a serial, to be entitled 'Little Journeys,' each number describing a recent visit by Mr. Elbert Hubbard to the homes and haunts of well-known British authors.

Ginn & Co. have in preparation for the Dante Society an Index to the proper names in Dante's prose works and Canzoniere, by Paget Toynbee, and a Dante bibliography for 1873, by Wm. C. Lane.

T. Fisher Unwin has now ready the second volume of the 'Best Plays of Ben Jonson,' and 'The Story of the Expansion of South Africa,' by the Hon. A. Wilmot, a member of the Cape Legislature and a friend of Cecil Rhodes.

The library of the State University of Ghent in Belgium is now engaged in preparing a complete bibliography of Erasmus, and has already issued two large quarto volumes entitled 'Répertoire sommaire et provisoire des œuvres d'Érasme et des écrits qui concernent le célèbre humaniste.' Only eight hundred copies of this work have been printed; they will be sent to learned societies, libraries, and scholars who may be interested in the distinguished humanist of Rotterdam, with the request to add any titles of Erasmiana that may be lacking. By this means the coöperation of the scholars of all nations will be secured and a thoroughly exhaustive bibliography produced. We call the attention of American libraries and universities to this laudable enterprise.

The price we pay in shelf-room for fastidiousness as to paper is well illustrated by the nine-volume edition of Browning's Complete Works just issued by Macmillan. It is from the same plates as the handy and comely seventeen-volume English edition which we have noticed from time to time, and which was capped the other day by 'Asolando,' bound up with biographical and historical notes. A volume is still given to this combination in the new edition, but the nine occupy only two-thirds as much space as the seventeen. The paper is, of course, thinner, but not so much so as to prevent a good impression or to interfere with one's pleasure in reading. Externally the binding is neat, and a gilt edge affords a dust-guard. In a word, the praise due here seems to be for having made one blade of grass grow where two grew before, with a corresponding reduction in price.

Horace Walpole's 'Memoirs of the Reign of George III.' appear in a new edition of four volumes (London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons). The editor, G. F. Russell Barker, adds many biographical and other notes to those of the earlier editor, Le Marchant. There are sixteen finely executed portraits of leading personages of the time—those of Lord North, Charles James Fox, and John Wilkes being particularly noticeable for their life-like effect. The typography is excellent; the paper is rough linen, with gilt top and untrimmed lower edges; the general finish of the whole is suggestive of the approaching holiday season. To anybody with a taste for the personal element in history, the gossip-loving Horatio, in this new dress, ought to be a very welcome Christmas gift. For American students this spicy narrative of the politics and the intrigues of the men who were responsible for the Stamp Act and the Tea duties, must always possess a lively interest.

D. Appleton & Co. publish an *édition de luxe* of Dumas's 'Three Musketeers,' in two tall volumes, limited to 750 numbered and 25 unnumbered copies, with 250 illustrations by Maurice Leloir. M. Leloir brings to the task of illustrating this delightful romance a vast knowledge of costume and furniture, and a neat style of draughtsmanship. He is not a great illustrator, but he knows his epoch, and his drawings are clever if not very dramatic. It is a pity that for such an edition the publishers have not secured a better translation. It is rather heavy and unidiomatic, and mistranslations are frequent. These three examples, culled at hazard, must suffice: "Un soldat aux gardes" is translated "the soldier on guard" (p. 55). This is venial, but the others are much worse. "M. Athos a la droit de me tuer le premier, ce qui ôte beaucoup de sa valeur à votre créance, monsieur Porthos"—"which must abate your valor in your own estimation" (p. 70). This is almost incredible, but the next is like unto it: "Pendant qu'il faisait des ronds en crachant dans l'eau"—"making his rounds and spitting in the water" (p. 106). Surely a translator should be able to read such simple French as this.

No children's classic of the older variety escapes abbreviation or retelling. Any two boys not of the same family are little likely to have made acquaintance with Æsop or Mother Goose or Bunyan or Gulliver or the 'Arabian Nights' in the same version, and 'Robinson Crusoe' was long ago added to the list of variable stars. The latest accommodation of 'The Adventures of Robinson Crusoe of York, Mariner,' is also one of the prettiest (London: Unwin; New York: Macmillan). The story has been "told for 'The Children's Library,'" has been shortened judiciously, and ends with the crossing of the Pyrenees. The page-form is a lesson in typographic taste, and the cover is delightfully stamped with a sort of chintz pattern in blue and white. Cruikshank's illustrations, if not very carefully reproduced, fit the letterpress extremely well. We have never seen a more taking embodiment of this perennial work.

Good taste has presided over T. Y. Crowell & Co.'s convenient edition of 'Childe Harold's Pilgrimage,' which is adorned with a number of process prints of the world-famous scenes of the poem.

The fifth volume of the new edition of 'Johnson's Cyclopædia,' running from Kingston to Mozambique, maintains its standard of excellence. Among hundreds of others we specially note the following examples of articles that are just what cyclopædia articles ought to be, informing, suggestive, clarifying, and entertaining: Koran, by Joy; Language, by Whitney; Latin Language (a model for the treatment of a dry subject so as to make it deeply interesting), by Charles E. Bennett; Laplace, by Newcomb; Liquefaction, by E. L. Nichols; Lucian (too brief), by Gildersleeve; Raymund Lully, by A. R. Marsh; Mahabharata, by Lanman; Maimonides, by Richard Gottheil; Mark, by Frédéric Godet; Matches, by W. F. Durfee; Middle Ages, by John W. Burgess. As quite insufficient, we may mention Kite (an instructive and beautiful toy which deserves a full notice), Knot (an entertaining, easy, and useful branch of geometry), Lexicography (which passes without mention such works as Ducange, Facciolati, Gesenius, Brugsch, Lane), Magic (by Charles G. Leland, not referring to Lenormand, nor Chaldean Magic at all, and altogether disappointing), Mars (by Newcomb, whose disgust at some of the nonsense in the sensational newspapers seems to have made him unwilling to give the discussion thousands of readers will look for). The article Logic, regard the subject from the standpoint of what school you will, is wretched, and so are most of the philosophical articles; but there are exceptions, such as Cattell's Memory and Harris's Mind. The accentuation of the title-words is sometimes marked, sometimes not marked, sometimes erroneously marked. Speaking relatively and humanly, the work as a whole is very good.

The 'Encyclopædic Dictionary' now in process of reissue by the Syndicate Publishing Co. of Philadelphia, with a gain of a diminished number of volumes, has attained a second and third volume (Cre–Inf and Inf–Rhe respectively). The work is not entirely devoid of illustrations, but they are few and far between.

Capt. Beach of the Third United States Cavalry, instructor at the Infantry and Cavalry School, has published (Fort Leavenworth) a 'Manual of Military Field Engineering' for practical use by officers and troops of the line, which is a valuable aid in bringing down to date the improvements and modifications recognized in field-work. Besides the usual chapters on field fortifications proper, laying pontoon bridges, etc., he has an excellent summary of methods for building spar and trestle-bridges, building and demolition of railways, telegraph lines, etc. The introduction of the electric telegraph and telephone in field service has made some knowledge of electricity, of insulation, etc., necessary even for the private soldiers who act as "linemen." So the destruction of railways became an art in our civil war, and the implements and expedients

are here aptly set forth. The volume is a neat one with flexible covers, fit for pocket use, and is clearly and fully illustrated.

The first volume of Lord Rayleigh's 'Theory of Sound' in the revised and enlarged edition (Macmillan) is nearly as bulky as the two volumes of the first edition. Almost every chapter is enriched, and new chapters have been added on the vibration of curved plates or shells and on electrical vibrations. In the first edition much stress was laid upon the establishment of general theorems by means of Lagrange's method, and the author states that he is more than ever impressed with the advantages of this procedure, for a theorem can thus be demonstrated in all its generality with less mathematical apparatus than is required in dealing with particular cases by special methods. It is interesting to note that the analytical methods employed in the investigation of forced or free vibration in acoustics can be employed in the study of electrical vibrations. In the chapter on electrical vibrations Lord Rayleigh has given his very valuable paper on the increased resistance of conductors when submitted to rapidly alternating currents of electricity. He promises that the second volume will treat of aerial vibrations. It will be awaited with great interest: for there is no writer on physical subjects who excels Lord Rayleigh in elegance of treatment and in accuracy. The first volume, both in respect to theory and in reference to practical applications of the mathematical analysis, is easily on a level with Helmholtz's 'Tonempfindungen.'

The subject of Elasticity is one of the most difficult in mathematical physics. The treatises of Todhunter, Pearson, Love, and others are in general too extended and difficult for the beginner. Dr. Benjamin Williamson, in the small volume entitled 'Introduction to the Mathematical Theory of the Stress and Strain of Elastic Solids' (Longmans), has clearly stated the principal differential equations which one is compelled to use. The engineer will find also a short and succinct treatment of the flexure of beams. At the close of certain chapters applications of the mathematical theory to examples are given. These applications will interest the mathematical student and the physicist rather than the engineer. In one example, for instance, our author calculates the amount of the ether stress at the surface of the earth requisite to account for gravitation, and finds that gravitation would require a vertical stress of about 4,000 tons on the square inch, combined with a tension of equal amount in all horizontal directions. The value of this stress given by Clerk Maxwell in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' is 37,000 tons per square inch.

Prof. Lujo Brentano's 'Hours and Wages in relation to Production' (London: Swan Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners) is devoted to the exposition of the familiar truth that beyond certain limits increased hours of work cause no increase of production. The most valuable matter in the book is to be found in the appendix, which contains Macaulay's speech on the bill limiting the labor of young people in factories to ten hours a day, and an extract from the rare work of Messance referred to by Adam Smith as showing that liberal wages cause increased production. Macaulay's speech reads as if delivered yesterday, and might well be utilized in the discussions of the present time.

From the same publishers we have 'Population and the Social System,' a translation of an Italian work by Francesco S. Nitti; 'Social Peace,' also a translation, from the German of G. von Schulze Gaevernitz; and 'The Tyranny of Socialism,' translated from the French of Yves Guyot. The first of these is a labored discussion of the Malthusian theory by an author who does not understand his subject. The second is a cry of "Peace, peace," as the result of the trade-union movement in England, written before the recent Congress of Unionists and falsified by its declaration of principles. The third is a very spirited attack upon the French socialists by a writer and statesman who has not been intimidated by abuse, and does not attempt to flatter the populace. In the same general line are 'The Factory System and the Factory Acts' (Methuen), by R. W. Cooke-Taylor, an inspector of factories under the British Government, which appears to be a repetition of other works upon the subject by the same author; and 'Questions of the Day' (Macmillan), a volume of meritorious sermons and addresses delivered in St. Martin's Church, Leicester, by its late vicar, Rev. David James Vaughan.

'Sober by Act of Parliament,' by Fred. A. McKenzie (Sonnenschein), is a statement of the legislation that has been devised in many parts of the world for the purpose of regulating or preventing the use of intoxicating drinks. The author gives accounts of the measures adopted in South Carolina, Kansas, Iowa, Pennsylvania, and Maine, which are intended to be fair, but which would be criticised unfavorably by many observers in this country. He gives also the Canadian system, those of New Zealand and Australia, and the experiments made in Switzerland and Sweden in the manufacture and sale of distilled spirits by Government. He concludes with a review of the various measures that have been proposed of late in England for the purpose of diminishing the number of drinking-places. It is convenient to have the results of a survey of this kind stated by an author so free from bias as Mr. McKenzie appears to be, but there is no subject upon which it is more difficult to obtain evidence which the various parties are willing to accept as satisfactory. The prohibitionists frequently represent the condition of affairs prevailing under the system which they favor as quite different from what it appears to be to those who oppose them, and the advocates of license occasionally appeal to figures as to arrests, etc., which are quite irrelevant.

The revival of interest in the writings of Hawthorne, Poe, and other American writers of their period accounts for the 'Selected Prose Writings of Mrs. Emma C. Embury,' of which the edition is limited to five hundred copies, for private circulation only. The poems of Mrs. Embury have been accessible in several editions of greater or less completeness; but her prose writings have been known only to those who have delved in the long series of *Graham's*, *Godey's*, and other magazines of that period. The present collection reprints some twenty essays and stories, taken from Poe's ill-fated *Broadway Journal* and from other like sources. Most of them were published anonymously, and in some cases under masculine noms de plume, by which Tuckerman was taken in. The volume, a duodecimo of 226 pages, is from the De Vinne Press, and therefore is above praise typographically.

The first instalment of F. Bertolini's 'Il Rinascimento e le Signorie Italiane' opens the fourth of a series of sumptuous works on Italian history published by Fratelli Treves of Milan. The previous three have treated respectively of Ancient Rome, the Middle Ages, and the Italian Uprising in this century; the present book will cover the period from the first papal jubilee of 1300 to the fall of the Florentine Republic in 1530, and, when entirely issued, will form a volume in large quarto of upwards of 400 pages, with numerous full-page illustrations by L. Pogliaghi. The price is two lire per instalment, or forty lire for the whole subscription. To judge from the first number of thirty-two pages, Signor Bertolini offers no fresh researches or original conclusions, but presents in compact form and readable style the main facts of his period, linking them together by summaries and generalizations quoted from the classical historians. This somewhat easy-going eclectic method will hardly attract the scholar, but has its advantages for the general reader who must read while he runs. To the latter also Signor Pogliaghi's clever but not remarkable illustrations will justify themselves by their dramatic treatment and local color.

The fifth volume of Heinrich von Treitschke's 'Deutsche Geschichte im neunzehnten Jahrhundert' (Leipzig: Hirzel), the publication of which has been considerably delayed by the author's long-continued affection of the eyes, begins with the accession of Frederick William IV. of Prussia in 1840, and ends with the outbreak of the Revolution in 1848. The lively delineation of the character of this brilliant but erratic and often weak and vacillating monarch, and the sharp criticism of his conduct during the first eight years of his reign, have brought the historian into disfavor at the Berlin court. This exhibition of royal and imperial displeasure may be safely accepted as strong evidence of the essential truth of the narration.

An interesting volume, consisting chiefly of materials derived from the posthumous papers of Dr. Döllinger, is Prof. J. Friedrich's 'Johann Adam Möhler, der Symboliker' (Munich: Beck). Sixty years ago Möhler was generally recognized as one of the most brilliant ornaments of the University of Munich, and held, according to the testimony of Dr. Döllinger, the very foremost rank among the Catholic theologians of his day. Soon after his death in 1838, two volumes of his "Nachgelassene Schriften" were edited by Döllinger, and a biographical sketch was added to the fifth edition of his 'Symbolik' by Reithmayr; also, a volume of 'Erinnerungen an Möhler,' collected in part by his fellow-student Wörner, was published in 1866. The work before us is composed almost entirely of extracts from hitherto unprinted letters, lectures, and other writings of Möhler, and furnishes a valuable contribution to our knowledge of his life and teachings. His ideas and utterances fully justify Prof. Friedrich in assuming that if this great light of the Catholic church had lived till 1870, he would have been excommunicated.

The November monograph of the *Portfolio* is by Lionel Cust, of the department of prints and drawings in the British Museum, and deals with "The Engravings of Albert Dürer." The sketch is clear and compact and written in a popular style, with no technical criticism, for which the reader may turn to the twelve sources enumerated in the preface. There are four admirable heliogravure plates of the Madonna with the Monkey, the Nativity, the Little White Horse, and the portrait of Perkheimer. Besides these, twenty-five illustrations—some full-page—are incorporated in the text. The number is as good an introduction to Dürer as could be desired.

In Poole's 'Index to Periodical Literature' one title is, of course, *Lakes*, and under this

the sub-title "Great Lakes of North America," with sundry references to magazine articles on their cities and trade, their commerce, defence, early navigation, influence on autumnal seasons, legends; and then, next in alphabetical order, "Letters from them." As to the last title the reference is to *Blackwood*, vol. iv., pp. 396 and 735; but the articles here specified, we find, on turning to *Blackwood*, have nothing to do with any link in the chain of American lakes, but consist altogether of the epistolary effusions of a German tourist on the *English* lakes, rambling to Rydal Mount and visiting Wordsworth.

Prof. Dziatzko of Göttingen, who has occasionally given a course of lectures "über das Buchwesen des Alterthums," has an article in the last (quarterly) number of the *Rheinisches Museum* for 1894, in which he answers negatively the question of the existence of copyright in classical antiquity. The discussion possesses no little incidental interest.

In Carl Parmo Ploug, who died October 27, Denmark lost one of her most graceful poets and most devoted patriots. His long life was consecrated to the service of his country, as poet, politician, and journalist, and it is hard to tell in which of these directions his influence has been greatest. His first collection of poems, consisting almost wholly of short occasional pieces, was published in 1861, and since then many editions of this and of later productions have appeared. While still at the University his interest in social and political questions was aroused, and he took an active part in the debates of the student world. In 1841 he became editor of the daily newspaper the *Fatherland*, in whose columns he began the agitation for constitutional reform which resulted in the granting of the Constitution of 1848. In this latter year he entered the lower house, becoming later one of the Government leaders in the Landsthing, from which he retired in 1890. He was one of the most enthusiastic advocates of Scandinavianism, and its final defeat was, next to the loss of Schleswig, the keenest disappointment of his life.

The many students and teachers of scientific subjects who were disappointed that the weekly journal *Science* never satisfied the need for a critical scientific newspaper, will be glad to know that arrangements have been completed to begin a new series of *Science* on January 1, under wholly different direction and auspices. The paper will hereafter be under the control of a representative editorial committee, and will undertake to report on the progress of science for men of science. The managing committee is constituted as follows: Mathematics, Prof. Simon Newcomb (Johns Hopkins University and Washington); Mechanics, Prof. R. S. Woodward (Columbia College); Astronomy, Prof. Pickering (Harvard); Chemistry, Prof. Remsen (Johns Hopkins); Physiography, Prof. W. M. Davis (Harvard); Palæontology, Prof. O. C. Marsh (Yale); Morphology, Prof. W. K. Brooks (Johns Hopkins); Zoölogy, Dr. C. Hart Merriam (Washington); Botany, Prof. N. L. Britton (Columbia); Hygiene, Dr. J. S. Billings (Washington); Physiology, Dr. H. P. Bowditch (Harvard); Ethnology, Dr. J. W. Powell (Washington); Anthropology, Dr. D. G. Brinton (Pennsylvania); Psychology, Prof. Cattell (Columbia).

Prof. Seth, in some animadversions on our recent notice of his 'Study of Ethical Principles,' objects that we attributed to him in inverted commas the phrases "personality is sacred," "otherwise morality and religion are undermined," which he never used. We cited these typically, as stock phrases, which ought not to be found any longer "in treatises which pretend to either scientific exactness or philosophical competence." They are, we believe, in substance employed by Prof. Seth. We did not mean to be understood as quoting his very words; but we expressed ourselves obscurely.

—Readers of *Scribner's Magazine* for December will find a brief sketch of a young French artist from the hand to which they must now cease to look for sane criticism and safe guidance through the pitfalls of modern taste. The name of the painter who has the sad claim to a place among the last words of Philip Gilbert Hamerton is Émile Friant. He is one of the few of the younger men of his country who "have entirely escaped from the prevalent artistic diseases, and are as whole and sound as if they had lived in a better time." To the most impressive figure in English art belongs the place of honor among this number's prose articles. To know Watts in the length and breadth of his scope is a pleasure not given to many. Two of his works here reproduced illustrate its extremes: one is the colossal equestrian statue of Hugh Lupus, designed in bronze for the open air; the other is the portrait of a little girl, whose youthful charm Watts, at seventy-six, has rendered as successfully as he has sculptured the magnificent mailed ancestor of the Grosvenors. However well known the portraits of Lord Tennyson, of Walter Crane, and of Swinburne may be, their place is among the masterpieces that cannot be seen too often; the same holds good of such ideal pieces as "Hope" and "Orpheus and Eurydice." Of the theory of Watts's art, Cosmo Monkhouse writes well and convincingly. In poetry Rudyard Kipling shows the cunning of his hand by subduing to rhythm and rhyme the seemingly defiant vocabulary of the engine-room and stokehold. There is primitive grandeur in the old Scotch fleet-engineer of Calvinistic breeding; and there is something very like the true epic ring in that part of his monologue in which he asserts his faith in the Perfect Ship the world is yet to see. It is easy to think that here, in the joy of "Man—the Arrtifex," is to be detected the source of the poetic inspiration of an industrial race, if such inspiration it is ever to have.

—*Harper's*, in festival cover of blue, green, and olive, is led off in jocular vein by Poultney Bigelow, whose agreeable prose, in an account of an "Arabian Day and Night," is well supported by the pencil of his collaborator, Frederic Remington. In similar partnership Mr. Lang supplies the text to Mr. Abbey's "Taming of the Shrew"—disappointing designs, with a certain affectation and forcing of effect in compositions where the feeling of overflowing life and vitality is so essential to success. One serial alone, from a pen that has power to set expectation on tiptoe, links the number to future issues. It should be noted, however, that Mr. Hardy has changed its present title, "The Simpletons," to that of "Hearts' Insurgent," under which the continuation next month must be looked for. Among the short stories and descriptions of places that pass from memory with the reading, Mr. Howells's verse provides a resting-place for reflection, and gives a fillip to serious thought on serious themes. There are eleven of his "Stops of Various Quills," ranging in form from the sonnet to the epigram of four lines, with range of thought as wide.

—To be ever so little original in a Christmas story is a feat that calls for suppleness of imagination. In the *Century's* monologue, "A Christmas Guest," by Ruth McEnery Stuart, the feat has been performed with more than a little dexterity; the expedient resorted to being so simple that one wonders it is not tried oftener. The perennial "loquitur a mother" is made to give way to "loquitur (in dialect) a father." Pathos is by no means eliminated through the change, and humor is immensely heightened thereby. Another tribute to the season, rather than to the reader's supposed powers of logic, must be found in the article "What Has Science to Do with Religion?" Of permanent interest as an historical study is Mr. W. J. Stillman's résumé of the life and character of "the last of the great makers of Italy," the Sicilian-born Crispi. Unwavering republican that Crispi is shown to have been throughout his long patriotic career, his devotion to Italian unity as a cause superior to every other has brought him into line with the conservative Cavourians, though hated alike by them and by the radical followers of Mazzini, and perm ts his being held up as the conspicuous living example of the disinterested statesmanship of which modern Italy has, with a too apparent likeness to republican commonwealths, lost the conception. Mrs. Kinnicut's paper on "The American Woman in Politics" proposes that the evils inherent in universal (male) suffrage shall be remedied by the efforts of the sex that has not the suffrage. Without the stimulus of legal citizenship, women are to do the good to the state the voter leaves undone; their peculiar advantage over men being that, although they may lose time, money, and vital energy by failure, they can gain nothing save the inner reward of the virtuous by success. This is magnanimous, to say the least, even though it seems to savor of the old dispensation of warning the fair sex off the normal plane of human nature—whether into the slave or angel limbo. Of the Christmas illustrations, though they fully deserve it, there is not space to speak.

—Side by side, in the *Atlantic*, with some delightful "Personal Reminiscences of Walter Pater," by a practised critic, William Sharp, is a short paper, "The New Criticism of Genius," which heightens interest in the former by setting up a scientific tribunal for its æsthetic doctrines. The connection between all æsthetic productions and the physical organism of the producer is the starting-point of the paper. The neurotic condition of victims of the prevailing *Zeit-Krankeit*, hysterically inclined descendants of weakened parents—"superior degenerates" if they happen to be brilliant workers with pen or pencil—is defined on authority of Lombroso, Nordau, and Maudsley. To follow Nordau's diagnosis of the mental and spiritual "stigmata" of men who are the shining exponents of *fin-de-siècle* æsthetics is an exercise stimulating to critical observation, irrespective of conclusions. The classification that includes Shelley and Rossetti under unhealthy genius will no more command universal agreement than it will "stand a rigorously scientific inspection"; but if, as is claimed, a close study of the psychosis of great men leads, through an understanding of the psycho-physiology of our ordinary selves, to the knowledge whether each one of us "may be contributing to form a psychic atmosphere in which crimes or misdemeanors he abhors can take root and flourish," theory will be justified by practical outcome. An open letter "To an English Friend" tells our cousins they must not be stupid about us any more, and tells them wittily and well. Still, the reitera-

tion of our collective impressiveness has gone on from time out of mind. And if other people fail to find us impressive, the failure is presumably not their fault. Some of its remote but indisputable sources may even be traced in another article which is devoted to the architecture of school-houses. Sir Edward Strachey supplies the Christmas *pièce-de-résistance*, imparting information about some pleasant Somersetshire observances of the season in a style that departs less than one could wish from lines laid down in 'Sanford and Merton.' Miss Repplier, combative as usual of the stupidity of modern literalness, takes, with her wonted grace and skill, the side of "Ghosts" against their tabulating investigators.

—Some of our readers may remember that when Eugène Piot died, in 1890, he made the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-lettres his sole heir, directing that his estate be sold and the proceeds invested in favor of the Academy, the income to be used under its direction for historical or archæological expeditions, excavations, or publications. With a part of this bequest the Academy has begun, this year, the publication of a series of 'Monuments et Mémoires,' which, if we may judge by the first number, is destined to fill the place occupied, until its untimely end, by the *Gazette Archéologique*, although the present publication is much more sumptuous in character, and will not appear at stated intervals. Part I., which is apparently intended to show the comprehensive scope of the work, contains fourteen plates of the most beautiful kind which even France can produce, illustrating unpublished specimens of various forms of Egyptian, Chaldean, Greek, Roman, and Byzantine art, with accompanying essays by such men as Maspero, Heuzey, Collignon, Babelon, and Schlumberger, to select only a few of the eminent names which compose the list, while the book is edited by Georges Perrot and Robert de Lasteyrie. The beginning is, therefore, most auspicious, though we question whether it would not have been wiser to concentrate this strength upon some one department of ancient art, rather than to extend over the whole realm, as, in a scientific serial, Egyptian and Roman or Chaldean and Byzantine subjects do not appeal to the same class of readers; and it seems to us an insufficient justification that this is done because, "dans sa large curiosité, Eugène Piot embrassait et explorait tout le domaine de l'art." However, the mistake, if it be one, has plenty of precedents among French archæological publications, and does not impair the value of the present work, which, if maintained at the standard at which it has been started, will be an indispensable addition to every archæological library.

—'Spanien in Wort und Bild' (Würzburg: Leo Woerl) is an attractive combination of text and illustrations, to which a chapter on the Baleares has been contributed by the Archduke Luis Salvador. It is doubtful if any other person possesses the same intimate acquaintance with these islands. For more than a quarter of a century his Royal Highness has lived in Mallorca, and his lively affection for his chosen home has led him to visit every town and hamlet in the archipelago, not once only, but repeatedly. Every situation possessing interest or beauty accessible by railroad or carriage, by yacht or by boat, on horseback or on foot, has he visited and noted, and always with an especially alert eye for whatever of natural beauty might be discovered; for his love of nature is a marked trait that has been sharpened and cultivated by extensive travelling in various parts of the world. In the brief space which he has allowed himself in this volume, he has enumerated the chief attractions in the order in which they would be most readily accessible to the chance visitor. Without attempting any descriptions, he has skilfully indicated, by an adjective here and a brief phrase there, some salient characteristics of the points mentioned, and has preserved a concise but readable text, which is complemented by twenty-six engravings, largely after his own drawings. A special interest attaches to the view of Palma anterior to the erection of the new façade of the cathedral and the removal of a portion of the city wall at the sea front, but it should have been dated, as there is nothing either in the text or in the list of plates to warn the observer that it does not give the present aspect of the city from that side. The book contains a folded map of Spain, including the Balearic Islands, on a scale of 1:3,750,000.

—On the 5th of November Germany celebrated the four-hundredth anniversary of the birth of "Hans Sachs, the cobbler-poet, laureate of the gentle craft." Naturally enough, his native city, Nuremberg, where he, as "Wisest of the Twelve Wise Masters, in huge folios sang and laughed," was the centre of the festivities, but they were by no means confined to the "quaint old town." All the chief theatres of the fatherland vied with each other in giving representations of his own *Fastnachtsspiele*, of Wagner's "Meistersinger von Nürnberg," Lortzing's opera of "Hans Sachs," Martin Greif's historical drama bearing the same title, or some other play, in which the protagonist is the "old man gray and dovelike," as described in the elegy of Adam Puschmann, his younger contemporary and most noted apprentice in the kindred arts of cobbling shoes and rhymes. In the Royal Theatre at Munich the stage was transformed into the house of a Nuremberg citizen of the sixteenth century, in the court of which, on a platform of plain boards, were acted eight of Hans Sachs's Shrovetide farces and drolleries, suitably introduced and skilfully woven together into a consecutive piece by the Bavarian poet Hermann Lingg, and thus presenting a vivid picture of the manner in which thrifty burghers and "rude mechanicals" amused themselves at carnival-time in the imperial city on the Pegnitz nearly four centuries ago. Still more interesting and instructive was the "Hans Sachs Ausstellung" in the large hall of the Munich State Library. It was divided into four sections, the first of which contained chronicles, poems, portraits, views, engravings, medallions, and whatever else might illustrate Nuremberg in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, and thus throw light upon the life of the poet. The second division comprised the numerous poetical productions of Hans Sachs and the earlier and later collected editions of his works. The third division was the library of Hans Sachs, who in 1562 made a list of all the books in his possession, which was published by Karl Goedeke in the seventh volume of Schnorr's 'Archiv für Litteratur-Geschichte.' The works here exhibited consisted almost entirely of large folios, rare incunabula, and fine specimens of sixteenth-century printing, with elaborate title-pages adorned with woodcuts; the Bible, Luther's works, Bugenhagen's interpretation of the Psalms, the writings of Heinrich Suso, the mystic, and other religious treatises; translations of the Odyssey, Herodotus, Xenophon, Plutarch, Pliny, Seneca, Ovid's 'Metamorphoses' and 'Remedia Amoris,' Æsop's Fables; chronicles, books of travel, *Volksbücher* ('Herzog Ernst,' 'Magelone,' 'Eulenspiegel,' etc.), Brant's 'Narrenschiff,' and other satires, Pauli's 'Schimpff und Ernst,' 'Hortus Sanitatis,' an 'Anatomeybuch,' and a little volume on the color and diseases of horses. This brief summary of the contents of Hans Sachs's library will suffice to show that, for "an unlearned man who knew neither Latin nor Greek," he was pretty well versed in classical literature and quite familiar with the standard writers of his time. The fourth section of the exhibition, "Hans Sachs in the Memory of Posterity," was devoted to the modern literature of the subject, of which the most cursory survey would suffice to show the comparatively recent origin and growth of his fame. When on a public occasion in 1828 the mayor of Nuremberg delivered an address, in which he reviewed the history of the ancient city and recalled the men who had rendered it illustrious, he made no mention of Hans Sachs, whose bronze monument now stands on the Spitalplatz, and in honor of whose nativity Nuremberg and all Germany have just held high festival.

## LADY JEUNE ON SOCIETY.

*Lesser Questions.* By Lady Jeune. London: Remington. 1894. Pp. 291.

THIS book has met with a rather rude reception from the ladies' journals. No fault can be found with its style, which is lively and graceful. Perhaps from one so thoroughly acquainted with the mysteries of society more personal and piquant revelations were expected. Perhaps, on the other hand, some of the avowals are too frank and some of the advice is too plain. For the general reader, Lady Jeune has the advantage of combining the best opportunities for social observation which rank and fashion can give with more depth of character and seriousness of thought than in women of rank and fashion are commonly found. She is a practical philanthropist, as well as what Disraeli called, with Oriental magniloquence, a "cynosure of the social empyrean"; and while half her book is given to the drawing-room and the dining-room, the other half is given to the Haven and the hovel. We have had society novels of the 'Dodo' type, and we have had socialist Ezekiels denouncing wealth. We are glad to have criticism, at once serious and sympathetic, of the doings and habits of the rich. It is high time that the rich should be made to think to what bourne they are being led by the mad love of pleasure and ravenous pursuit of the money by which their love of pleasure is to be fed. They are on a volcano, the rumblings of which are already heard, the tremblings already felt, though in the banqueting-room, in the ballroom, or at the gambling-table of the Stock Exchange they seem to be as little regarded as was the approach of Noah's flood. One need not be a socialist to feel the responsibilities and dangers of wealth, the shamefulness of a life of idle luxury, and the shocking inequalities of the human lot, or to understand the desire of levelling those inequalities to which the ostentation of luxurious opulence must give birth in the breast of the poor.

Lady Jeune does not fail to rebuke the prevailing and ever-growing extravagance in dress. Where a woman formerly would have one dress of the best material, she now has a dozen of inferior material, cheaper, yet costing much in the make-up. It is not uncom-

mon for people to wear four and five gowns in a day. A smart country house, Lady Jeune says, is the best place to see the grievous extent to which this freak of luxury is carried. It used to be no sin to be seen twice during a visit in the same dress; now this would be death to reputation. Gowns must be changed: morning, walking, afternoon, evening—each has its separate apparel; and the tea-gown, the most recent invention, is the most gorgeous of all. The Empress Eugénie gave the impulse; her influence as a gaudy adventuress on society was not less noxious than her influence as a Spanish devotee on national policy. But our own Saratoga may perhaps bear a share of the blame, for the influence of the American millionaire has begun to be felt in the fashions of Europe. The press, reporting dresses, stimulates the mania. Waiting-women, instead of the neat and plain attire suitable to their calling, learn miserably to ape the finery of the mistress. Dread of milliners' bills is a bar to marriage. Worse than this—

"Surely, we must feel infinite pity for the outcast women of the world who sin because they must live, while there can be nothing but a feeling of horror for women who set their virtue so low as to make it the price of dresses which will 'cut out' the toilettes of other women; nor can we have any but a feeling of contempt for the men who, marrying on small means, suddenly find their whole *entourage* changed by the addition of horses and carriages, French cooks, and all the modern luxuries of a fashionable *ménage*, and shut their eyes and regard the transformation with philosophical calmness. In all societies there are men and women low enough to accept such positions; but in England thirty years ago such a thing would have been impossible, and no man or woman occupying it would have dared to appear in Society. '*Autres temps, autres mœurs.*' With so many examples of the tolerance of the world and the complaisance of husbands, we cannot wonder that some of the modern developments of Society have created a condition which respectable English opinion considers a reproach and a danger to the country."

Woman is in revolt against the tyranny of her mother, of her husband, of her chaperon; against the tyranny of the conventional rules which excluded her from the professions, from the polls, from the platform, from the Legislature, from the smoking-room, from the cricket-field. Yet she submits as slavishly as ever to the tyranny of Fashion.

"One of the most astounding instances of the tyranny of the goddess Fashion is the stanch way in which a style is adopted, if it becomes established, irrespectively of its merits, artistic or other. Every woman, whatever her size and shape, complexion or age, adopts it. How vividly we recall the figures of middle-aged women, largely developed, fat, with gowns so tight that the whole of their outlines were visible, when it was the fashion to wear gowns tied back behind! Can we forget the discomfort we underwent in the days when we wore bonnets higher than Papal crowns, when sitting up in a close carriage was an impossibility? or the agony many underwent in the early days of high-heeled shoes? or when, perched on one's toes in an attitude at once unbecoming and painful, the effect of which was to destroy the shape of the foot, women not only walked but danced in those instruments of torture with a heroism worthy of a better cause—simply because it was the fashion?"

Lady Jeune looks forward with dread to the revival of crinoline, though she thinks it one degree better than trailing skirts, which acted as a mud-brush on the pavement and a dirt-trap in the house. Crinoline is ancient, dating, as Lady Jeune finds, from the days of Elizabeth. In fact, most of these new fashions are revivals. The puffs which ladies are now wearing on their shoulders are seen in portraits of the time of Henry VIII. In the time of Richard II. dresses were worn of different colors on the two sides of the person. This is about the only historical costume which has not reappeared. But let it be remembered that hoops were less inconvenient in days when the court was not crowded by the flunkeyism of two hemispheres, and that trains were not mud-brushes when held up by a page.

Upon the Revolt of Woman Lady Jeune looks with a kind and sympathizing yet sceptical eye. She thinks, in fact, that Nature did well in making two sexes, and that in the end she will have her own again. This is one of the passages which are likely to have given offence to some female critics:

"Women much overrate the pleasure and delights of the one [political] career, and vastly underrate the solid and permanent happiness of the career which nature intended them to follow—the career from which, struggle as they may, they cannot escape. In the inexorable laws of nature there is ample security that things will right themselves. A few years must show English women that they cannot burn the candle at both ends, and that the life of high pressure they are striving to follow must infallibly break them down. Women will gradually accept the stern fact that, first of all, they must be wives and mothers. Then they can be whatever their strength and leisure will allow. Women can have as much political and social influence as will satisfy the most insatiable ambition; but they must be content to exercise it in their legitimate sphere, and not encroach on ground fitted only for stronger wills and rougher natures. . . . The history of the world ought to console the most restless and ambitious of her sex. She has but to remember that in all the great movements that have influenced mankind some woman has borne more than her share of the responsibility. Emancipate or make herself as masculine as she will, she can never have more power than she already possesses."

The transformation which London society is undergoing is connected by Lady Jeune with the seclusion of the Queen. But the transforming influence, plutocratic rather than democratic, which brings with it a domination of tasteless luxury and display, is in the main not traceable to anybody's act or default; it is the dominant influence of the hour. Owing to various causes, mainly to the decay of their estates, the old aristocracy and gentry of England are passing away, and giving place to the lords of money, the smell of which, in whatever way it may have been made, is now sweet. The lists of guests at Marlborough House and of the people visited by the Prince of Wales show this plainly enough, and it is doubtful whether the Queen herself, were she on her social throne, would be able to contend against the tide. Plutocracy may in course of time become refined and pass out of its present phase, which is that of a Mincing Lane aristocracy decked with the trappings and armorial bearings of Vere de Vere. But the transition is ugly, as transitions are apt to be.

Lighter papers are those on "Dinners and Diners" and on "Conversation." Lady Jeune complains of the number of dishes and the wearisome length of dinner. She would limit the number of dishes to eight. We would limit it to half that number, and the party to ten at the outside. A dinner-party of thirty, at which you can talk only to your next neighbor, is no more a scene of social intercourse or enjoyment than a restaurant where a number of people eat in the same room. The late dinner of the present day is in reality a supper, what is called "luncheon" being the real dinner; and the sooner this great fact is recognized and the evening meal is reduced to the dimensions of a supper, the better it will be for digestion and conversation. The French suppers before the Revolution were evidently very bright. As to the evening crush, or the crush in the afternoon which has usurped the place of the once pleasant Afternoon Tea, it is not society but a social *battue*, a device for "doing" an unwieldy acquaintance at one swoop—a bitter mockery of the name of hospitality. Kept standing for an hour in a heated room, jammed in a crowd, and talking against its buzz to people to whom you do not want to talk, about things for which you do not care, you feel indeed the truth of the saying that life would be pleasant enough if it were not for its pleasures.

Lady Jeune speaks as an expert when she lays down rules for conversation. Plain persons would be cheered by her remark that "an agreeable man, however ugly he may be, is always popular; and if we were to ask a woman whether she would be beautiful or agreeable, she would choose charm." The woman, we suspect, would choose both. Lady Jeune does not fail to appreciate the excellence of the listener as well as that of the talker. Listening is a brilliant gift. Perhaps the art of conversation in its most popular form may be defined as the art of making other people think that they have said good things.

On one little point of social history we must venture to differ from Lady Jeune. She gives a list of the few English *grandes dames* who have tried to imitate the French *salon*. Among them she mentions Lady Ashburton, and says of her, as of the rest, that her *entourage* was very small, that her aristocratic prejudices were too strong to admit any one outside the charmed circle, and that many of the most distinguished men of her time had lived and died unknown to her. The Life of Carlyle shows that there was no such exclusive line; and he was by no means the only commoner who was an habitual guest at The Grange. In fact, aristocrats were in the minority there. The truth is, that Lady Ashburton was too much of a queen to care greatly either for rank or for reputation. What she loved was to gather round her a circle of brilliant talkers and whetstones for her own keen wit. For conversation everything at her court was ordered. Breakfast was at small round tables, and everybody was expected to be there. The Grange, therefore, was a genuine *salon*, probably about the last of its kind. Its lady, however, was no mere French wit or president of a circle of wits. She was a noble woman, and her memory will be cherished as long as any of her circle live, not only as a hostess, but as a friend.

## BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

*Edwin Booth:* Recollections by his Daughter, Edwina Booth Grossmann, and Letters to Her and to his Friends. The Century Co.

*Life and Art of Joseph Jefferson*, together with Some Account of his Ancestry and of the Jefferson Family of Actors. By William Winter. Macmillan & Co.

*Le Théâtre-Français pendant la Révolution*, 1789-1799. Par Henri Lumière. Paris: Dentu; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.

*Le Théâtre d'Hier;* Études dramatiques, littéraires et sociales. Par Hippolyte Parigot. Paris: Lecène, Oudin & Cie.; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.

It speaks well for the theatre of a country and of a century that it can breed men like Edwin Booth and Joseph Jefferson, who were both sons of actors, almost born on the stage, taking to it in youth and devoting themselves to it in maturity; who were both of them highly gifted by nature and richly trained by

art, both at the peak and summit of their profession, both simple and kindly gentlemen, courteous, modest, and sincere. Booth was, and Mr. Jefferson is, accepted as the most accomplished American actor of his time—the one in tragedy and the other in comedy; having this, too, in common, that they were men of high character, with a sweet spirituality of nature which does not always—or even often, perhaps—accompany artistic achievement. Mr. Jefferson had already revealed himself to us in his 'Autobiography,' the only book about himself by an English speaking actor worthy of comparison with the incomparable 'Apology for the Life of Colley Cibber.' Now Mr. Booth's only child publishes letters which disclose to us characteristics of his known before to his intimate friends, no doubt, but not suspected by the public at large.

Mrs. Grossmann's volume opens with her own recollections of her father as he appeared to her, set down simply and unpretentiously and with a captivating charm. Then follows a selection from the many letters he wrote to her and to certain of his friends. It is disappointing not to find this larger than it is; but it may be that Booth's correspondence with the late Jervis McEntee, for example, with Mr. Aldrich, and with Mr. Hutton, is reserved for a later volume, along with (let us hope) the notes written for Mr. Furness's Variorum Edition of Shakspere and the two illuminative papers, brief little essays full of insight and appreciation, which Booth wrote upon his father and upon Edmund Kean for Messrs. Matthews and Hutton's series on the 'Actors and Actresses of Great Britain and the United States.' The letters here given have been well selected on the whole. They serve to reveal the playfulness and the humor which were among Booth's most marked characteristics, and also the deep spirituality which was the strong core of his character. In these pages we have shown to us truthfully Edwin Booth the man.

Edwin Booth the actor had been set before us already more than once, last of all by Mr. William Winter; and Mr. Winter has now expanded to equal size with his book about Booth the book about the Jeffersons which he contributed fourteen years ago to Mr. Hutton's "American Actor Series," and which was then reviewed at length in these columns. Mr. Winter has revised the biography and brought it down to date; he has added special chapters on the comedian's performances of *Bob Acres* and of *Dr. Pangloss*; he has worked in also accounts of certain of Mr. Jefferson's contemporaries, *e. g.*, William Warren, E. A. Sothern, John T. Raymond, Laura Keene, Mark Smith, George Holland; and he has included furthermore an essay on "Stage Art," a perusal of which may be recommended to all who wish to understand the distinction between literature and the drama, and who wish to see how it is and why it is that the drama can exist and serve its own purpose with little or no aid from literature. It is to be noted with high approval that Mr. Winter's book not only has a good index, but is also enriched with what ought to be an indispensable adjunct of every histrionic biography—a full list of all the parts the actor has sustained.

Among the institutions of the *ancien régime* in France the French Academy and the Comédie-Française have together survived the Revolution. That the great theatrical organization managed to live through the turmoil of '93 is little more than a lucky accident, for the house was divided against itself, and Talma the republican led a rebellion inside the walls of the Théâtre-Français. This exciting period of theatrical history has been treated more than once already, but by no one so fully as by M. Henri Lumière in the book before us; perhaps M. Lumière is even a little too profuse and minute. His book is enriched by many interesting letters of Talma's, hitherto unpublished; and it helps to make clearer to us one of the most important figures of the French theatre, for Talma shares with Rachel the honor of being at the head of the serious actors of France in this nineteenth century. The book is dedicated to M. Jules Claretie, member of the French Academy and administrator of the Comédie-Française, who kindly contributes a rather perfunctory letter of approval, printed as a preface.

M. Parigot is already known to students of the modern French drama as the author of a biographical sketch of the late Émile Augier. He appears now with a volume of essays which proves him to be one of the best-equipped and most acute of French dramatic critics. It is not quite fair, perhaps, to speak of 'Le Théâtre d'Hier' as though it were a collection of essays, for it is really a book having an obvious unity of purpose. M. Parigot sees that a period of the French drama is about to close, and he considers in turn, contrasting one with the other, the chief dramatists of that period—Augier and Labiche, M. Dumas *fils*, M. Pailleron, MM. Meilhac and Halévy, M. Sardou, and M. Henri Becque. Of these the only one unknown or little known to the American playgoing public is M. Becque, who thinks himself, and is proclaimed by his friends, the leader of a new school of dramatists. Probably he was very disagreeably surprised when M. Parigot classed him as a "back number." What is worse, M. Parigot not only makes this classification, but, in his criticism of M. Becque's work, proves its justice. It is pleasant to see that his tone towards Scribe is not as intolerant as is now customary in Paris. Scribe was one of the great masters of dramaturgy, to be studied devoutly by all who want to understand the art of the stage. His formulas are not final, of course—no formulas are; they were first mastered and then simplified by M. Alexandre Dumas *fils*, and Ibsen in turn took the formula of the younger Dumas and simplified it still further, while keeping its strength. To the writers here in America who have been telling us the last few weeks how very great a dramatist M. Sardou is, a reading may be recommended of M. Parigot's study of the author of the "Pattes de Mouche," in which full justice is done to his merits, while his demerits are set down also in due proportion.

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*Modern Scientific Whist.* By C. D. P. Hamilton. New York: Brentano's. 1894.

THIS is a volume of 600 pages, the largest and incomparably the most thorough of all treatises on its subject. Our readers need not be informed that the invention in 1883 of the "American leads" has elevated whist to a new position and dignity. A strong light is thrown upon the mathematical (if a little dry) quality of the American mind by the great access of popularity of the game that resulted from those improvements, although they imparted to it a severer character than it had had before. Formerly good players were to be met with in only half a dozen clubs in all the land; now they swarm.

The analysis of the play of the Third Hand occupies no less than eighty of Mr. Hamilton's pages. The illustrative examples are of a very high order of excellence. We will quote one specimen, although it must be without the diagram given in the book, and without the lucid explanation of the principles it involves. But the reader should take the cards and look at this. The players A, C, B, D sit in this order of play. A holds: Spades, K, 9, 8; Hearts, 5; Diamonds, 8. C holds: Spades 4; Hearts, K, X; Clubs (which are *trumps*), X, 6. B holds: Spades, X, 5; Hearts, 9; Clubs, J, 7. D holds: Spades, 7, 3, 2; Diamonds, 5; Clubs, 9. Two rounds of trumps (Clubs) are supposed to have been played; and it has been made apparent that C and B each hold two more, and that B probably has a tenace over C. C is known to have the best Hearts. A knows that D holds the 5 of Diamonds. A has the lead. Here is the play:

1st Trick—Spades K, 4, X, 2.

2d Trick—Diamonds 8; Hearts X; Spades 5; Diamonds 5.

3d Trick—Spades 8; Clubs X, J; Spades 3.

4th Trick—Clubs 7, 9; Hearts 5; Clubs 6.

This is fine whist.

It could not but be that a few of Mr. Hamilton's propositions are open to dispute. He is among those who are least favorable to playing for cross-ruffs. He says it is "cheap whist." So much the better: there is nothing so elegant as economy. He says: "It is *never* right to play a false card." This refers apparently to some standard of right and wrong too lofty to consider winnings. He says further:

> "The vast majority of American whist-players play whist purely for the intellectual pleasure it affords—there is no other incentive. With such players the mere making of tricks is a secondary object, and to either make or lose a trick through deception is equally unsatisfactory. If the right to play false is recognized, there is then no limit to its pernicious and disintegrating practice."

This comes perilously near to silly pedantry. Of course we play for pleasure, and trying to make tricks is secondary to that pleasure; but there would be no pleasure in it if we had to have a schoolmaster put over us to make us play exactly as *he* likes, whether his way be conducive to winning or not. People who are too virtuous to wish to succeed by the aid of a *ruse*, even in a game, are (thank Goodness!) not long for this world. How such people can be so truculent as to wish to conquer their opponents at all puzzles us. It may be remarked that the whole practice of modern whist is a development of the Blue Peter, which was originally a sharper's cheating device. Our national horror for everything like deception and guile is well shown in our childlike game of poker.

As whist is largely an art of expressing one's self, we should expect to find whist-players fastidiously precise in their style of writing. If it be so, it cannot be proved from this book. Too many sentences are arranged like this: "You must always recollect, when planning any finesse, that if your finesse loses, the immediate loss is nearly always modified, provided, of course, that your finesse was justifiable, or turned into a gain in after-play." Or this: "In the last stages of the hand you are sometimes put to discard, holding a winning card of two plain suits, the opponent holding a losing card in one of them, but uncertain which." Or this: "Suppose partner opens the hand with knave of trumps; you have not one; your discard is from your weakest suit, but it may happen that it is injudicious to do so, owing to the unusual character of your hand." Injudicious to suppose partner so opens the hand, or injudicious so to open it?

Notwithstanding the bulk of the volume, we find nothing in it we should be willing to

spare, except four pages of maxims written in the style of morals to German fables, a style abominable in itself and absurd as applied to whist. On the other hand, there are several omissions we should be glad to have supplied in appendices to a new edition. Firstly, we think the work would hold its ground longer if it contained a discussion from the point of view of a wicked whist-player of the questions of cross-ruffs and false cards. Mr. Hamilton's loathing of deception is so great that we fear we can hardly hope for a quite accurate statement of the case from his pen. Such strong feelings are not favorable to scientific truth. We should also like some instructions how to play with an old-fashioned partner against two modern opponents; and in these, too, we demand a real low, sordid, trick-taking spirit—the moral tone of a man who would not stickle at playing blind-man's buff itself. We should also like chapters on dummy, single and double. Finally, an extensive collection of calculations of chances would be instructive. Hamilton's 'Modern Scientific Whist' must for a long time be the leading treatise, and consequently all whist players must desire that it should be complete.

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*The Egyptian Book of the Dead:* The Most Ancient and the Most Important of the Extant Religious Texts of Ancient Egypt. Edited, with introduction, a complete translation, and various chapters on its History, Symbolism, etc., etc., by Charles H. S. Davis, M.D., Ph.D. With 99 plates, reproduced in facsimile from the Turin Papyrus and the Louvre Papyrus. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1894. 4to, pp. 186.

THE 'Book of the Dead,' as the "Egyptian Bible" is known, is a most important work so far as the Egyptian religion is concerned, but, as a whole, it is by no means the "most ancient" of Egyptian religious writings. The texts contained in some of the pyramids are far earlier in authentic form, and the only proof of priority in favor of some of the chapters of the 'Book of the Dead' is contained in the claims which they make specifically in their own behalf. As an organic whole, with comparatively uniform contents and a generally recognized sequence of chapters, the book is not very ancient as Egyptian history is counted, being as recent as the Saite dynasty, say 650 B. C. Certain sections are undeniably very ancient, but most are of quite uncertain date. Of the method of growth we are distressingly ignorant, and for the most part hints as to which sections are oldest come incidentally from the comments and glosses of later writers. In the collection as it appears at various times and even in what may be called its codified form in the twenty-sixth dynasty, there is an utter lack of any logical or chronological succession or progression in the chapters. A classification based upon the present sequence of the sections is palpably absurd, as even an examination of Dr. Davis's pages shows. Champollion tried it long ago with no better success. Early copies varied as to contents as well as order, and, though supposed to be of great sanctity, the text was exposed to corruption at the hands of ignorant scribes and careless copyists, as well as at those of fantastic commentators. The result is a jumble of variant readings which have deterred all but the boldest from attempting a translation. Egyptian textual criticism is in its veriest infancy, and the colossal work of Naville, under the auspices of the Berlin Academy, has only laid the foundation for work in this line. The translation by Renouf, now appearing in the Proceedings of the Society of Biblical Archæology, will be undoubtedly the best since that of Sharpe in Bunsen's fifth volume, but that it will be entirely satisfactory is beyond the bounds of expectation. The work of the translator is beset not only by textual difficulties, but by those incident to a multitude of mythological references to which there are only a few scattered clues. The single words may be plain enough, but the sense is exceedingly obscure.

To the solution of any of these difficulties, textual or mythological, the present work, which is to all intents and purposes itself a compilation, offers no new aids. In fact, the author does not seem aware of the extent of the mythological difficulties, for he scarcely mentions them and does not explain their nature and compass. Nevertheless, to those persons who desire to get light on the principal figures of the Egyptian pantheon and upon some of the best known features—perhaps the commonplaces—of the Egyptian religion, this book will be welcome. Dr. Davis has read extensively, to judge by his footnotes and references, and has succeeded in getting together a large amount of matter which is generally accurate and more or less pertinent to the subject. We have failed, however, to find evidences of very rigid criticism upon *his* sources, and of course none upon the original sources of all authentic information in this field.

The translation of the 'Book of the Dead' contained in the present volume is a literal rendering of Pierret's French version. From it, however, Dr. Davis has omitted Pierret's annotations, and in so doing he has not particularly helped matters. There is the less reason for this omission because there was sufficient opportunity to incorporate this matter in footnotes without cumbering the pages unduly. In passing, it may be remarked that even the uninitiated can note the uncertain state of the original text as it is reflected in the divergence between this version and that of Renouf; they appear to differ more than they agree. Of course a part of this divergence is due to the translators, but the differences of the text are responsible for the more striking variations. There are also two facsimile hieratic and hieroglyphic texts added in the ninety-nine pages of plates. One was taken originally by De Rougé from a Louvre papyrus, and the other is a reproduction of the plates in Lepsius's 'Todtenbuch.' The former is so much reduced in size as to be useless except so far as the vignettes are concerned, and the latter, while perfectly legible, suffers from a difficulty incident to photographic methods of reproduction. Those familiar with Egyptian papyri know that it was customary to indicate in red all chapter-headings and the beginnings of sections which correspond in general to our paragraphs. These are of great assistance in the reading, though of course not essential. In order to photograph the pages of Lepsius's work with good result, Dr. Davis has simply inked the red characters in black and so reproduced the whole in solid color. Otherwise the text is true to the original. It is a pity, however, that some means, such as underscoring, had not been devised to atone for what is a distinct blemish. Even the fainter color which the photograph of the red portions would have shown would have been better than a total obscuration of all distinctions.

The book is necessarily large and cumbersome, but the printer's work has been well done.

*Dictionnaire de la Céramique:* Faïences, Grès, Poteries. Par Édouard Garnier, Conservateur du Musée et des Collections à la Manufacture Nationale de Sèvres. [Bibliothèque Internationale de *l'Art:* Guide du Collectionneur.] Paris: Librairie de *l'Art.* Pp. lxiii, 260; 20 plates in color of decorative details and 150 marks printed with the text.

THE newest books are the best in all these matters of investigation and comparison, provided always that the new books are not mere compilations from the writings of others. Books only ten or twelve years old may mislead one, because not containing the result of the latest discoveries, as badly in ceramics as in Greek archæology. What becomes of you as an authority if you talk nowadays of the *faïence d'Oiron?* It is nearly as bad as if you called it the *faïence Henri II.;* and yet it seems only yesterday that M. Benjamin Fillon set forth his proofs of the existence of the private pottery at Oiron or Oyron in the Department of Deux Sèvres. Now we know, since Mr. Bonnaffé published the results of his researches, and especially since the exhaustive essay contained in the huge catalogue of the Spitzer collection, that that ware was made at the village of St.-Porchaire in the Charente-Inférieure. It is a pleasure to see that M. Garnier is quite clear as to the correctness of Fillon's discovery that there was a sixteenth-century *fabrique* at Oiron. It is only as to the famous fifty-three pieces that he was wrong.

This book is new, and, but for the vexatious custom of omitting the figures, would be dated 1893. It consists of a dictionary of names of wares, geographical and other, and names of potters when those serve as names of wares; and associated with these are a few technical terms of assumed primary importance. The introduction is an excellent encyclopædic account of processes and of the general history of the industry and of the art. The whole is limited, however, to the earthenwares of Europe, excluding porcelains and Oriental wares of all sorts and also the productions of the nineteenth century. It is excellent for reference as to Palissy and Wedgwood, Rouen and Urbino, as to the stonewares of Nuremberg and Cologne, and as to English *faïence fine.* Perhaps its greatest service to Americans will be in the excellent account of the French decorative enamelled pottery of the eighteenth century, Rouen, Nevers, Moustiers, Lille, Marseilles, Montpellier, and their congeners; but the Italian majolicas are well handled also, and the description of English wares is more technically accurate and more truly descriptive than that in any of the popular handbooks which are generally in use. The colored illustrations are confined to full-sized bouquets and borders, the author rightly concluding that these may be useful for identification, whereas small-scale pictures of whole pieces are mere ornaments to a book.

Blunders are to be noted, often caused by that curious indifference to proof-reading which is common to French and German books, and which goes to make them as cheap as they are, no doubt. Some of the blunders are not the printer's fault, however. Of "Barbmans," we are told that "they call so in Germany the brown stonewares which bear on the front of the neck a mask with a long beard"; and this word *barbmans* is used in the same sense in two other places. No doubt *Bartmann*, plural *Bartmänner*, is the word meant, as this is still the German name for what is called in English a *Bellarmine* or *Graybeard.* In most instances, however, M. Garnier gets his most

complicated foreign names right, and he has given us a useful book.

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*Architect, Owner, and Builder before the Law.* By T. M. Clark, Fellow of the American Institute of Architects. Macmillan & Co. 1894.

THE modern relation of architect and client is a new one, and practically almost undefined by the law. The architect's profession is itself virtually new, so much have his functions and responsibilities increased within a generation or two, at least in the United States; and the public, represented by the average client, does not know where to place him, between the confidential servant and the purely professional adviser, or what duties and rights to assign him. Statute, which has been busy in behalf of the workman, has done nothing for or against the architect, or next to nothing, and the law of his profession is left to crystallize out of such usage as grows up in his daily business, checked by such principles and maxims of law as are found by the courts to be applicable to his new relations. The public is slow, and the courts slower still, to recognize a usage which arises for the most part without public observation, and to which the architects themselves are of necessity the chief witnesses. The average client employs an architect only once or twice in his life; therefore, their relation is always new to him; the courts shrink from the difficulty, perhaps from the risk, of declaring law which is to them obscure or inchoate; and the judges, if a litigated case can be made to turn on some minor and easily established point, too often evade the important question that is presented, and dismiss the case on some technical issue, which leaves nothing established for future cases. The general knowledge and legal recognition of what determines the law of architectural practice, then, lag far behind the working usage by which the practice is regulated, and it is not strange that the architect's way is beset with disputes.

In view of such disputes it is important that the scattered decisions of the courts, which already include a great number of cases touching the architect's professional relations, should be got together and the decisions collated. This valuable service Mr. Clark has undertaken; and, though he is not a lawyer but an architect, he has performed it with much research, acuteness, and clearness of statement. He has examined and cited several hundreds of cases, involving a great variety of points in the threefold relations of architect and owner, architect and builder, and builder and owner, and has made a valuable collection of material that till now was scattered through two or three hundred divided reports, analyzing it with more skill than is common in such manuals. It was not to be expected that a layman should have so wide a view of the principles involved in these cases as a lawyer, or see so broadly the bearings of the decisions of the courts. The book will not be a substitute for legal consultation in legal disputes, and this was probably not its purpose; but it should be of much value in informing architects, clients, and builders of their reciprocal rights and obligations, and in foreshadowing the result of litigation in many cases. For this important use there is nothing to take its place. It is surprising that any layman should have had courage to undertake so difficult and so technical a piece of legal work; it is more surprising that he should have succeeded so well as Mr. Clark has succeeded.

*John MacGregor* ("Rob Roy"). By Edwin Hodder. With portrait and illustrations. London: Hodder Brothers. 1894. 8vo, pp. xiv, 458.

JOHN MACGREGOR, the famous "Rob Roy" canoeist, has been unfortunate in his biographer. A rarely interesting, many-sided man, with an exuberant humor which found vent in *Punch*, intense religious convictions making him a street preacher and a writer for the *Record*, a crack shot, good mountaineer, expert boatman, a popular lecturer, an authority in some departments of law and science, a man who did heartily and well everything that he undertook—one can hardly imagine a better subject for an attractive and suggestive biography. But Mr. Hodder has pitchforked, as it were, a great quantity of material together, much of it good, some utterly trivial or out of place; and the result is a bulky volume which in parts is almost unreadable. We say this, not from any lack of sympathy with Mr. MacGregor's religious opinions or the causes to which he gave his life, but with simple regret that such an opportunity for a stimulating book should have been lost.

"Rob Roy" was the son of an army officer, and, when an infant five weeks old, was rescued, with his parents, from the *Kent* East Indiaman, which was burned in the Bay of Biscay in 1825. He graduated from Cambridge with honors, and became a barrister, living in chambers until his marriage in 1873. The law, however, received little of his attention, as he gave himself almost exclusively to philanthropic and religious work. At one time he enumerates in his diary more than fifteen causes which demanded his "best attention." He threw himself enthusiastically into the Volunteer movement, and gave that up to indulge his passion for canoeing. On his return from his memorable trip to the East, he devoted himself to lecturing, and made £10,000, which he gave away in charity. His last public work was in connection with the London School Board, of which he was an original member. In addition to all this, he was a constant contributor to religious periodicals and the daily press, and, in addition to the accounts of his canoe voyages, wrote several scientific treatises and law-books. These multifarious occupations naturally brought him into contact with the most famous Englishmen of his day. He records a characteristically long list of subjects on which he conversed with Mr. Gladstone. Dickens sought his acquaintance, and was introduced by him to a "splendid specimen of the London Street Arab," who eventually became one of the novelist's characters. He meets "a Mr. Stanley," the special correspondent of the New York *Herald*, and gives him a letter to Dr. Livingstone, whose first book he helped to illustrate. Tennyson altered one of his poems at his suggestion. Huxley and Tyndall were his firm friends. The last years of a life of most exuberant health and spirits were clouded by sickness. MacGregor died on the 16th of July, 1891.

The book is an excellent specimen of typography, and is illustrated with a fine etched portrait and numerous reproductions of Mr. MacGregor's sketches. Some of these are chosen with as little discretion as many of the extracts from his diary.

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*Among the Tibetans.* By Isabella Bird Bishop. With illustrations by Edward Wymper. F. H. Revell Co. 8vo, pp. 159.

THIS is an entertaining account of a journey to Ladakh or Lesser Tibet, a Himalayan State tributary to Kashmir. Though it has been apparently too hastily put together to add much to Mrs. Bishop's reputation as a writer, it shows her at her best as an absolutely fearless traveller. Few men would dare to face the perils and hardships of the mountain-passes, where the narrow path is hung at times on scaffolds over frightful abysses; of the fierce winds, the *ladug* or pass-poison, the blistering heat by day, the freezing cold by night, and, more dangerous still, the fords through the ice-cold mountain torrents. Fatal accidents in these are very common, and Mrs. Bishop was severely injured, barely escaping with her life, in crossing the Shayok. The mere incidents of the journey, however, receive comparatively little attention, and the greater part of the book is taken up with an account of the country and its inhabitants. Considerable space is naturally given to a description of their religious customs, their monasteries, temples, and prayer-wheels. The domestic life of the Tibetans, "the simplest and kindliest people on earth," is less fully treated. Mrs. Bishop pronounces the prevailing system of polyandry, which has been adopted partly on economic grounds to restrain the increase of population, "the most formidable obstacle in the way of the reception of Christianity by the Tibetans." The chief opposition to giving it up proceeds from the women, who dread becoming widows. "A woman said to me, 'If I had only one husband, and he died, I should be a widow; if I have two or three, I am never a widow!' The word 'widow' is with them a term of reproach, and is applied abusively to animals and men." A high tribute is paid to the Moravian missionaries in Ladakh who, in the course of forty years' faithful service, have won the confidence and affection of the people in a remarkable degree. Yet, judged merely from the number of converts made, their work must be regarded as unsuccessful. If the abbot of one of the monasteries is to be believed, it has tended even to the resurrection of Buddhism in some places. "When you came here," he said, "people were quite indifferent about their religion; but since it has been attacked they have become zealous, and now they *know*."

Mrs. Bishop describes very graphically her travelling companions, among the most interesting of whom were her horse Gyalpo, and her escort, an Afghan swashbuckler. She gives the following recipe for making tea in Tibet: "For six persons. Boil a teacupful of tea in three pints of water for ten minutes with a heaped dessert-spoonful of soda. Put the infusion into the churn with one pound of butter and a small tablespoonful of salt. Churn until as thick as cream." The older the butter, the more enhanced is its value. "I saw skins of it forty, fifty, and even sixty years old, which were very highly prized, and would only be opened at some special family festival or funeral." The illustrations, though poorly executed, are many of them interesting as showing the remarkable architecture of the temples and dwellings of this singular people.

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*German Society at the Close of the Middle Ages.* By E. Belfort Bax. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. 1894.

MR. ERNEST BELFORT BAX is well known as a ready writer upon socialistic matters. He knows many things and he hesitates at nothing. He will reconstruct you the whole course of human history from the point of view of how it would have been if it had been written by a

socialist, or he will make you over the present world as it would be if such little obstacles as monogamy were once happily out of the way.

Naturally, when such a man comes down to the plain trade of writing history himself, he does so freed from many limitations which cramp the less unfettered spirits of ordinary historians. His subject this time is a most attractive one. German society in the early Reformation period is a complex organism, full of violent contradictions, moved by no simple impulses, not to be brought under any handy rubrics of the schools. To write about it intelligently would require a profound acquaintance with very many phases of human activity and a very special knowledge of an extremely troublesome material. A less light-hearted person would shrink from the task. Not so Mr. Bax. He gathers together a quantity of anecdotes, sets them neatly under eight well-chosen headings, and strings them upon a very slender thread of comment. There is a flippancy of tone, a kind of cocksureness in opinions, and a contemptuous way of referring to all "bigots," which reminds one of the saying that "the toleration of intolerance is the most difficult attitude for a bigoted radical." Mr. Bax has made good use of the genial Janssen, and has adopted not a little of his attractive way of "letting the facts tell the story." The only questions are, "What facts?" and "What story shall they be made to tell?"

This method may be used, as it was by Janssen, with great effect when the scale is large enough to make the facts collected bear heavily towards some one point of controversy. In the present case there is not room enough for the method to work. Each chapter leaves the impression of having been built up about some separate incident which occupies the greater part of it, but which does not bear on any well-defined result. The whole effect is scrappy and unsatisfying, and one closes the volume in wonder why either author or publisher should have thought it worth while to spend such elegance of paper, type, and margin upon such very meagre contents.

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*The Vermont Settlers and the New York Speculators.* By R. C. Benton. Minneapolis: *Housekeeper* Press. 1894.

AGRICULTURAL settlements in Vermont date from 1761. Within four years thereafter at least five hundred families were there, planted in more than a score of scattered hamlets or isolated log houses. Each settler had started a farm, cleared land with an average of twenty days' labor on each acre, and built him a dwelling. The largest clearing amounted to one hundred and twenty acres. At this point there were also a barn, sawmill, and potashery. Crops and cattle, grist-mills, schools, church and minister were not unknown. Four years of intelligent effort had already made the wilderness blossom.

These settlers held their lands by grants from the Governor of New Hampshire, bearing the King's seal, and his declaration that they "shall be good and effectual in law against us, our heirs and successors." They had paid the Governor for their grants. But in 1765 there came a proclamation from New York authorities that the King through his council had declared "Connecticut River to be the boundary between New York and New Hampshire." The farmers, though New Englanders at heart, were not at first disquieted. They understood the King's words to be prospective, not retrospective—that is, meaning "to be *henceforth*," and not to have always been. That such was their real significance, that the King's words were legislative and not judicial, Mr. Benton has conclusively shown at great length. Some of the settlers had come from townships granted by Massachusetts, but which in 1744 had been adjudged to be the territory of New Hampshire. Those grants had not become invalid by the change of jurisdiction. Accordingly it did not seem to the settlers possible that their rights of property could be impaired by the political transfer.

On the other hand, the Governor of New York proclaimed New Hampshire titles worthless, demanded ten times or more what they had originally cost for new ones, declared all improvements of four laborious years forfeited, and undertook to evict every dweller in the infant State. Thus began a conflict which for a quarter of a century was irrepressible. Speculators bought New York grants of those farms that were most improved, sure of enormous profit in cases of ejectment. Both parties appealed to England, and neither came back satisfied. Decisions there favored the Green Mountain Boys, but the English mandates were disregarded by Tories who ruled in New York and knew that, thanks to their political loyalty, infractions of law would be winked at. New Hampshire, which had no hope of further gain from her grantees, left them to fight their own battles. They fought them well. Equity was so clearly on their side that the public opinion even of New York was also there—outside of speculators and their underlings, "constrained things whose hearts were absent." Hence it came to pass that the Empire State did not crush her pigmy antagonist. No matter though her posse comitatus was a regiment, it always turned back from the frontier discomfited. The violence of New York at last forced the Hampshire Grants men to declare their independence, and to maintain it till they were welcomed into the bosom of the Union as a State. The success of Vermont while contending against desperate odds has cheered more than one forlorn hope, while pioneering a minority of right against might, who would have folded their arms in despair but for Vermont convictions that "one plus God makes a majority."

The case of Vermont in its legal aspects has never been better pleaded than by Mr. Benton, who has a filial joy in so doing. Whoever shall contend with him will meet a foeman worthy of his steel. Like many other sons of the Green Mountains, though wandering far away, he "drags at each remove a lengthening chain." He is proud to proclaim (p. 169) that Vermont, in 1785, was the first State to pass a betterment act, giving in case of eviction to the man dispossessed pay for his improvements—an act copied in every new State that has since grown up, and which England, after more than a hundred years, has not yet quite learned to formulate. The betterment act—the name as well as the thing—was born after years of gestation. In one act the word was defined as "the value of what an estate is made *better* by improvements." Dr. Murray, aiming in the 'New Dictionary' to show the earliest use of words, found no citation for betterment earlier than 1809. Here is one twenty-four years before, which he will gladly read (Records of Vermont Governor and Council, vol. iii., p. 351, 1785). If a possessor is evicted, the jury is to award him "the just value of buildings and other *betterments* made by him." Mr. Benton, while claiming that betterment legislation originated in Vermont, does not mention that the word in its legal sense as well as the thing was a Green Mountain creation. This fact needs to be reaffirmed because it has been recently denied by those who should not be ill-informed. We read in *Notes and Queries* of Aug. 25 (8s. vi., p. 144): "An American General and M. C., Gen. Vielé, appeared before a committee of the House of Lords, and testified that 'betterment' was not an American word, but that 'benefit' was the word there used. 'We were all under the impression that the word was of transatlantic origin,' remarked the Marquis of Salisbury. 'Then you were all wrong,' answered the general; 'the word is not to be found in the English language current in America,'" etc. The plain tale of truth is this: The Vermont act of June, 1785, was to secure to dispossessed landholders (squatters) "an opportunity of recovering their betterments." The sense in which the word is here used was suggested by a phrase in the provisional act of 1781, which, aiming at the same result, spoke of ascertaining "how much an estate had been *made better* by a possessor's having settled thereon" (Slade, Vt. State Papers, pp. 442, 499). This derivation seems more probable than that betterments was translated from *meliorationes* in the civil law, which was unknown to the woodsmen. Mr. Benton incidentally remarks that the word is now current in Vermont use. To the same purpose Chief Justice Lyon, who not one year ago retired from the Supreme bench in Wisconsin, speaks of a party seeking the benefit of a certain act "commonly designated the Betterment law" (Wis. Reports, vol. lxix., p. 656). It has appeared needful to adduce these American authorities because, while Dr. Murray credits the above usage of betterment to the United States, his citations are altogether from British authors, and those also very far from the earliest American specimens.

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*The Sphere of the State;* or, The People as a Body Politic. With special consideration of certain present problems. By Frank Sargent Hoffman, A.M. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1894.

Mr. HOFFMAN'S little treatise consists chiefly of lectures delivered to the senior class of Union College, and is not designed for "advanced students in political science," but for "the average intelligent beginner." It is half abstract speculation and half practical examination of current questions, such as those relating to the government of cities, the treatment of criminals, and the relation of the Church to the State. With most of the conclusions reached by Mr. Hoffman the reader will be likely to find himself in accord; for the speculative part of it so much cannot be said. We ourselves, at least, have experienced a difficulty in following Mr. Hoffman, partly because he is apt to ignore the first condition of all speculative inquiry—clearness in the use of terms—and, as a consequence of this, because he insists upon affixing to terms in ordinary use novel significations of his own. No term employed in treatises of this character has been more thoroughly discussed, for instance, than "law." We may not be satisfied with any definition ever given of it, but it was certainly left to Mr. Hoffman to discover a "very important difference, but one too often overlooked," "between a law and a statute"—that "a law is a requirement of the State, while a statute is a decree of the Government." The former "can never be wrong." The latter is "not often unmixed with error." If Mr. Hoffman is right, the distinction is indeed impor-

tant, for "a man ought never to disobey a law, but *he may often be called upon* to disobey a statute." We all know what a statute is, but it seems rather unfair to the "average intelligent beginner" to tell him that he is living in the midst of "laws" which are requirements of "the State," but not of "the Government," and which are of a higher authority than statutes, without at least giving an example of what is meant. It is not constitutional law that is referred to, for that the author classes immediately afterwards with statutory law as a governmental product; but whether what he has in mind is the law of Nature, or Divine law, or how he thinks "the State" produces it, or where it is recorded or preserved, we cannot make out.

Doctrinaires like Mr. Hoffman all seem to conceive of two different states—the ordinary one in which we all live and move and have our being; and another (described almost rhapsodically on p. 34 as "the true state" and "the grandest of all earthly institutions") which bears about the same relation to any actual state that heaven does. But the very first thing that the "average intelligent beginner" should be taught is that there are not two states, any more than there are half a dozen; what he should fix his mind upon is man and his social and governmental systems as they actually exist, and not as Plato or Cicero or even he himself would like to have them.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Andrews, E. B. History of the United States. 2 vols. Scribners, $4.
Anthony, Prof. G. C. Elements of Mechanical Drawing. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.50.
Bell, R. A. The Sleeping Beauty, and Dick Whittington and his Cat. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
Bibliographica. Part III. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.
Björnson, Björnstjerne. Synnövé Solbakken. New ed. Macmillan. $1 25.
Bonavia, Dr. E. The Flora of the Assyrian Monuments and its Outcomes. London: Archibald Constable & Co.
Border Ballads. Illustrated. London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $7.
Brassington, W. S. A History of the Art of Bookbinding, with some account of the Books of the Ancients. Macmillan. $6.
Bouvet, Marguerite. My Lady; A Story of Long Ago. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Butterworth, Hezekiah. The Parson's Miracle, and My Grandmother's Grandmother's Christmas Candle. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 50 cents.
Cable, G. W. John March, Southerner. Scribners. $1.50.
Castlemon, Harry. Sailor Jack the Trader. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Clarke, Rev. H. W. A History of Tithes. 2d ed. London; Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Cook, T. A. Notes on Tobogganing at St. Moritz. Scribners. $1.50.
Cornish, C. J. Wild Animals in Captivity. Illustrated. Macmillan. $3.50.
Crockett, S. R. The Play-Actress. Putnams. $1.
Dahlgren, Mrs. M. V. The Social-Official Etiquette of the United States. 6th ed. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co. $1.
Freytag, Gustav. Technique of the Drama. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $1.50.
Friendship, Love and Kisses. 3 vols. Raphael Tuck & Sons.
Ford, J. L. The Literary Shop, and Other Tales. G. H. Richmond & Co.
Giberne, Agnes. Radiant Suns. Macmillan. $1.75.
Grosart, A. B. Green Pastures: Being Choice Extracts from the Works of Robert Greene. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Grosart, A. B. The Love-Verse from the Minor Poems of Edmund Spenser. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Harraden, Beatrice. Things will Take a Turn: A Story for Children. London: Blackie & Son; New York: Scribners. $1.
Harris, J. C. Little Mr. Thimblefinger and his Queer Country. Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
James, Henry. Washington Square. Harpers. 50 cents.
Jarvis, Stinson. She Lived in New York. *Judge* Publishing Co.
Korolenko, Vladimir. La Forêt Murmure; Contes d'Ukraine et de Sibérie. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Latimer, Elizabeth W. England in the Nineteenth Century. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $2.50.
Lavisse, Prof. Ernest. A Propos de nos Ecoles. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Liesse, André. La Question Sociale. Paris: Léon Chailley.
Marden, O. S. Pushing to the Front; or, Success under Difficulties. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Matthews, Brander. The Royal Marine. Harpers. $1.
Morgan, C. L. An Introduction to Comparative Psychology. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Morton, F. W. Woman in Epigram. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Murray, J. A. H. A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles. D—Deceit. 90 cents. F—Fang. 60 cents. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 13, 1894.

## The Week.

SECRETARY CARLISLE'S report is, we believe, the first one from the Treasury Department since the war, except those of Mr. McCulloch, that has recommended the retirement and extinguishment of the greenbacks. The latter was secretary of the treasury when the war came to an end. He recommended the gradual and complete retirement of the greenbacks, and Congress agreed with him and passed a law for this purpose on the 12th of April, 1866. This law provided for the funding of the greenbacks in interest-bearing bonds at the rate of $4,000,000 per month. It was repealed, however, on the 4th of February, 1868, after $44,000,000 had been retired, and although the act of 1866 provided that they should be "retired and cancelled," Secretary Richardson reissued $26,000,000 of them in a vain attempt to relieve the stringency of the money market during the panic of 1873. From that time to this, all the chiefs of the department have acquiesced in the continuance of the greenback, unless Secretary McCulloch may have been an exception when he resumed the office under President Arthur. Mr. Carlisle has been classed hitherto with the Kentucky school of finance, which has certainly not been distinguished for hostility to greenbacks. He is one of the last persons who would have been expected to write the report which he has just sent to Congress. It means that he has been learning the truth by experience since he came into the department. He finds that the legal-tender notes are a stumbling-block to the operations of the Government and to those of the business community also. He accordingly recommends that they be retired permanently. His report is very clear, very well written, and is without variableness or shadow of turning. It advocates the gold standard to the fullest extent. There is no shilly-shally in it from beginning to end. Whatever may be the outcome, Mr. Carlisle will have left upon the records of the department an unanswerable argument in favor of the withdrawal of the Government from the banking business absolutely and for ever.

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Mr. Carlisle's plan for retiring the greenbacks is twofold. First, he desires to have authority to apply surplus revenues to this purpose when he has any, and to be relieved of the present requirement of law to reissue greenbacks when they are taken in for taxes. Second, he favors the Baltimore plan of banknote issues with some variations, one of which is that, in addition to all other security for banknotes, banks shall deposit legal-tender notes in the Treasury to the amount of 30 per cent. of their issues, which issues shall not exceed 75 per cent. of their paid-up unimpaired capital. Several other recommendations are made, among others, that the 10 per cent. tax on State banknotes be repealed whenever those banks shall comply with the same requirements as the national banks. This latter recommendation would be unobjectionable if the execution of the law were in the same hands —*i.e.*, in those of the secretary and comptroller at Washington; but Mr. Carlisle does not propose this. He proposes only that the secretary and the comptroller shall be satisfied that the law has been complied with, not that they shall be armed with powers to enforce compliance. This is a material difference. It is so great a difference that it cannot be assented to by those who consider uniformity of currency, as to its goodness and its cognizability, the prime consideration. The proposal that 30 per cent. of greenbacks be deposited by the banks in addition to all other deposits and taxes raises the question whether there would be a profit in taking out notes on those conditions. At present the banks are required to deposit about 115 per cent. of bonds, but these draw interest at 4 per cent. per annum, whereas the greenbacks would draw nothing. If there is no profit in banknote issues at present—and this seems to be the fact, since the issues are rather declining than increasing—would there be a profit under the new requirement? This is a question for practised bankers to answer. Our own opinion is that there would not be sufficient profit in it to secure any considerable retirement of greenbacks. As Congress appears likely to do something more at this session than to pass the necessary appropriation bills, further consideration of the plan may be anticipated.

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The recommendation of the secretary of the treasury that all banknotes smaller than $10 should be suppressed has reopened an old controversy. The secretary points to the example of European countries in this regard, but he makes the mistake of supposing that small notes are generally prohibited there. It is true that banknotes smaller than £5 sterling ($25) are not allowed to be issued in England, but they are allowed in Scotland and Ireland as small as one pound, and the Scotch notes have a considerable circulation in the border counties of England. In France, banknotes as small as 20 francs ($4) are allowed, but the Bank issues very few of them because it wishes to keep the silver five-franc pieces in circulation so that they shall not fill up the vaults of the Bank. In Italy, Germany, Austria, and Russia small notes are allowed and are in common use. There is no more objection in a scientific sense to the use of small notes than there is to silver half-dollars, quarters, and dimes, the metallic value of which is now so small that they may be classed with other fiduciary instruments. It is contended that the suppression of small notes in this country would compel the circulation of gold from hand to hand to the extent of perhaps two or three hundred millions, and thus retain it in the country. But this circulation is inconvenient, or it would not need to be forced. It involves, moreover, a certain amount of waste of the metal by abrasion, and also the loss of interest on the amount of capital engaged, because gold will pay debts abroad or will bring in capital of equal value. A certain amount of gold is necessary to pay balances of international trade and to serve as a touchstone of the paper circulation, but it does not follow that any considerable part of it should be passing from hand to hand and wearing out people's pockets.

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The newspapers are brimful of articles on the currency question and on Secretary Carlisle's report, and some of the comments are very acute. For example, the Springfield *Republican* points out that it is not redemption of greenbacks over and over again that depletes the Government's gold reserve, but a shortage of revenue, and that what is needful to set things right in this respect is either more income or less outgo. A slight retrospect will show that this is true. The $100,000,000 gold reserve was accumulated in 1878. The Treasury doors were thrown open on the first of January, 1879, *i. e.*, nearly sixteen years ago. Why has not the redemption of greenbacks depleted the reserve before? The Treasury doors have been open all the time. Redemption has been going on all the time. The answer is, that until within a recent period the Government was always taking in more money of one kind and another than it was paying out. When the balance turned the other way and the Government began to pay out more than it took in, the reserves were drawn upon—the reserves of gold as well as of all other things. It was inevitable that a time must come when borrowing would be necessary unless the balance should be speedily redressed. This was pointed out repeatedly in our columns. It was predicted by Senators in debate. There is nothing wonderful about it.

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Various measures which the President urges upon the attention of Congress will receive little favor, either from the stupidity of members of his own party or from the jealousy of his opponents. But there is one line of policy which he can

carry out without reference to the politicians of either party. This is a radical extension of the scope of the civil-service law by bringing under its provisions large classes of officials whose places are now outside the classified service. The statute gives the Executive authority thus to extend the system at his discretion. In his recent message to Congress Mr. Cleveland states that "numerous additional offices and places have lately been brought within civil-service rules and regulations," and makes the gratifying announcement that "some others will probably soon be included." Since the message was written, by the way, he has issued another order, bringing 150 places in the Geological Survey within the rules. The President points out that the advantages to the public service of an adherence to the principles of civil-service reform are constantly more apparent, and expresses the opinion that "a vast majority of the voters of the land are ready to insist that the time and attention of those they select to perform for them important public duties should not be distracted by doling out minor offices; and they are growing to be unanimous in regarding party organization as something that should be used in establishing party principles, instead of dictating the distribution of public places as rewards of partisan activity."

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It is undoubtedly true that civil-service reform is stronger with the voters of the country now than ever before. It is equally true that the spoils system is weaker with the politicians. The alternations of political control at Washington during the past ten years have utterly discredited the old theory that patronage helps a party. The Republicans had all the offices in 1884, and a Democrat was elected President. The Democrats had the offices in 1888, and a Republican was elected President. The Republicans were no sooner fully installed in office than a Democrat was elected President in 1892, while in 1894 the party which had lost its hold upon the patronage won the most sweeping victory in our political history. Moreover, Democratic politicians all over the country agree that the squabbling over the offices during the past two years was a potent element in the defeat of their party last month, and many Congressmen who were defeated for reëlection can demonstrate how they would have won, except for the losses which they suffered from the necessity of distributing patronage. While, therefore, ten years ago the politicians could make out quite a case for their theory that a party would be beaten if it could not have all the offices when it carried the country, the events of the past decade have exposed the utter absurdity of their claim and left them without a leg to stand on. The result is, that extensions of the merit system can now be made without serious opposition from any quarter. Mr. Cleveland has already done more in this direction than any other President, and he is sure of popular support in carrying the reform much further.

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The President's message says of the report on the Chicago strike that "the standing and intelligence" of the commissioners "give assurance that the report and suggestions they make are worthy of careful consideration." This is somewhat oracular, but probably is not to be taken as an approval of the report. If it were, it would be tantamount to a disapproval by Mr. Cleveland of his own acts, for the report is, in effect, an argument for doing precisely what the President refused to do. If Carroll D. Wright had been President, he would have insisted that the Pullman Company arbitrate something or other, no matter what, and that it should have run its works at a loss not of one-quarter the value of its contracts, but three-quarters. The commissioners' suggestions along this line were made to the President last summer by Gompers, Debs, and the anarchistic press, and it is to be presumed he "carefully considered" them then. At any rate, there is no reason for reaching a different decision now from the one then made. Attorney-General Olney's report brushes aside the "merits of the labor disturbance which has passed into history under the name of the Pullman strike," and takes up simply the duty and activity of the Government, in view of the lawlessness which grew out of it. This was all that the authorities at Washington had any occasion to consider carefully at the time, and it is really all they need to consider now.

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Mr. Babcock, the chairman of the Republican congressional committee, has been openly repudiating the McKinley bill and saying it was not desired by one Republican out of five, and was an unreasonable imposition of the manufacturers, and that the country will not in any case go back to it. For this he was sternly chastised by the party organ, the *Tribune*, on Saturday, in an interesting and even amusing article. Babcock was wrong in attacking the McKinley tariff, because "that was the latest form of tariff framed and formally approved by the Republican party as a whole." But then this might have been said of the twenty-four Republican tariffs which have preceded it since 1861. Each was in its day "the latest form of tariff," etc., but every one of them must have been attacked by some sacrilegious Republican dog like Babcock, or else it would never have had to give place to another. The *Tribune* next admits that the tariff of 1890 "is not a fetish to be stupidly worshipped," which is in substance what Babcock says. "The defects of the measure may be profitably explained and corrected when the opportunity comes," which is also Babcock's view. "Whenever power comes from the people to frame a new revenue law, the Republicans will improve on the act of 1890 as far as they can." We do not know Babcock, but if he would deny this, he would be far worse than his friends represent him to be. The mission of the Republican party is to "improve our tariffs" by making new ones. The explanation the *Tribune* gives the wretched man of the meaning of the election in 1894 will not, we fear, help him to clearer views of the situation:

> "It is just as well to quit the notion that the American people meant in 1894 exactly what they meant in 1892. The change operated mightily, and he is a dolt who does not see it. Whatever the verdict of 1892 meant, we may be entirely sure that the verdict of 1894 means not only something different, but on the whole something directly opposite."

Now this is not a case of excluded middle. It does not, under the present laws of thought, follow that because the verdict of 1892 meant something uncertain or unknown, the verdict of 1894 means something directly opposite. If one declines to go south, it does not show that he wants to go north. He may want to go northwest, or southwest, or east by north-northeast.

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Addicks, the gas speculator who is trying to buy the Delaware senatorship, may well feel a grievance against the Republican newspapers. During the week after the recent election they were full of rejoicings over the result in Delaware—"the redemption of Delaware," as they called it—which they insisted was "a subject for profound congratulation." The truth is that Delaware was "redeemed" by Addicks's money. If he had not spent tens of thousands of dollars in buying votes for the Republican candidates, the Democrats would have remained in control. Having thus elected a majority of the legislators, Addicks only asks that they shall give the senatorship to the man who enabled them to get office—and immediately the Republican editors who have been shouting over the "redemption" repudiate the redeemer. Addicks has been brought up in the school which teaches that "business is business," and one cannot help a certain sympathy with him in his indignation at the way he is now being cheated out of what he paid for.

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The movement for election reform is attracting more attention throughout the South than ever. Gov. Oates, the progressive Democrat who was elected in Alabama last August, devotes considerable attention to the subject in his message to the Legislature. He concedes that there are serious defects in the present system, notably in the rigorous provisions regarding registration, and in the failure to allow each party a representative in the counting of the votes; and he strongly recommends amendments of the law which will remove these just grounds of complaint. He

also advises the passage of a law which will enable a contest over State offices to be legally prosecuted; the absence of such a statute having given Kolb a certain excuse for his recent semi-revolutionary proceedings to secure the governorship. Georgia is another Southern State where the election system has fostered the commission of fraud, and the reform of that system is one of the most important questions now pending before the Legislature. There seems no doubt that a good registration law will be passed, and there is a strong popular demand for the adoption of the Australian system, though the professional politicians may succeed in preventing it at this session.

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The agitation of the clerks in first and second-class post-offices for a classification of their ranks and salaries is entirely reasonable and ought to succeed. The periodical apportionment of the lump sum set apart for salary account in these offices not only is unbusinesslike, but often works serious injustice; and even if the cases of hardship were much fewer, there could be no doubt of the evil influence of a lack of definite system upon the minds and spirit of the men. Good discipline would be subserved, certainly, by giving each clerk the feeling that he had a fixed prize to work for in entitling himself to promotion. The letter-carriers have so great an advantage over the clerks, owing to their having had for some years a classification which gives to each man a stated salary and holds before him a larger one to win if he can, that the records of a post-office sometimes show five times as many applications for appointment to carriers' places as for clerkships. There are more than ten thousand clerks in the eight or nine hundred offices which would be affected by Representative Dunphy's classification bill, or, in round numbers, about one-twelfth of the strictly clerical civil service of the United States. This is too large a porportion to leave at the mercy of the haphazard methods of compensation now in vogue.

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The despatch of English and American envoys to accompany the Turkish commission which is to inquire into the Armenian atrocities, gives fair reason to hope we shall get at the truth. But nobody who knows the Turks will believe, commission or no commission, that any Turkish commander ever suppressed a Christian insurrection by other means than massacre and pillage. It is the old-fashioned method—the method, we might almost say, of Turkish jurisprudence—and it has been wonderfully successful in maintaining the most horrible despotism the modern world has seen. Nothing could ever have kept the rayahs down so long in European Turkey but the certainty of slaughter and plunder in case of resistance. The only people who have met the Turks with a ferocity equal to their own, have been the Montenegrins, who were never subjugated and always gave as good as they got. The Greeks, the Bulgarians, the Servians, the Bosnians, on the other hand, lay down for ages under the Turkish terror, until the Turks tried one massacre too many in Bulgaria in 1876. A hundred or even fifty years sooner the news of this would have reached Western Europe even more faintly than the news from Armenia now reaches us. Nothing would or could have been done. But, thanks to the railroad, the telegraph, the newspapers, and to travel, the quiet perpetration of these enormities is no longer possible. The toleration of such a power as Turkey as a ruler of Christians is one of the most surprising phenomena of our time. No power has done half as much to put an end to it as Russia, and the present outrages may furnish her with an excuse for annexing a little more of Armenia. The objection to this is that it destroys the Armenian dream of a revival of their ancient kingdom; but better be a Russian subject than a Turkish slave.

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The battle for possession of the London School Board must still go on, for the elections of November 22 can be described only as a drawn battle, with the gain of prestige for the Progressives. The total number of votes polled in 1891, when popular interest in schools was at a low ebb, was 891,000; in 1894, 1,587,000. In 1891 the Moderates (dogmatic party) numbered 28, the Progressives 22, various others 5. The board of 1894 contains 29 Moderates and 26 Progressives. But another comment deserves to be made: the total voting for the Moderates was 671,734, for the Progressives, 807,632, so that in mere votes the latter had a majority. It is worth noting, too, that almost always the Progressives head the poll with triumphant majorities; the Moderates creep in at the tail. Mr. Athelstan Riley, despite great efforts made by the Church party in Chelsea, was at the bottom of the poll, Mr. Diggle was lower than at the last election, and three of his most obedient henchmen were flung out. Mr. Lyulph Stanley will move what will practically be a vote of confidence in the teachers, which, if passed, will mean a reversal of the church policy, a reassertion of the compromise of 1871. The London School Board has more than half a million scholars upon its books, and administers funds to the extent of more than £2,000,000 per annum.

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Electoral frauds on an extensive scale have been uncovered in various parts of the French republic, and the evidence brought out against incriminated persons at Toulouse does not show that they do these things better in France. The methods of ballot-manipulators seem to be the same the world over, and the French sharpers now on trial appear to have adopted many tricks that were long since exposed and discarded in Tammany Hall. The prestidigitator as a poll-clerk, who slips a ballot out of his sleeve or palm and puts it into the box instead of the one the voter hands him; the tissue ballot, plumped in 300 in a bunch; the expert compiler of returns, who transfers a score or two of votes from one column to another in a twinkling; the voter on the names of dead men and aliens; the voter who spells his name four different ways and votes each way—all have been unearthed in Toulouse, and all have shown their kin with sharpers across the sea by protesting their innocence and declaring that the proof of their rascality was "all a mistake." Already the municipal council of Toulouse has been declared null and void by the Government, on the ground of huge frauds in the manner of its election, and the trials of a goodly number of the rogues are being sternly pushed. We regret to say that most of these electoral crimes have been brought home to radicals and socialists, who hold advanced views on the power and sanctity of universal suffrage, and who are highly impatient at the dull conservatism which stands in the way of the millennium they would usher in to-morrow if only let alone.

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Why the German Socialists in the Reichstag should refuse to cheer the Emperor is not clear. He has always been one of them in many of his political beliefs, and only just before, in his speech at the opening of the new Reichstag building, he committed himself anew to some of the leading principles of the socialistic programme. He was going to take severe measures to put down competition in trade, and what could be more socialistic than that? He was determined to make an end of wicked speculation in stocks and bonds, so direful in its effects upon national prosperity, and what more could Peffer himself do if he were Kaiser? Furthermore, wise William was going to devote himself and the efforts of the Government to the promotion of "content" among the people, and to the "mitigation" of economic and social differences. This was the imperative duty of the state. Surely all good Socialists will agree to that. To make everybody happy and to wipe out all economic and social differences is the thing they are all going to do, or make the state do. Why, then, should they disapprove of the Emperor when he so cordially approves of them? The real reason appears to be a difference of opinion as to who constitute "the state." William is sure he does, and they maintain that they do, or ought to. Then he has some obsolete ideas about military discipline, and keeping order, and firing on mobs, which they justly say will never fit into their system at all. It is the old story of popular ingratitude, which condescending reformers from Moses to Wilhelm have had to suffer. But it is discouraging to see Socialists failing to recognize a paternal government when they see it.

*THE GREENBACKS MUST GO.*

THE House committee on banking has started an investigation into the currency question which promises to be instructive to the country, even if it does not lead to the passage of any bill at the present session. This is the most important work that can be done now. The people, or that portion of them who form ideas for themselves and give an effective impulse to public opinion, are now eagerly discussing this question. The newspapers were never so full of it, and never before, since the greenback came into being, have they had such intelligent views or been so earnest in promulgating them. Opinions may differ, and will differ, as to the kind of banknote reform we ought to have, but in the strongest and best newspapers there is now a general concurrence in the belief that the greenback is the great obstacle to any kind of reform, and that it must go. The occasion seems to be appropriate for a glance backward at the mischief which it has wrought.

Baleful as the legal-tender act was during the war, its after effects were worse. It produced a chaos of ideas. It taught people to believe lies—among others that the Government's bonds were payable in greenbacks. In the first acts of Congress authorizing these bonds it was provided that the interest should be paid in coin. This was designed for the double purpose of maintaining the purchasing power of the greenbacks, which were fundable into bonds, and of keeping up the price of the bonds themselves, both being thus in touch with gold. But nothing was said about paying the principal in coin, because nobody had then imagined that the Government could pay one debt with another. The language of the legal-tender act, however, lent some plausibility to this conception. It said that the notes should be "lawful money, and a legal-tender in payment of all debts public and private within the United States, except duties on imports and interest as aforesaid."

It was not until a year later that any question was raised as to the payment of the principal, and then Congress, in the "nine-hundred-million bill" (act of March 3, 1863), as if to resolve a possible doubt, expressly provided that the bonds issued under it should be paid, both principal and interest, in coin. This change in phraseology did not attract much attention while the war was still raging, but it was seen even then that a dangerous controversy was impending.

It was discovered by Gen. Butler in the Republican camp, and about the same time by George H. Pendleton in the Democratic, that there was no provision in the laws under which the 5-20 bonds were issued for paying the principal in coin. Both fancied that they had found a short road to political preferment. They and many other politicians at once advanced the fantastic conceit that the Government could rightfully pay the first piece of paper (the bond) with a second (the greenback). If it could do so, then it could pay the second piece with the first, and thus, by a pleasant game of see-saw or thimble-rigging, the whole debt could be paid without taxation. As all other governments could rightfully do what we could, all national debts might be settled in a twinkling. But there would be no need of taking the trouble to exchange an interest-bearing bond for a non-interest-bearing note. The whole debt could be cancelled by simply passing a law saying "all bonds of the United States are legal tender, and shall cease to bear interest after the passage of this act." If that could be called payment of the debt, what would be repudiation of it?

It is a solemn fact that the fight on this question, which became hot and doubtful in 1868, did not really end till several years after the resumption of specie payments, although, with the latter event, it had ceased to be a practical question. In Senator Beck's speech of December 21, 1885, the right of the Government to pay the bonds in greenbacks was stoutly affirmed and reiterated, and it is most likely that that is the inmost belief of the Populists to-day.

The most pernicious idea born with the greenback was that the Government could make money. If it could make money, of course it ought to. The Government exists for the benefit of the people. It is for the benefit of the people to have plenty of money, because the more of it a man has, the more comforts he can enjoy. This idea led to the passage of the inflation bill of 1874 which was vetoed by President Grant. The bill provided for an increase of only $44,000,000 of greenbacks—the amount retired by Secretary McCulloch—but it contained the whole principle of inflation of an irredeemable currency in time of peace. President Grant was quite right in saying that "if in practice the measure should fail to create the abundance of circulation expected of it, the friends of the measure, particularly those out of Congress, would clamor for such inflation as would give the expected relief." His veto of this measure is worthy of all the praise that has been bestowed upon it. It practically killed greenback inflation, although a hot battle was fought over it at the polls the following year. The centre of this engagement was in the State of Ohio, where the Democrats had declared in their platform that the amount of money ought to be made "equal to the wants of trade."

The phrase "equal to the wants of trade" means the wants of anybody in trade. It also requires measures to put the person in possession of what he wants. Since all must be treated alike, it follows that everybody must be served with greenbacks at the public treasury till he says he has enough. There is no stopping short of this unless some supernatural genius in each generation knows exactly how much money is required by the wants of trade, and unless we can keep him always in charge of the Government's paper mill. To give everybody all the greenbacks he wants would give nobody an advantage except by cancelling past debts. Therefore an act of Congress cancelling all debts, or an act making everybody's check legal tender, would accomplish the same end more expeditiously.

The notions that led to the inflation bill which Gen. Grant vetoed are not dead. They are not even slumbering. The Populist "sub-treasury" scheme, as it is called, is the old inflation bill under a new name. It proposes that the Government shall issue legal-tender notes and lend them on produce stored in warehouses. Similar schemes will always be cropping up because money-making is the ruling passion of mankind, and because the greenback is always telling the uninstructed mind that money can be made by the fiat of the Government. Therefore the greenbacks must go.

*LEARNING THE SILVER LESSON.*

THE most encouraging development in the Democratic party during the month since election day is the evidence it gives that it has learned the silver lesson, and is ready to stop "fooling" with free coinage. Ever since this issue arose, the party has been wrong on it, and a majority of its Senators and Representatives have usually been anxious to vote for unlimited coinage at every opportunity. Outside of the East the party press has for the most part yielded to the craze, and the leading organs in the South and West have been almost unanimously on the wrong side.

The defeat of Bland for reëlection in a strongly Democratic district of Missouri proved an eye-opener for the party throughout the country. "Silver-Dollar" Bland managed to get his name connected with the first measure that made its way through Congress after the agitation began, nearly twenty years ago, and from that day to this he has succeeded in keeping himself prominent as the great champion of silver. He lived in a district which was safely Democratic, and in 1892 he was elected by a plurality of 2,474. Since then he has been more extreme than before, if that were possible, and during the recent canvass he denounced Cleveland most bitterly for his adherence to sound money. Indeed, he went so far toward Populism that there was little to choose between that party and such Democracy as he exemplified. What was the result? The largest vote on record was cast in the district last month—37,228, against only 35,484 in 1892—and Bland was beaten, his vote sinking from 18,927 to 16,815, and the Republican candidate getting 16,885 now, against 16,453 then; while, to cap the climax, the Populists, to whom Bland had truckled, rejected him and polled 3,528 votes for a candidate of their own.

Bland was only the most notorious of Missouri Democrats in his attitude on the silver question. Both Senator Vest

and Senator Cockrell have always been free-coinage men, and the same has been true of Hatch, "Champ" Clark, and all the other Representatives except one from St. Louis. Nor is free coinage the only Populist doctrine which Missouri Democrats have taken up. Congressman Hatch has been the champion of the anti-option law, and his colleagues have sustained his efforts to make such legislation an article of Democratic faith. Indeed, the policy of concession to Populism has been tried by the Democrats there more thoroughly than in any other State. The result is that their State ticket was beaten this year for the first time since 1868, and they saved only five of the fifteen congressional districts, while in 1892 they carried thirteen. Hatch, it should be noted, had 3,344 plurality two years ago, and was beaten by 429 this year; the ungrateful Populists running a candidate in his district also, who received 4,270 votes.

The St. Louis *Republic*, which claims to be the most influential Democratic journal in the Mississippi Valley, and used to be a "red-hot" silver paper, has since the election been analyzing the results in Missouri, and has reached the conclusion that the overwhelming defeat of the party was due to its abandonment of Democratic principles. In a recent article it points out that Bland and Hatch have gone furthest towards Populism of all Missouri Democrats, only to be abandoned by the Populists and lose their districts, and asks, "Can we count a single gain made in this State by yielding to Populist doctrines on money or any other question? Is it not, on the other hand, apparent," it proceeds, "that the result of such efforts is to inculcate wrong ideas and to nourish a vote for Populist candidates—to breed dissatisfaction with safe Democratic principles, and to teach a false dependence on Government for paternalistic miracles?" The *Republic's* conclusion is that "what is not Democratic is dangerous," and it now argues that free coinage is un-Democratic.

This change in the attitude of the *Republic* is of great importance, because the continual advocacy of false doctrine by the chief party organ has an immense influence for bad on all the lesser Democratic newspapers within the range of its influence—and the *Republic* was so thoroughly committed to free coinage that it would not give the other side any hearing. There are plenty of Democratic papers in Missouri and adjoining States which have advocated free coinage rather because the great party organ did so than because they favored it, and they will be glad to drop it. It will be all the easier to drop the policy now that it has been demonstrated that it does not pay.

It is most fortunate that at this time, when the Democratic mind is in so receptive a mood, the true doctrine is preached by a Democrat of such authority as Secretary Carlisle. A report from a "gold-bug" would carry no weight with the Democrats of the South and West, but Mr. Carlisle has always represented in Congress the silver sentiment of those sections. When on the 5th of November, 1877, Mr. Bland moved in the House of Representatives to suspend the rules and pass a bill entitled "an act to authorize the free coinage of the standard silver dollar and to restore its legal-tender character," and the motion was carried by a vote of 164 to 34, Mr. Carlisle was recorded among the yeas. When the amended bill, known as the Bland-Allison act, came before the House on the 28th of February, 1878, for action on President Hayes's veto, and was passed by 196 to 73, or much more than the necessary two-thirds, Mr. Carlisle was again among the yeas. Twelve years later, when a free-coinage amendment to the silver-bullion bill was offered in the Senate on the 17th of June, 1890, and was carried by a vote of 43 to 24, Mr. Carlisle was again among the yeas. When, therefore, the secretary of the treasury makes so lucid and forcible an argument for sound money and the gold standard as he submitted last week, it must carry tremendous weight with the Southern and Western Democrats, because it comes from one of themselves who has been converted from a belief in free silver coinage.

Now that the Democrats have begun to learn the silver lesson, there is every reason to hope that they will make rapid progress. The advocates of sound money possess the immense advantage of having not only the argument but the election figures on their side. When the Blands have led the party into the slough, nobody is going to find much support for the claim that they have thereby proved themselves the proper men to put in control as soon as it gets out.

## *MORE INVESTIGATION.*

THE resolutions of the New York Chamber of Commerce asking for further investigation into all departments of the city government are a step in the right direction. The danger of the investigation which the Lexow committee has been conducting has been, all along, that it would be regarded as an electioneering enterprise, and that, having been sufficient to win the election, its revelations would be treated as "burnt powder," as the fashion of politicians is in such matters. There will be undoubtedly a disposition at Albany to look at it in that light, and there is nothing which the friends of good government ought more strenuously to combat. If we mean more than the ousting of Tammany—that is, if we mean to reform the city government and create and maintain the popular interest in municipal purity—every other department ought to be explored as well as the police. Not one of them can be touched without revealing a mass of corruption. The light which Andrews's testimony has thrown on the Street-Cleaning Department is an illustration of what would happen if the Park Department, or the Dock Department, or the Board of Education, or the Excise Department, or the Corporation Counsel's office were overhauled. People must see what takes place when they let the government get into the hands of the criminal class, if we are ever to get a better class permanently maintained in office. Vague rumor and newspaper denunciation will not suffice for this purpose. Men have to have actual facts of misconduct and corruption shown to them, under oath, in broad daylight.

Even if this were not necessary, investigation or exposure is a duty which we owe to all *possible* rascals, to all men who, while still guiltless, feel a desire to prey on the city, and mean to do it if they get a chance. There are plenty of such people who, if they felt sure they would one day be found out, would turn their attention to some honest industry. There are men to-day on the list of those who have "to go" who would certainly never have been found in the Tammany ranks at all if they had anticipated the blow which overtook "the organization" in November. We have received complaints from some of them who feel deeply the humiliation of being bracketed with Paddy Divver and Joe Koch and Tom Grady. But these gentlemen ought to have felt the humiliation of accepting office from the hands which bestowed it on Paddy Divver and Joe Koch and Tom Grady, and of filling places in the same public service with these worthies. Their degradation began when they got their appointments. If their pride was not hurt by having Paddy and Joe and Tom for colleagues, it ought not to be hurt by going out of office with them.

It is investigation which has clothed these gentlemen in their right minds. They now see their sin. They feel as they ought to have felt in the beginning. If we now do our duty by showing what has been going on in all departments of the city government when, the election being over, there can be no suspicion of "politics" in our action, we shall furnish a lesson which will undoubtedly keep down the tendency to connive at Tammany methods on the part of the better classes, for a good many years.

Though last not least, no community which professes to have a moral basis and live by credit and good faith and industry, can possibly acknowledge the existence of criminality on an enormous scale without (besides finding it out) making an effort to punish it. Expulsion from office is a ludicrously inadequate penalty for the offences of which Tammany men have probably been guilty. What it amounts to is simply compelling the thief to give up his booty. If this were all thieves generally had to fear, they would rule the world.

It must not be forgotten that the present Tammany methods are very different from Tweed's, and embrace a far wider

circle of confederates. Therefore the exposure in Tweed's case is of comparatively little use in the present crisis. We are now face to face, not with plain theft, but with a widespread, all-embracing system of blackmail. We do not think there is any precedent for this in history. There is an organization in Italy, called the "Camorra," which closely resembles Tammany, but it is an organization wholly outside the law—a private organization, so to speak. The official class is hostile to it. The peculiarity of Tammany is that it embraces the government of the city, which may almost be said to have declared war against the community which it rules. A thorough examination of the nature of its rule in every department would, therefore, be an invaluable guide in legislation in municipal matters. To know what to guard against, we must know what is going on or likely to go on.

It is in some respects a great misfortune that in such an investigation as is proposed we cannot have the benefit of Mr. Goff's services. Somebody can probably be found who would bring equal zeal if not equal skill to the task; but the search for him ought to be very careful, for the mistakes of a man in that position would do great mischief.

## AUTHORSHIP OF THE FEDERALIST.

BROOKLYN, November 1, 1894.

THE last contribution to the controversy over the authorship of the disputed numbers of the *Federalist* was made by Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge in the introduction to volume ix. of his edition of the 'Writings of Alexander Hamilton.' This introduction was chiefly a résumé of what had already been put in print, and therefore added little to the facts generally known, except in one particular. As this exception was deemed by Mr. Lodge a notable contribution to the controversy, I will quote his exact words:

"Finally, there is the Washington list, which, so far as I am aware, has never been published before, and for which I am indebted to the kindness of John R. Baker, Esq , of Philadelphia. At the sale of Washington's library Mr. Baker purchased the General's copy of the *Federalist* of the first edition of 1788. On the fly-leaf of the first volume occurs the following memorandum in Washington's well-known handwriting:

"'Mr. Jay was author of Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 54.
"'Mr Madison of Nos. 10, 14, and 37 to 48, exclusive of the last.
"'Nos, 18, 19, 20 were the production of Jay, Madison, and Hamilton.
"'All the rest of General Hamilton.'"

"Washington died in 1799. He speaks of Hamilton, it will be observed, as 'General,' and that fixes within a year the time when his list was written. It must have been made up after July, 1798, and before December, 1799, and is therefore much the earliest list we have. It contains some curious variations from all the other lists, and these differences would seem to indicate that Washington made it up from recollection of information derived several years before from the authors. The striking and important fact is that this, the earliest list, drawn up by a singularly accurate man years before there was any thought of controversy, agrees in the main with the Benson list, and assigns the twelve disputed numbers unhesitatingly to Hamilton. . . .

"The Washington list, both from its date and the character of its author, seems to me to tell very strongly against Madison."

In this opinion of the importance of any memorandum left by Washington I quite join with Mr. Lodge, but because of the high value that necessarily attaches to it, it becomes doubly important to be certain that such a paper actually existed in Washington's handwriting. Mr. Lodge's reputation as an historian was of course sufficient to gain general acceptance for the above statements, and from that day to this I have never seen them questioned in any way whatsoever. As there is danger of their thus becoming accepted fact, and as the disproof may become difficult at any time by destruction or loss of existing material, it seems best to file an estoppel while it is still possible.

As above narrated, Washington's library was sold in 1876, and his copy of the *Federalist* was purchased by John R. Baker. Early in 1891 I examined this copy and found that both volumes had Washington's name on the title-page in his well-known and unmistakable handwriting. On the blank leaf preceding the title-page of volume one, in a small, angular, and rather cramped hand, entirely different from that of Washington, was the memorandum quoted by Mr. Lodge. The volume was then about to be sold at auction, and the attention of the auctioneer (Mr. S. V. Henkels) was at once called to the entire discrepancy between the two handwritings, which resulted in a slip being printed, cancelling the statement already in print in the catalogue of the sale. This slip stated:

"In Lot No. 6 the Attributions to the *Federalist* are described as being in the handwriting of Geo. Washington; this is a mistake. They are in the handwriting of Jas. Madison, one of the Authors."

This certainly ended the value of the memorandum as a contribution of Washington's, but sets up in place of his authority that of one of the authors, and therefore of at least equal authority; especially so in this case, as it becomes the earliest claim set up by any of the authors.

On receiving this slip I wrote to Mr. Henkels denying that the list could be of Madison's writing, on three grounds:

(1.) That it did not resemble his handwriting.

(2.) That its allusion to "Gen. Hamilton" fixed the date of writing after 1798, long before which political disagreement had parted Madison and Washington absolutely.

(3.) That its variations from every list made by any of the authors proved it to be the work of one without real knowledge of the subject.

The book, however, was sold as catalogued, being purchased, I believe, by the late Senator Hearst for the extraordinary sum of $1,800. How much of this monied value was due to the belief in the pseudo-Madison additions, I cannot pretend to say. The memorandum, I have since settled, is in the handwriting of Bushrod Washington, to whom Washington left his library; and thus this much-vaunted contribution to the question proves to be of absolutely no value, having been penned by one who could know nothing concerning the true facts.

But while thus destroying the credibility of some accepted evidence, I can add a little hitherto unknown, which, while not conclusive, is worth being stated and judged.

Mr. Lodge claims that "the differences in [Hamilton's and Madison's] style are never sufficiently marked to lead to any safe conclusions." I think that the distinctions between Hamilton and Madison were as pronounced in literary form as in other respects, and therefore have always believed that internal evidence of the clearest character existed. Yet as the opposite is held, I have not felt that I was justified in advancing my personal opinion. At the time of writing, however, these differences of style were well understood by their contemporaries, and any judgment recorded at that time is of value. It is important, therefore, to find Jefferson—thoroughly familiar with Hamilton's style, and a constant correspondent of Madison—writing (November 18, 1788) to the latter:

"With respect to the *Federalist*, the three authors had been named to me. I read it with care, pleasure, & improvement, and was satisfied there was nothing in it by one of those hands, & not a great deal by a second. It does the highest honor to the third, as being, in my opinion, the best commentary on the principles of government which ever was written. In some parts it is discoverable that the author means only to say what may be best said in defence of opinions in which he did not concur. But in general it establishes firmly the plan of government. I confess it has rectified me in several points."

As Madison claimed twenty-nine of the essays, leaving fifty to Hamilton, the controversy practically turns on the question whether he wrote three-eighths or one-sixth, and it seems to me that, from Jefferson's wording, the latter inference is the lesser horn of dilemma; the more that Madison did not correct Jefferson's evident impression.

A more positive piece of evidence is to be found by a reference to the original publication of the disputed numbers. They appeared in the New York *Packet*, under the following dates (1788):

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| XLIX | February 5 | LV | February 19 |
| L | February 8 | LVI | February 19 |
| LI | February 8 | LVII | February 22 |
| LII | February 12 | LVIII | February 22 |
| LIII | February 12 | LXII | March 4 |
| LIV | February 15 | LXIII | March 7 |

Madison left New York for Virginia at 6:30 on the morning of March 4, 1788. If, therefore, he was the author, as he claimed, of essays 62, 63, he must have prepared them beforehand. But had Nos. 62-3 been written by him before he left, they would almost certainly have been printed in the issues for February 29 and March 4, for each of those issues prints but a single number of the *Federalist*, though two usually appeared in each paper. And that the writers were not generally in advance of the printer, Madison himself has left us evidence.

"Though carried on in concert, the writers are not mutually answerable for all the ideas of each other, there being seldom time for even a perusal of the pieces by any but the writer before they were wanted at the press, and sometimes hardly by the writer himself." (To Jefferson, August 10, 1788.)

"The haste with which many of the papers were penned in order to get through the subject whilst the Constitution was before the public, and to comply with the arrangement by which the printer was to keep his paper open for four numbers every week, was such that the performance must have borne a very different aspect without the aid of historical and other notes which had been used in the Convention, and without the familiarity with the whole subject produced by the discussions there. It frequently happened, that, whilst the printer was putting into types parts of a number, the following parts were under the pen and to be furnished in time for the press." (Paper by Madison in the State Department, entitled "The Federalist.")

If this evidence, therefore, is accepted concerning Nos. 62, 63, it certainly, in supporting Hamilton's claim to those two numbers, improves his evidence in respect to the remaining ten.

PAUL LEICESTER FORD.

## SOME CONTINENTAL LIBRARIES.—III.

ROME, November, 1894.

AT a meeting of the New York Library Club several years ago, at which great and perhaps somewhat undiscriminating enthusiasm was manifested for coöperative work among libraries, the members were warned by one of the more conservative speakers that they could not "coöperate the earth." I have been reminded of the expression several times since I began my visits to Italian libraries, for certainly the Italian Government has almost accomplished the alleged impossibility in its library system.

The regulations for administration are the same in all Government libraries, which include all the larger and more important ones; and the requirements for candidates desiring positions are the same. With this system must come many advantages; but from the point of view of the employee there must also be disadvantages. It makes of him a Government official, subject to the disposal of the Government, and he may be transferred from one library to another, even from one city to another, at the discretion of the minister of public instruction, under whose care is placed the administration of the whole library system. This works no harm to existing arrangements in the library to which he is transferred, since its rules and its general management are the same as those of the library in which he has been trained; indeed, it enables changes of staff to be made with greater ease and less injury to the work on hand than by any other method of supplying vacancies.

By the system of lending books between the libraries themselves, the unnecessary purchase of duplicate copies is avoided. A catalogue is usually kept at the central library of any Italian city, showing the resources of all the libraries, and indicating in which one a given book is to be found. If the reader prefers to remain where he is and wait until the work is sent for, he may do so instead of going in search of it himself. In this way the inconvenience of being without the book is surmounted, but at the expense of the reader's time and that of the library's messenger. With the great numbers of persons frequenting our city libraries at home, this arrangement would be a rather clumsy aid to their usefulness; but here readers are not so numerous, and messengers have more leisure and are paid less than with us.

Another advantage of having the several libraries of a city under the same government arises from a rule which requires that the hours of opening shall be so regulated among them as to give readers the longest possible day. If one library closes at twelve, for instance, and opens at two, there must be another open during these hours. The same arrangement is made as to the closing of the libraries for the taking of inventories, for necessary repairs, vacations, etc., so that the Government libraries must be, so to speak, a "perpetual light." The true spirit of red tape would have counselled, "Close all the Government libraries at the same hours and on the same days, so that everything may be uniform." But uniformity for uniformity's sake had, fortunately, no charms for the Italian Government when the system was conceived.

Employees in Italian libraries are divided into five categories, of which the first includes the prefect and the librarian or head keeper of MSS.; the second, the assistant librarian and assistant keeper of MSS.; the third, the secretary or keeper of the library accounts; the fourth, the directors of various parts of the clerical work and the distributors of books; the fifth, ushers, general attendants or messengers. These last are uniformed and are generally stationed near the entrance to answer the questions of those who enter, and to refer them to the officials who can best supply their needs. The work of the prefect and of the librarian is discriminated as follows: All that concerns acquisitions, whether by purchase or gift, the general administration, discipline, public service, and all bibliographical labor, belong to the prefect; while the lesser economy of the library—the registration of books and of readers, the cataloguing, care of periodicals, and oversight of the lending—pertains to the work of the librarian. The fourth class of assistants have charge of the shelving, copying, and the preservation and general keeping of the books, and attend to the work of giving out books for reading, and reshelving them. In this last they are assisted by the *uscieri* when help is necessary. Each of these classes has two or even three grades, admitting of indefinite extension of the staff as increase of work may require.

The haphazard way in which library positions have often been filled in our country could not possibly obtain here, even were it not the tradition that the librarian and his chief assistants must be scholars; for none but scholars could deal with such collections as fill the shelves of these great libraries. In addition to this, Government positions must be filled by examination. The examinations for superior positions are usually in September, in the presence of a delegate sent by the minister of public instruction to conduct them. As an example of what is required in the case of a candidate for the position of a superior officer—*i. e.*, one of the first two categories—I may give the following:

(1.) Present an original composition, having for its theme some story in Italian literature.

(2.) Give the Italian version of an Oriental or classical writing, to be selected by the examiner.

(3.) Write at dictation a passage from a French author.

(4.) Give an Italian translation of the passage, without the help of a dictionary or any other book.

The candidate must be a citizen of Italy, between 17 and 30 years of age, and must have certificates of good character and good health. He must also declare his willingness to serve in any library to which he may be assigned. He must also possess a *liceale licenza* (equivalent to a college diploma, I believe). After all this, while waiting for a position, he must do gratuitously whatever work is given to him.

A candidate for the fourth class of positions may become an *apprendista*, or learner, if he can present the same qualifications as to nativity, age, health, and character, and the diploma of a gymnasium. His examination for the third grade of the fourth class, or distributors, when he becomes a candidate, includes the following requirements:

(1.) An original composition in Italian.

(2.) An Italian version of a passage of French prose made at sight.

(3.) An oral examination on the rules of the library and on the foundation principles of cataloguing.

The examination for prefect or librarian is most searching, and at the risk of stretching the patience of those who read, I shall venture to note the main features of the test:

(1.) Give a dissertation on a theme in library economy or general bibliography.

(2.) Answer in writing any questions on the rules for making an alphabetical catalogue.

(3.) Give the divisions and subdivisions of a classed subject-catalogue, noting exactly the limits of the different parts of the science treated, and indicating the most important bibliographical sources for each.

(4.) Sustain a practical examination in bibliographical research, replying in writing. For this, consultation of necessary books is allowed.

(5.) Transcribe a passage from two MSS. of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, one Italian and one Latin, with a complete explanation of the accompanying codex.

(6.) Give a version from Italian into French of a passage of classical Italian.

(7.) Give an Italian version of a passage in German or English.

(8.) Register, catalogue, and classify fifteen printed works, ancient and modern, of different periods and languages, and on different subjects.

(9.) Sustain an oral examination on the "Rules for Libraries" and on the laws of administration.

There are some additional requirements in the way of translation for the office of keeper of MSS.

Any of the three highest offices in a Government library may be filled by appointment of the King or of the minister of public instruction without examination, if the appointee be a student of note, a well-known author, savant in MSS., or bibliographer; and the office of assistant librarian or assistant keeper of MSS., by an amendment of January, 1893, may be filled by a candidate undergoing a less rigid examination if he can present a doctor's degree or a diploma from the School of Palæography in Florence. After acceptance, a year's trial, with a nominal salary, is required, before the candidate is fully inducted into his office.

Is there in this admirably ordered system anything that we may apply to our own use? With all due regard for the cherished independence and originality of our libraries, and a hope that they may never be less independent or original, it yet seems to me that they would gain in strength and in public favor if there were more coöperation among those of the same municipality, at least. If trustees were able to reply to the many incompetents who apply to them for positions, "This is a matter in which I have no jurisdiction until after you shall have passed the examinations agreed upon by the library organizations of the city," it would relieve them from persecution, and the librarian from the constant apprehension of being presented with a tool with which he can do nothing. An agreement as to hours and days of closing, interchange of books, etc., might also be arrived at with advantage to the public, particularly among reference libraries. With such an arrangement in our cities and towns, we should really have made a fair beginning toward "coöperating the earth," so far as libraries are concerned.

MARY W. PLUMMER.

# Correspondence.

## FOOTBALL AT ENGLISH SCHOOLS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your article on "The New Football," you say that, if the game as now played

be a useful preparation for modern life, then all students ought to be compelled to play it. Twenty years ago it was the practice at several of the large public schools in England to compel all students to play, and I presume the usage still obtains. At Haileybury College, where I was a student, compulsory football twice a week during the winter term was a regulation from which no boy was allowed to escape unless pronounced unfit by the college physician. I believe that this feature of school life was certainly advantageous in developing in the boys the manly qualities of activity, hardihood, and courage. A lack of pluck on the football field was something that no boy dared to show, whatever his natural timidity. While occasionally accidents would happen, they were very rarely serious, and they were *invariably accidents*. I think that this statement would be true to-day as applied to football in England when played by the upper and middle classes. In my time, at all events, any player who was believed to be guilty of intentionally injuring another would have met with the contempt and disgust of his associates, and would have been driven from the field in future by the social ostracism that would have followed his misdeed. But such conduct was practically never heard of. It was rendered impossible by a pervading spirit of fair play and of right, gentlemanly, and sportsmanlike behavior at all games. Without this guiding and restraining sentiment no game can flourish, and, until it can be infused into the minds of present-day collegians, they will continue to degrade the game into an exhibition of brutal ruffianism.

G. Chetwynd-Stapylton.

## THE USELESSNESS OF THE ATHLETE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Let me add to Mr. J. D. Butler's excellent letter on the incompatibility of athleticism with intellectual distinction—on the evidence of Greece, which stands at the head of both—that on the same evidence it was found equally incompatible with physical welfare. I take the following passages from Percy Gardner's 'New Chapters in Greek History' (pp. 302-4), condensed but not garbled:

"Xenophon makes Socrates complain that excess in some one sport spoils the symmetry of the body. Socrates's disciple, Euripides, makes one of his characters declare athletes to be one of the greatest pests of Greece. Some of the most distinguished warriors of later Greece echo his sentiments. Epaminondas declared that they were of no use as soldiers, and dismissed them from his army. Alexander the Great cared not for athletic sports. When Philopœmen was urged to cultivate his natural gift of wrestling, he refused, saying that if he studied to become a better wrestler he should become a worse soldier. Special diet and special training made athletes into a special class, and late writers do not tire of ridiculing them—their vast muscle and small wit, their extreme appetite for food and sluggishness in war, their sleepiness and stupidity. The great physician Galen set his face against athletic training: he declares the state of health of professional athletes to be most deceptive and precarious, and their strength to be of no use for any sound and practical purpose.

"The Romans considered that athletic sports unfitted for war; that they made men lazy and quarrelsome for want of something to do. Among ourselves they occupy a place which is, in the opinion of many teachers, too large and too honorable. It was excessive training and specialization which brought ruin on the athletic sports of Greece, which ceased to be a means and usurped the place of an end. We need not [ought not to have need to] point out to our own youth the danger and discredit which threaten these pursuits unless they pursue the middle course." F. M.

December 7, 1894.

## INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There is one important feature of college athletics that I think deserves more prominence than has been given to it in the discussions in the press, and that is, the low moral plane on which the teams play with one another. The boast is frequently made that in our colleges are gathered the very pick of the youth in our country—and I do not call it in question for an instant. These intercollegiate games ought, therefore, to be played by honorable men against honorable men. But, besides the betting and the slugging, they do not even trust their opponents not to *cheat*. In baseball matches the effort is often made, and is now and then successful, to smuggle in professional players; and the distressing feature of it is that the most honorable and upright young men we have, justify the thing, on the plea that "they all do it, if they can."

A year ago this fall I witnessed an exciting game of football, in which the bets were large that team "A" would not score. Well, in the first half they did not. In the second half they carried the ball steadily and surely to within several yards of the line they wanted to cross. Had they done so, team "B" and their friends would have lost heavily. Just then arose a long squabble because the umpire (or referee, whichever it was) allowed the ball to go over to team "B." He was the physical director of the institution that sent team "B." Team "A" refused to abide by his decision, and he refused to change it, so the game was declared at an end, and all the bets were "off." Now, so far as I could learn, the decision was exactly right; but the point I wish to urge is this: *Team "A" and all their fellow-students believed firmly that the umpire gave a decision that he knew to be wrong in order to save the money of his friends.*

This is merely one example out of many; and it surely seems that college faculties would not be taking too high a moral ground if they should declare that until they have good assurance that the play is to be honorably conducted in all respects, the teams must be satisfied with such fun as they can get from playing on their own grounds with their fellow-students.—Yours respectfully, A. H.

## THE GAMBLING SPIRIT OF THE WEST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of November 29 I read your criticism of the petition in favor of reopening the gambling establishments in Denver. I have not read the petition, but know that such a one has been presented. I would ask you the favor to publish what I consider an explanation.

It is a popular prejudice to consider gambling bad in itself. If two or more people come together and stake money, it is their private business; and if halls for gambling are kept open, they injure nobody but those who cannot control themselves. The passion for the kind of excitement that gambling affords is strongly developed in certain individuals, but in many this same passion has also worked to develop the country—particularly the West, where many ventures in mining are really gambling. From a statesman's point of view, the laws which absolutely prohibit gambling are unpractical because they give a corrupt police the power of spoliation, while the licensing of gambling establishments—particularly in the West, where gambling seems to be a *sine qua non* of the existence of some of her most active (not wealthy) citizens—would provide for the really necessary and desirable control of such establishments by the police, and those establishments would be conducted on a more legitimate and perhaps honest basis. Now they are conducted secretly, and, owing to reprisals from the police, they are compelled and encouraged to have recourse to dishonest practices in order to make the business pay.

There are two reasons why gambling cannot be entirely abolished: one is the passion of certain people for this kind of excitement, and the other is that the police has to act through its officers. Many police officers, being thoroughly dishonest, will not only tolerate but help to carry on secret gambling-establishments in their beat. Licensed establishments of course would have an interest in suppressing secret gambling. As to the petition reciting that the suppression of gambling-halls influences business in Denver, very likely those business men who signed the petition knew whereof they were speaking. Miners and prospectors, those very enterprising men who frequently venture their all on mining prospects, and who have helped to make the Western mining States, furnish a large quota of gamblers. When they come to Denver, they want some excitement, and go to some gambling-hall to spend a few hours—not necessarily to ruin themselves and commit suicide, etc. If gambling is strictly prohibited in Denver, there will be more low-class gambling in small mining towns, and there will be fewer people coming to Denver for what they consider recreation. This must necessarily influence business in general, and I suppose it does so even more than one might suspect.

Eastern people who take an interest in Denver need not believe that business men and capitalists, or their trusted employees, patronize the gambling-halls; on the contrary, they prefer to know that their employees are not tempted by opportunities to overreach their means. But certainly it is easier to watch certain licensed establishments than to keep an eye on all gambling done on the sly. When gambling-halls are licensed, they can be kept under control, and compelled to turn away people who would gamble away the money which by rights belongs to their families.

Of course, this petition was in so far a very unfortunate one as the same people who have been instrumental in defeating Waite, and who publicly rejoiced at his defeat, have gone to him and asked a favor which such a demagogue was but too glad to be able to refuse, although meanwhile the police is likely to condone dishonest gambling and persistently prosecute the more respectable establishments of the kind. What I have written is not in defence of gambling, but an argument in favor of licensing and controlling what you cannot suppress.

Eugène A. von Winckler.

Sedalia, December 4, 1894.

## FAIR ELECTIONS IN ALABAMA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The municipal election of yesterday at this place is, I think, significant of the new epoch in the rapid evolution towards ballot reform and clean politics generally in the South.

From reconstruction days until five years ago the most pious of us could justify any means to the end of beating the unworthy "nigger." Three years ago, when Kolb came upon the stage and the white vote was divided, we began to deplore the training in ballot-box-stuffing we had had (which was so clearly a

God-given talent while directed against the negro), because it was then seen for the first time that the transition from stealing from "niggers" to stealing from each other was, practically, no step at all. For instance, Kolb in his first race undoubtedly had a majority of the votes cast, and just as undoubtedly he had a majority of the white votes; but the machinery was in the hands of his opponent, and the fine Italian hand of fossilized Democracy, so adept after twenty years of practice, found it just as easy, and right in its line, to reverse things and count in the "niggers" who voted for Jones and count out the whites who voted for Kolb.

In August last Kolb *again* did the cause of ballot reform a good turn by reason of his monomania for gubernatorial honors. This was probably the cleanest election held in the South up to that time since the war. Rather than cleanest, I should say fairest, because there *was* a good deal of stealing done. But the two sides had equal chances, and, if there was any difference here and there, it was to be attributed to local variations in the talent and industry of the gentlemen in charge of the polls. However, there was not nearly so *much* stealing done, and what was done, as I have said, was about equally divided. In addition to this, both sides were asking for white and black votes indiscriminately, and as they both had representation at the polls and watched each other, a fair count of the free and secret ballot was assured, and Kolb, this time, was fairly beaten by a good majority.

In the above can be traced some of the causes leading to such a startling growth of the independent spirit as is seen in the following account of our city election.

During the last six years this city has been financially ruined by a little Tammany administration which has religiously reëlected itself every two years. They controlled elections by use of the party lash, conjuring with "white supremacy" and "religious, social, and commercial ostracism to all traitors to organized Democracy," until it became ridiculous—if, as you suggest, such a desperate state of affairs could be made the subject of "side-splitting mirth." Last spring their primary fixing was such a farce that all except "Tammany" and a few of the hopelessly incurable I-am-a-Democrat fanatics ignored the primary altogether. Yesterday this better class of non-office-seeking, tax-paying Democrats, having had the sentimentality knocked out of them by a "one-er" in the pocket, marched up to the polls in company with odious Republicans, Populites, and "niggers," with the full penalty of ostracism being shouted in their ears, and elected a reform mayor.

Verily, we see strange and wholesome things if we live long enough.

SOUTHERN DEMOCRAT.

BIRMINGHAM, ALA., Dec. 5, 1894.

## BAEDEKER AND BERGAMO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The article in the *Nation* of November 15, entitled "Baedeker and the Bergamask," relates so evidently to a superseded edition of Baedeker's 'Northern Italy,' and does such serious (though unintentional) injustice to the most recent (tenth) edition, which was issued shortly before the appearance of your article, that I must respectfully ask you to print either this letter or some equivalent correction of your own.

To the general charge that "Baedeker is deplorably insufficient with regard to Bergamo," I simply point out that we devote four pages to it, which seems its full *proportionate* share of the handbook. Trescorre and the Villa Suardi, which the writer in the *Nation* finds unaccountably omitted in Baedeker, are duly described at p. 183 of our handbook. Of the numerous churches, etc., which are mentioned in the last paragraph of the *Nation's* article as wanting in Baedeker, S. Grata and the Carmine alone fail to appear in our latest edition.

The two beautiful portraits in the Galleria Lochis, ascribed by their labels to Sebastiano del Piombo, but now believed to be (as your writer points out) by Cariani, are, if I mistake not, duly attributed by Baedeker to the latter artist.—I am very truly yours,

JAMES F. MUIRHEAD,
English Editor of Baedeker's Handbook.

NO. 29 CANFIELD GARDENS,
LONDON, N. W., November 30, 1894.

[For "article" read "foreign correspondence" of the *Nation*.—ED. NATION.]

# Notes.

MR. JUSTICE OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES desires, as his father's executor, contemplating a possible Life and Letters, that any letters useful for this purpose may be sent to Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston, or to A. P. Watt, Esq., Hastings House, Norfolk Street, Strand, London. They will be carefully returned to their owners after being copied.

Macmillan & Co. announce 'Odes and Other Verses,' by William Watson; 'Imagination in Dreams,' by Frederick Greenwood; and 'From a New England Hillside,' by William Potts. For the second edition of Dr. George Birkbeck Hill's work on Harvard College an index has been prepared which will be sent, on application, to the purchasers of the first edition.

'A History of the Hutchinson Family,' by John W. Hutchinson, one of the famous band of singers, and Charles E. Mann, is almost ready for the press, as we learn from the Lynn *Item*.

The 'Oliver Wendell Holmes Year-Book' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) may well be named first among its class. A birthday-book consisting of excerpts from the writings of the same author was already in the market. A cheery portrait of the Autocrat at eighty-four serves as a frontispiece. Raphael Tuck & Sons send us two year-books, uniform in appearance, one of English and the other of American authors, "written and compiled by Ida Scott Taylor"—as if by virtue of a double nationality—and illustrated in colors by Frederic Hines and C. Klein respectively. The books are pleasing to the eye, but the standard of selection is not high, and the original contributions are commonplace moralizing. Duprat & Co.'s *Book-Lovers' Almanac* celebrates its third issue. Its three etchings show Franklin, Gov. Winthrop, and a New York bibliophile in their several libraries. The most noticeable article is that in which Mr. Linton renews his plaint against tone-engraving, which he holds responsible for the fatal competition of "process."

'About Women: What Men Have Said,' chosen and arranged by Rose Porter (Putnams), is a year-book in which verse predominates, and each month has been given to a single author. The range does not fall below Coventry Patmore; Shakspere leads the van, and Ruskin brings up the rear. It is still mostly "what men have said" that makes up 'Woman in Epigram,' compiled by Frederic W. Morton (Chicago: McClurg). Here there is an appearance of classification of sections, but the full index shows that it is only an appearance. Both books are well printed. With them we may bracket 'Because I Love You,' poems of love, selected and arranged by Anna E. Mack (Boston: Lee & Shepard), a respectable anthology in clear print bound in white and gold.

A rather feeble etching, by Herkomer, of Lord Kelvin faces the title-page of the fourth volume of the indispensable '*Minerva*, Jahrbuch der gelehrten Welt' (Strassburg: Trübner; New York: Westermann). Enlargement is still the order of the day, with South America and New Zealand pressing in and North America exacting increased attention. Hence the wise resolve to omit or curtail the descriptive portions of the articles on universities and colleges, with a reference to previous volumes for the full details as to constitution and organization. Even so the volume is fuller by seventy pages than last year's. The statistics of attendance show a shifting in the rank of the institutions whose faculties are so fully set forth. The University of Naples has outstripped that of Moscow; Munich falls behind Athens, Oxford, and Harvard; Leipzig drops from seventh to eleventh, Tokio from fortieth to forty-third, etc. The index to the personnel—professors, directors, and librarians—crowns the work, without which no reference library is complete.

Four tiny volumes in a box comprise as many stories from the German of Paul Heyse, under the general title "At the Ghost Hour" (Dodd, Mead & Co.). The translator is Frances A. Van Santford, and her work is, idiomatically at least, quite able to stand alone; it is marred by her colleague's "decorations," which are repeated *ad libitum*, and of which scarcely one deserves the name.

Capt. Charles King, Kirk Munroe, and Ruth McEnery Stuart furnish the leading serials in *Harper's Young People*, of which the bound volume for 1894 is before us (Harpers). The shorter contributions make up a medley which is almost bewildering when the eye tries to take them all in at once; but articles on practical themes like ship-building seem to turn up as often as anything, while tales of adventure and sentiment hold their place as before in this juvenile.

*St. Nicholas* for 1894 finds its clearest distinction in Kipling's Jungle Stories, several of which fall within the limits of the two volumes which the Century Co. send us. Instruction blended with entertainment is represented in such articles as the series on American authors, and Mr. Hornaday's on zoölogy. The old masters of children's antics and jocoseness figure here in full strength; and the attractions of print and illustration are in line with what this magazine has taught us to expect of it.

Of the volume of the *Century* for the last half-year, nearly one-tenth (as we reckon) is given up to articles of and about artists, and to Mr. Cole's reproductions of the old Dutch masters. When the great amount of incidental illustrative work is added in, with such articles as those on bookbinding and antique glass, one sees how prominent the artistic side of an "illustrated monthly" has become. A new writer is introduced in the person of Lucy S. Furman, whose mission is apparently to be to describe the eccentricities of religious life in the West. As for the details of the volume, we have called attention to them month

by month, and need not retrace our steps to recount them.

Mr. James L. Ford's 'The Literary Shop, and Other Tales' (Geo. H. Richmond & Co.) is mainly an attack on literary conventions and dignitaries of the day which is throughout audacious and frequently amusing. He lays about him with such hearty good will that it is not strange to find him hitting wildly at times; nor will his club be often mistaken for a rapier. Occasionally, however, we see the gleam of the cold steel, as when he says of the big checks of a certain periodical that they are intended to make the pay of contributors commensurate with their shame. He would have done better to confine himself to smashing idols; the new ones he sets up here and there in his book are themselves in great need of an iconoclast. But in general he is so good-natured, and there is so sound a basis of truth in much of his raillery, that his pages can be read with real enjoyment. His very victims will laugh as they read. If they do not, they are past praying for.

'George Romney and His Art,' by Hilda Gamlin (London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan), is one of the most absurd and ill-written books on any subject that we have ever seen. There is a good deal of information in it, but so jumbled together that to try to find anything one wants to know is like looking for a needle in a haystack. There is not only no index, but not even a list of illustrations, while the style is a marvel of incompetence and inconsequence, and a wonderfully complete model of how not to do it. We had marked many passages for transcription, but two are as good as a hundred. Here is an interesting statement: "Though defective in education, Romney at times relapsed into reverie"; at which times he would "pour out rhapsodies." Here is an exercise in parsing: "Indefatigable in the pursuit of art, a conscientious master, whose pupils in turn became men of repute, among whom were Isaac Pocock, Lonsdale and Stewardson, and another named Robinson, in giving to Hayley his recollections of his late master, said," etc. How such a book has found not only a publisher, but two such publishers, must remain a mystery.

Mr. John Vinycomb's 'On the Processes for the Production of Ex-Libris' (London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan) is a reprint from the Journal of the Ex-Libris Society, and, either in serial or in book form, is an odd excuse for parading a few more examples of book-plates. There cannot be said to be a pressing need for a manual of wood-engraving, copper and steel engraving, lithography in black and white and in colors, and photo-mechanical reproduction. No collector of book-plates ought to be in need of Mr. Vinycomb's aid to discover how any given specimen of them was made, and very few will attempt to go beyond pen-and-ink drawing in manufacturing their own plates. So this volume is hardly more than an additional appeal to the collector's purse. It does, however, suggest the range which designers have allowed themselves, and may lead to reflection on the canons of fitness and taste; less certainly to the preferable process for plate-making. The illustrations, which are numerous, exemplify directly several of these processes.

'The Religion of the Semites,' by the lamented Robertson Smith, which we reviewed at length on its first appearance four years ago, is now issued in a new edition (London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan). The revision and additional notes are almost entirely the work of the author himself, being, in fact, the last task to which he devoted his failing strength. We infer from the explanations of Mr. J. S. Black, who has seen the new edition through the press, that Prof. Smith's second and third series of lectures on the same subject are not in condition to warrant publication. The regret which this will cause will heighten satisfaction in having the first series given this perfected form.

Prof. Sayce has worked over the material contained in his little book, 'A Primer of Assyriology' (Fleming H. Revell Co.), a great many times, and published the substance of it in many forms. He tells the story well. A busy man can get in these pages a good general view of the process of cuneiform decipherment, and also of the geography, history, and customs of the chief peoples whose records are preserved in the wedge-writing.

Four essays by Prof. W. North Rice of Wesleyan University (Middletown, Conn.) form a little volume entitled 'Twenty-five Years of Scientific Progress' (T. Y. Crowell & Co). They are broad and liberal in treatment, and will be helpful to many persons of conservative belief who are still in doubt on the subject of the fourth essay, "Genesis and Geology," and who still wish to discuss the rival merits of Hugh Miller's and Guyot's reconciliation of science and revelation.

'Lessons in the New Geography for Student and Teacher' is the title of a little book by Spencer Trotter, M.D., professor of biology in Swarthmore College (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.). The object of the book is excellent, namely, to extend the account of the earth as the abode of life; but in this effort a proper proportion has not been observed. This fault may be attributed to the largely biological training of the author, as indicated by his degree and title; but it is at least gratifying to see a biologist recognize that the organisms which he studies are to be considered in relation to their surroundings, and not simply with relation to their structure, development, and classification. The book must be criticised on two other grounds: first, for the uncertain position that it occupies in the educational series—for while a fair knowledge of general geography is assumed, such elementary matters as the variation in the slant of the sun's rays and the most general relief of the continents are explained; and again, for the very imperfect quality of some of the introductory explanations, especially in Lesson III. of chapter ii., which show that the Old Geography is not altogether familiar to the author.

Historical geography receives a distinct contribution in M. Élisée Reclus's lucid article on "East and West" in the *Contemporary Review*. He shows that the true normal line separating the two halves of the ancient world, exclusive of Africa, is not the popular one of the Ural and Caucasus Mountains, but the almost uninhabited zone which runs from the Gulf of Oman through deserts and over lofty mountain ranges to the "Hungry Steppe" of Siberia and the Arctic Sea. This division, it will be observed, gives Persia, Mesopotamia, and Arabia to the West. The continental masses on either side of this line are of nearly equal size, and the communication between them was by a few narrow passes exceedingly difficult of access. The early progress of the East in civilization, so far in advance of the West, is described, and its strange arrest accounted for, not by its precocity or by any original and irreducible race difference, but by its geographical position. Its two great civilizations had no common geographical centre, and communication between them, because of the intervening mountains, was rare and uncertain. At the end of their fan-like lines of growth and expansion was the ocean, with its innumerable islands peopled by races having no unity of life and holding no intercourse with each other. With the West the exact opposite was true. The axes of civilization, instead of diverging, converged uniformly on the basin of the Hellenic Mediterranean. From this focus they rayed out again to western Europe and eventually to America. This goes far towards explaining the failure of Buddhism and Confucianism to make their way in the West, as well as the slow progress of Christianity in India and China.

A. Delebecque, engineer of the Ponts et Chaussées, has lately completed his Atlas of the lakes of France, now issued in a series of large-scale maps by the Ministry of Public Works, and "crowned" by the Geographical Society of Paris. A volume of text will be prepared later. The maps give elaborate details of the depth of the lakes. In several brief papers, Delebecque affords some account of his studies, and defines the direction of further observations; here we find the origin, depth, affluents and effluents duly mentioned, but unfortunately nothing about the changes suffered by the lake since its origin—the life of the lake itself.

The third quarterly part of Mr. Pollard's *Bibliographica* (Charles Scribner's Sons) is quite as entertaining and as instructive as either of its predecessors, although it happens to have no article of such general interest from a merely literary point of view as the papers on the libraries of Pepys and Fielding. Mr. Pollard himself contributes an account of book-sales in England, 1676–1680; Mr. Garnett (who is as omniscient as the chief of the reading-room of the British Museum ought to be) discusses certain recent contributions to South American bibliography; Mr. W. D. Macray collects various "Early Dedications to Englishmen by Foreign Authors and Editors"; and Mr. Russell Martineau describes the Psalter of 1457 printed at Mentz. The articles of widest interest are on French subjects—one by Mr. John W. Bradley on that masterpiece of preciosity, the "Guirlande à Julie"; and the other by Mr. W. Y. Fletcher (the writer of the recent *Portfolio* monograph on French bookbinding), in which he discusses the suggestion that possibly Florimond Badier might be the greatest of all binders, now known mysteriously only as "Le Gascon." Mr. Fletcher's text and the admirable facsimiles in gold and color of one of Badier's covers show that this suggestion is very unlikely. Mr. Lawrence Housman, himself a book-illustrator, draws attention to a forgotten book-illustrator, A. B. Houghton, whose drawings, here reproduced, reveal a delicate feeling for black and white, and prove also that the artist—like so many gifted Englishmen—had not taken the trouble to master his craft.

The contributed articles in the *American Annual of Photography* for 1895 (New York: Scovill & Adams Co.) seldom rise above the level of those to be found in photographic periodicals, and present a scrappy appearance, and they are as usual very unintelligently indexed. So is the large body of information—tables, formulas, lists of societies and dark-room hotels, postal rates, copyright instructions, weights, patents for 1894, etc., etc.—which makes this work so useful a companion. Among the more than 200 illustrations Mr. H. P. Robinson's "Storm Clearing Off" is much the most artistic, having the elements of a real composition. W. B. Post's "Sunshine

after Rain" is another very successful landscape; and curious is the balloon view of Philadelphia from above Girard College.

Raphael Tuck & Sons Co., 368 Broadway, send us a great variety of colored Christmas and New Year's cards, concerning which it is impossible to say anything new. All tastes have been catered to.

To the Sallust memorial at Aquila, Italy, seven American colleges (Chicago, Columbia, Johns Hopkins, Michigan, Princeton, Pennsylvania, and Yale) have contributed the sum of seventy dollars.

The new edition of the German translation of Tyndall's book 'On Sound,' which has recently appeared, bears upon its title-page the names of the translators—the wife of Helmholtz and the wife of Wiedemann; a striking combination in more ways than one.

Prof. Mendenhall and Prof. Le Conte, who have charge respectively of physics and geology, should be added to the editorial committee of the journal *Science* printed in last week's *Nation*.

—Histories of the English language continue to appear at short intervals. The last that we have seen is by Prof. O. F. Emerson of Cornell (Macmillan). Dr. Emerson has tried to give, in moderate compass, a clear and simple account of our mother tongue which should, without being unintelligible to the layman, keep so close to modern philological processes as to be usable in university work. In this difficult undertaking he has been fairly successful. He has studied the latest authorities, and has done some thinking for himself, so that the reader need not fear to be corrupted by those obsolete errors which it seems so difficult to eradicate from the minds of historians of English. The severer parts of the book, particularly the phonology, can easily be slid over by those who do not care for them, but will furnish a good scientific orientation to those who do. The author's style, though not very lively, is concise and, for the most part, lucid, and his expository ability is considerable. Occasionally, to be sure, he neglects to look at a subject from all sides. This narrowness of vision is perhaps most noticeable in his general treatment of the relations of the literary dialect to the spoken language, and, in particular, in his views as to the influence of Chaucer on English—a subject which we hope he will see occasion to discuss afresh in a second edition. That there will soon be a second edition of so careful and so handy a book we see no reason to doubt.

—Dante, Shakspere, and Goethe having had their "Jahrbuch," a 'Bismarck-Jahrbuch,' edited by Horst Kohl, is now in order (Berlin, O. Haering; New York: B. Westermann & Co.). Its 516 octavo pages are given up to hitherto unprinted state papers, letters, despatches, essays, bibliography; Bismarck iconography, including caricatures; a chronological account of Bismarck's doings during the year; poetry old and new. The volume for 1894 opens with an English letter to a "Mr. Astley," 1836, asking for the loan of Shakspere's "Richard III." and "Hamlet." "Our friend Norcott is just as tipsy as he ever has been. . . . As for me I am a little half-seas-over too, but I am as much your friend as I learned to be it so in the few days I had the pleasure of seeing you." The volume also contains the tender of his resignation in 1875, and the old Emperor's reply, requesting the Prince to have the copyist take a solemn oath never to divulge his knowledge of the existence of such a paper. Bismarck's commanding personality, the ingrained humor of his nature, his original way of putting things, are apparent in all he wrote, even in the most solemn state papers. When Field-Marshal Wrangel, during the Danish war of 1864, tried his hand at a diplomatic *coup* in getting the Foreign-Office attaché at his headquarters to inform the Swedish minister that Wrangel might proclaim a Scandinavian kingdom if Sweden dared to come to Denmark's rescue, Bismarck, on learning of this from the Prussian envoy at Stockholm, writes to the old general: "I know that your ideas on our foreign policy differ somewhat from mine. Neither do I agree with all that is being done in the field by your orders. But I should never presume to give orders to one of your officers, and must beg you to send no communications to our ambassadors until you have advised me and obtained my consent."

—Kürschner's 'Deutscher Litteraturkalender' for 1894, with its 1,534 pages, is more complete than ever before, and demonstrates how large is the number of people engaged in literary work. The book is confined to work done by Germans, and naturally enough Berlin is the greatest centre, numbering among her inhabitants 1,822 writers of more or less prominence. Vienna comes next with 1,259, then Munich with 468, and Leipsic with 371. Americans will doubtless be surprised to learn of the large numbers of German writers in our own cities, New York having 109, Chicago 75, Milwaukee 53, St. Louis 33, Cincinnati 32, Philadelphia 23, San Francisco 21, Pittsburgh 13, while in the following non-German cities the numbers are, compared with the population, very much smaller: London 36, Paris 23, St. Petersburg 17. The main portion of the book, comprising 1,378 pages, is devoted to an alphabetical list of contemporary German writers, and under each name are generally given the author's religion, the literary or learned societies to which he belongs, his pseudonym, the principal kind or kinds of literary work in which he is engaged, his position and title, his present address, the place and date of his birth, and then a list of the works he has produced. Besides this portion of the work, other parts of importance are a list of literary societies, with the names of their officers and a description of their work; a list of publishers, with an account of the kinds of work each is best prepared to do; a list of periodicals and newspapers, with a description of each and the principal names on the editorial staff of each; a list of theatres, and the names of the managers; a list of some of the leading firms engaged in the technical work of bookmaking, engraving, etc.; a list of agencies that undertake all kinds of literary work, such as the preparation of articles on particular subjects, translations, revision of manuscripts, and even the sale of manuscripts on commission. The Schiller, Grillparzer, and Bern prizes are described, and the regulations governing the award of them are given; also the name of the last winner of each prize. The utility of such a publication need not be insisted upon afresh.

—It was a Frenchman who called the Baleares "les îles oubliées"; nevertheless, of the handful of foreigners who for pleasure or profit find their way to those attractive islands, his countrymen make the larger half, the remaining moiety being composed almost entirely of English tourists, with now and then a German or Swiss savant. The Americans who have drifted thither during the last ten years might be counted on one's fingers. In the *Revue de Paris* for September 15, under the title, "À travers Majorque," are given the impressions of a French journalist who sought refreshment in Mallorca from the mental furnace of Paris. M. Édouard Conte writes with a practised pen, and has filled his forty pages with a readable account of what he did and saw, with no indications of having crammed for the occasion. He makes somewhat less than might have been expected of George Sand's and Chopin's stay at the Cartuja of Valldemosa, but admires the surroundings and the beauty of the valley upon which his great countrywoman looked down from her terrace. In his brief stay of less than a fortnight he saw much of the beautiful scenery of the island, but his haste caused him to forego the ascent of the Puig Mayor and its wide-reaching views, and he failed to see that little gem in its mountain setting, the bay of La Calobra. In order to do in one day the distance between Sóller and Pollensa, which is usually made a two-days' excursion with a night's rest at the old monastery at Lluch, he had to start some hours before sunrise, thus forfeiting some striking scenery, and punishing himself with a fifteen-hours' stretch of rough travel, mule-back, over the mountains. But, as he exclaims: "Fatigues qui passent! Paysages qui ne sont pas passés de ma mémoire!" Sóller and its fertile valley was especially attractive to M. Conte, who flattered himself that he could there trace the influence of contact with France, due to the annual migrations of the orange and wine-producers, seeking a market; and he also devotes several enthusiastic pages to the caves of Artá.

—Our author has not escaped some mishaps due to his haste. The few figures which he gives relative to populations are subject to correction, and his occasional Spanish is needlessly careless. The catastrophe by which 414 lives were lost at Felanitx fifty years ago is still remembered by the natives with so much horror as to be always spoken of as recent, and the addition of one thousand to its death-roll should not heedlessly have been made. A curious error is made in minutely describing the carriage commonly used on the islands, but mounting it on two wheels when it invariably has four. This *galera* is wrongly designated *birlocho*, the name of a vehicle now antiquated, but which seems to have been used by George Sand in going from Palma to Valldemosa a half-century ago. M. Conte apparently took the name from a modern edition of 'Un Hiver à Majorque' and was thus led to spell it improperly "*birlucho*," owing to a misprint which has crept into the later issues of Madame Dudevant's narrative. Two instances may be cited to show how hasty observation sometimes gives rise to false impressions. M. Conte speaks of a grazing cow at Sóller as a natural feature in the landscape, whereas such a sight all the way from Valldemosa to Pollensa would occasion interest because of its rarity. He also describes his days at Palma as passed in "une féerie de couleurs et de silence," and speaks of the deserted streets, conveying an impression the reverse of true of one of the most densly populated cities of western Europe, where the people—almost of necessity—swarm in the streets, except when the sun is in midheaven.

—Friends of the medical education of women will remember that in March, 1893, the University of St. Andrews consented to "recognize" the lecturers of the Edinburgh School of Medicine for Women as "lecturers specially appointed" by the Court of the University of

St. Andrews, to allow its students to enter their names as matriculated undergraduates of the university, to present themselves for examination for its medical degrees—practical privileges which the University of Edinburgh still stubbornly refused to extend to medical female students. The value of this concession on the part of the veteran Scotch university was, however, somewhat promptly nullified by an ordinance (General, No. 28) of the Scotch Universities' Commissioners, providing that "the classes of university lecturers must be conducted at the seat of the university," so that attendance on medical classes for women in Edinburgh, London, or elsewhere, could not be considered as the equivalent of the minimum of two years required for men at the University of St. Andrews itself. Under these circumstances, Dr. Sophia Jex-Blake, the Dean of the Edinburgh School of Medicine for Women, made a final appeal that the University of Edinburgh would recognize the lecturers of the school as "specially appointed" by its august self, and thus open, at last, its medical examinations and degrees to women. After a period of consideration sufficient to conserve the dignity of an institution which has for a generation so persistently repelled medical women, it has been officially announced that henceforth, on payment of the ordinary matriculation fee, and on compliance with the usual regulations, the students of both the Edinburgh School of Medicine for Women and of the Woman's Medical College (under the control of the Scottish Association for the Medical Education of Women) will practically become students of the University of Edinburgh, and be able to secure in due course its medical degrees. Dr. Jex-Blake is to be congratulated more than most pioneers of a cause on this issue of a contest which began in October, 1869, when she and four other women, after being allowed to matriculate, and having been declared *Cives Academiæ Edinensis*, were practically "turned down" as students, because, although the university authorities "permitted" women to attend *separate* medical classes, and forbade them to attend any others, they refused to require the professors to hold such classes. The University of Edinburgh must be commended for this solution of a problem which has hung over it with some discredit for twenty-five years. Nevertheless, while the university recognizes both these medical schools for women as providing a complete course of study, it reserves the right to cancel such recognition every year, when the schools are required to apply for a renewal of university endorsement.

## EMILY DICKINSON'S LETTERS.

*Letters of Emily Dickinson.* Edited by Mabel Loomis Todd. 2 vols. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1894.

THESE letters begin in reasonable conformity to the principles of the polite letter-writer. By degrees date, address, formal structure drop off or are developed away. At all events, the last of the periods into which the editor divides the letters holds only notes, whose structure reminds the reader of sheet-lightning when they are most connected, of nothing in literature when they are disconnected. These letters cannot fail to arouse sharp differences of opinion, but also they cannot fail to arouse interest. They are an important contribution to our collection of human documents. Valued at their lowest as literature, they are suggestive studies in applied Lombroso. At their best, they are brilliant expressions of an unusual and original personality.

They extend from 1845 to the author's death in 1886, and the labor involved in arranging them, mainly from internal evidence, has been simply enormous. It has been a task, too, calling for exceptional powers of interpretation and sympathy. Mrs. Todd's preface suggests the two lines of interest likely to be felt in the letters: they deepen the impression made by Miss Dickinson's poems, and they afford material for the study of an extraordinary style. The style of a recluse is as definite and legitimate an object of investigation as the conditions that make the writer seclude herself; and these letters, in their early stage, show the usual human tendency to commonplaceness. Miss Dickinson defines genius as the ignition of the affections, and the definition seems likely in her case to have been true. Certainly the preternatural compression and point of her literary expression appears to be the revenge exacted by an over-sensitive temperament for its failure to maintain the ordinary social relations.

The contents of the letters show the writer a less sprite-like, more human, being than she seemed in the poems. There is less of the dæmonic love in her affections, more of the familiar attachment to horse and house, kith and kin. Her enjoyments, too, sometimes fall short of the elevated ecstasy of a metaphysical sunset or of the consolations of death. But her easy acceptance of the terms of life becomes more and more impossible as the letters go on. The pathos of her recurring, short-lived revivals of the effort to live life whole instead of by spasms is extreme. One cannot help wishing that the writer's sense of humor had been more persistently indulged, or, perhaps, less persistently translated into paradox. The epigram and paradox of the later periods are excellent of their kind, and were doubtless a relief to the writer; but we cannot help profanely wondering what would have been the effect on the author's genius if she had reduced the nervous tension now and then by indulging in a genuine bout of gossip. Her attitude is depressingly superior. She does not abuse her neighbors enough to love them temperately. Her life grows more and more interior, until it reminds the reader of Plato's cave dweller who saw life only as it shadowed itself in the mouth of the den. Her family affections and her friendships are passionately strong, her hold on life slight and shifting. The contemporary life of her country, for example, does not interest her except as a source of disturbance to her own emotional condition, or to the wider self that she found in certain aspects of family, neighborhood, and town. The civil war was apparently unthinkable, and so unspeakable to her. Its record is the slightest possible in her pages, but the reserve is formidable. Things had a tendency to become unthinkable to her. She had little practical skill in what a clever writer calls "the art of taking hold by the small end."

What name will be given to experience of this sort, what estimate made of its expression, is an interesting question. A still more interesting question is what ought to be the name and estimate. Opinion will probably swing between the conviction that these letters are a precious legacy of genius for which we have to thank the scrupulous industry of Mrs. Todd and the generosity of Miss Lavinia Dickinson, and the equally strong feeling that they are the abnormal expression of a woman abnormal to the point of disease, and that their publication by a friend and a sister is not the least abnormal thing about them. But this difference of opinion involves an endless controversy about standards of taste and the legitimate in art. There have been great geniuses who have not been admired by other great geniuses, and whose genius even was denied. There have been numberless little men who could not impress their talent on men as little as themselves. But whatever the total judgment on Emily Dickinson's letters may be, a judicious selection from them must impress any reader; and if some who persevere to the end complain of a monotonous redundancy, others who have been irresistibly drawn along will rejoice that they are not more select and expurgated. The most Philistine of them will enjoy Miss Dickinson's account of herself written to Colonel Higginson in 1862. Her story of her education compares favorably in its way with St. Augustine's, John Stuart Mill's, Mark Pattison's, and J. H. Newman's. Here is a part of it, beginning (p. 301) with the paragraph introduced by "You asked how old I was?" Evading an answer to this question, Miss Dickinson proceeds without a pause:

"I made no verse, but one or two, until this winter, sir.

"I had a terror since September I could tell to none; and so I sing as the boy does of the burying-ground, because I am afraid.

"You inquire my books. For poets, I have Keats and Mr. and Mrs. Browning. For prose, Mr. Ruskin, Sir Thomas Browne, and the *Revelations*. I went to school, but, in your manner of the phrase, had no education. When a little girl, I had a friend who taught me Immortality; but venturing too near, himself, he never returned. Soon after, my tutor died, and for several years my lexicon was my only companion. Then I found one more, but he was not contented I be his scholar, so he left the land.

"You ask of my companions. Hills, sir, and the sundown, and a dog large as myself that my father bought me. They are better than beings, because they know but do not tell; and the noise in the pool at noon excels my piano.

"I have a brother and sister; my mother does not care for thought, and father, too busy with his briefs to notice what we do. He buys me many books, but begs me not to read them, because he fears they joggle the mind. They are religious, except me, and address an eclipse, every morning, whom they call their 'Father.'"

Every one will be conscious of refreshment on opening the second volume, which introduces the letters to her cousins, by far the most spontaneous of all. Elsewhere, in the longer efforts at least, there is a sense of strain and consciousness, not to call it affectation, as if the solitary instance of a rough draft adduced by Mrs. Todd (p. 424) were not the only one. The tendency, however, of Miss Dickinson's prose to fall into the favorite rhythm of her poems is, whenever observable (and it occurs constantly), the best evidence of the naturalness of her orphic outpourings. It was often pure chance whether she wrote continuously the full width of the line, or chopped up her measures into verse lengths. For example:

"Travel why to Nature, when she dwells with us? Those who lift their hats shall see her, as devout do God" (p. 180).

"Not that he goes—we love him more who led us while he stayed. Beyond earth's trafficking frontier, for what he moved he made" (p. 224). (Should not this, by the way, read: "Who led us—while he stayed—beyond earth's trafficking frontier"?)

"Be but the maid you are to me, and they will love you more" (p. 256).

"A word is dead when it is said, some say. I say it just begins to live that day" (p. 269).

"The competitions of the sky corrodeless ply" (p. 285).

"I work to drive the awe away, yet awe impels the work" (p. 296).

The new bits of poetry presented in these

volumes in connection with the letters are mostly of little worth, but there are one or two striking exceptions. Too original and individual, we fear, for Dr. Murray's use are some neologisms and colloquial phraseology of a curious kind; and how so ingrained a New Englander could confound *shall* and *will* passes understanding. There is no lack of bright and witty touches throughout; and on occasion, as in the letter relating the death in battle and burial of young Stearns (p. 242), there is a fine and effective coherency. It would be easy to multiply instances of a style whose early promise was considerable, but hardly maintained. These two are from the girl of twenty and twenty-one (pp. 48, 102):

"Oh, I struggled with great temptation, and it cost me much of denial; but I think in the end I conquered—not a glorious victory, where you hear the rolling drum, but a kind of a helpless victory, where triumph would come of itself: faintest music, weary soldiers, not a waving flag, nor a long, loud shout."

Of Professor Park's preaching:

"The students and chapel people all came to our church, and it was very full and still—so still the buzzing of a fly would have boomed like a cannon. And when it was all over, and that wonderful man sat down, people stared at each other, and looked as wan and wild as if they had seen a spirit, and wondered they had not died."

Mrs. Todd's arrangement of the letters by correspondents rather than chronologically was perhaps the best for readability, but the biographical impression is necessarily weakened thereby, especially as so many of these notes relate to the death of friends and kindred. For example, to ascertain that they give no clue to the nature of the "terror since September," 1861, one has to search the whole of volume i. and part of volume ii. By way of compensation there is a good index. As the volumes are consecutively paged, there is a prospect, we suppose, some day of a one-volume edition.

## A CYCLOPÆDIA OF NAMES.

*The Century Cyclopedia of Names:* A Pronouncing and Etymological Dictionary of Names in Geography, Biography, Mythology, History, Ethnology, Art, Archæology, Fiction, etc., etc. Edited by Benjamin E. Smith, A.M., Managing Editor of the Century Dictionary. New York: The Century Co. 1894.

As no canon or authority can prescribe bounds to the inclusiveness of a cyclopædic work, the 'Century Dictionary' might have been expanded to twelve from its actual six volumes. Its editor was obliged, in fact, to refrain from admitting much that was originally comprehended in his scheme, and not a little that should in consistency have found a place beside entries of the same class. The volume whose title is given above, and which is uniform in style, size, and binding with the 'Century Dictionary,' is in part a true supplement, as containing matter that might have been incorporated with the Dictionary; and partly it is an independent work, which finds its prototypes in historic handbooks, readers' handbooks, dictionaries of noted names in fiction, and above all in gazetteers and biographical dictionaries. In the latter capacity it sometimes overlaps and repeats the Dictionary. Thus, to draw examples from a single letter, the rubrics Dane(s), Danite, Dionysia, Dionysus, and Dyak are found alike in the Dictionary and in the Cyclopædia. Had such duplication been altogether avoided, it is evident that one must have had to consult both works for a title appropriate to the Cyclopædia and not found there.

Any one who has had Bouillet's French dictionary of history, biography, and geography at his elbow knows the convenience of a reference work built on these cognate lines. The Cyclopædia is essentially such a work, with the frills and ornaments indicated on its title-page superadded. A rough estimate of the number of entries alone gives forty-two to the page (there are 1,085 pages), of which thirty-two, or 75 per cent., are pretty evenly divided between biography and geography. Mythology and general history (including ethnology) would add so much to this figure as to leave a very small percentage for famous books, newspapers, poems, plays, songs, pictures, statuary, ships, fictitious and dramatic characters, astronomical names, etc. It should be remarked that past and living celebrities are alike commemorated.

There are three columns to a page, and articles a column long or upwards are an exception. The longest of all that we have encountered is the list of Orders, which fills four columns. A list of famous pictures of the Madonna fills one and two-thirds, and the same measure is allotted to Napoleon, who leads mankind in this particular, though not so markedly here as in some dictionaries. Proportion, indeed, always most difficult to establish and preserve, is especially perplexing in a heterogeneous work like the 'Century Cyclopedia.' To find a place at all, the creatures of romantic imagination have to assert their importance beside or above real historic figures; their creators, by a fine irony, not excepted. Thackeray gets but little more than twice as much space as his Becky Sharp, and Tolstoi but a line more. In the case of the more important historical personages, two circumstances have determined the length of their respective articles, viz., either the eventfulness of their lives, or the extent to which the editor has chosen to give a calendar of their writings. Neither of these will explain the indulgence shown for Dean Swift, whose treatment will best be proved disproportionate by drawing up a list of the ten greatest men of the Cyclopædia, ranked by space alone: Napoleon, Shakspere, Schiller, Goethe, Columbus, Mohammed, Swift, William the Conqueror, Michelangelo, Luther. Of living men we believe Gladstone is most dwelt upon; Bismarck only by one-third as much. The great majority of all are described in half a column or less. Such compression necessarily involves an unsatisfactory characterization in the case of the larger personages. Thus, to sum up Bach by saying that he was "an organist, and one of the greatest of composers of church music," is to ill define his place in the musical hierarchy. In a few instances—Lincoln, Martineau, Paez, etc.—mention is made of autobiographic and other lives by way of assistance to wider knowledge; and one could wish that this had been the rule.

The notices of both French and German writers have been carefully prepared, but, as one may see from that of De Musset, appear to have been taken over by abridgment from foreign sources. This would hardly account for the accented vowel in "Châteaubriand," but it perhaps does explain why the titles of Fritz Reuter's works are mentioned only in Plattdeutsch, though 'In the Year '13' and 'Seed-time and Harvest' are favorites in English; and why, again, Münch-Bellinghausen's play, "Der Sohn der Wildnis," is not identified in any way with one famous on the English stage, "Ingomar the Barbarian." Under its proper title, the latter is said to be a translation from the German, but no clue is given to the source, nor is its permanent contribution to our "familiar quotations" remembered—

> "Two souls with but a single thought,
> Two hearts that beat as one."

Similarly, Mosenthal's play of "Deborah" is not connected with our "Leah the Forsaken." Again, from the curt list of Frau Paalzow's novels, ("*von* Paalzow" was, we believe, neither this lady's title nor usage) the one best known to English readers, 'The Citizen of Prag,' has been dropped. Robert Hamerling's novel, 'Aspasia,' is not unknown in this country, but he is credited only with "epic poems." The Italian section has been relatively slighted. Among living contemporaries, neither Zanardelli nor Bonghi is admitted, prominent both as statesmen and the latter as a versatile writer; neither Carducci, the foremost poet of the peninsula, if not of Europe—if not of the world—nor his Bolognese neighbor, the satirical versifier, Guerrini; not even Gubernatis, whose 'Literary Men of the Time' (to translate the title) might, with all its shortcomings and errors, have proved helpful in compiling this Cyclopædia. The greatest fiction-writer of Poland—perhaps, after Tolstoi, of Europe—Sienkiewicz, passes unregarded.

Among general historical articles, conspicuous is the line of revolutions and wars, with chronological tables of the principal events. We will instance the American and South American Revolutions, and the French; the Wars of the Roses; the Thirty Years' and Seven Years' Wars; and the great conflicts of our present day and generation—the Crimean war, the war of the Rebellion, the Prusso-Austrian and Franco-Prussian wars, the Russo-Turkish war. (We have failed to find the Italian campaign of 1859 thus specialized.) Many of the dates being repeated under other headings, we have a good test of the accuracy of this part of the editorial control. Perfection is not to be looked for, and a very extensive examination would be required to determine the ratio of exactness. In twenty trials we have made, fifteen dates show absolute consistency in two or three repetitions; the first battle of Leipzig is set down as having occurred on September 17, 1631 (under Gustavus Adolphus and under Tilly), as September 7, O. S. (under Leipzig); the last battle is said to have taken place October 16-18, 1813 (under Leipzig), October 16, 18, 19 (under Napoleon), October 16-19 (under Napoleonic Wars). Four-fifths, then, are virtually irreproachable. The battle of Trafalgar, however, rightly assigned to 1805 under that heading, as well as under Napoleon and Nelson, is assigned to 1806 under Villeneuve. The fall of Sebastopol is dated September 11, 1855, under Crimean War, but under Sebastopol the city is said to have been occupied September 10. In the group of engagements under War of 1812, Lundy's Lane is dated July 15, 1814, but rightly July 25 under the name of that place.

Our space forbids us to dwell on the geographical department of the Cyclopædia, which would have been the gainer for a few really fine maps on the generous scale allowed by the folio size of the work. A dozen or twenty such would cause no appreciable difference in total bulk. Africa surpasses all the other continents in fulness of treatment, by reason of the serviceable sections on African names and languages. Among cities, Berlin gets rather more attention than Paris or London, but, as is proper, less than Rome, Florence, or Athens. A liberal concession to ready reference is made by such rubrics as *Ulm*, *Ca-*

*pitulation of*, and *Topeka Constitution*, which are itemized afresh in the adjoining articles, Ulm and Topeka respectively, just as *Wilmot Proviso* is defined by itself and again under David Wilmot. This duplication may be thought excessive in the case of Lookout Mountain and *Lookout Mountain, Battle of;* Lincoln's Inn and *Lincoln's Inn Fields* and *Lincoln's Inn Fields Theatre*. The meaning of the name Kentucky is given twice in the same brief article. Under Canossa the reader's-handbook editor let slip the opportunity to record Bismarck's famous but dishonored pledge, "We will not go to Canossa." Likewise the allusive literary celebrity of Weinsberg, Llangollen, and Aranjuez has been overlooked. Malakoff does not embalm MacMahon's "J'y suis, j'y reste."

The convenience of this work (except in handling) is incontestable, and it and the Dictionary together will satisfy the needs of ninety-nine-hundredths of the educated public better than the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' To scholars the Cyclopædia is less of a boon than the Dictionary. Typographically it is admirable indeed, like its sister volumes. The proof-reading of foreign languages is generally most accurate. "Buch des Lieder" is a slight slip under Heine; "Le duvin dé village," under Rousseau, must be attributed to the printer's devil. In the alphabetical succession, Jost Amman stands before Johann. There will, we are sure, be other editions in which these blemishes can readily be removed.

## CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—II.

TWELVE chapters describing incidents in the several months of a little girl's seventh year make up a pleasant trifle of a book, 'When Molly Was Six,' by Eliza Orne White (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Little Molly is neither a miracle of goodness nor an utter reprobate, but, what is far rarer in juvenile literature, an ordinary child, and for that reason attractive.

One could hardly say as much for Rosebud, the decidedly priggish heroine of 'Things Will Take a Turn,' by Beatrice Harraden (Scribners). Every reader of this book will feel glad that things have taken a turn with its author since it was written, and will cherish the hope that no more of her 'prentice work will be republished without more extensive revision. Perhaps the very poor and too numerous pictures are partly responsible for one's disappointment in the volume.

Whoever values his eyesight will not read far in 'A Book of Fairy Tales,' retold by S. Baring-Gould (Dodd, Mead & Co.). Though the type is good and clear and the paper exceptionally unreflecting, the page is quite spoiled for want of leads. The daring one in ten who reads will find the old imperishable stories of Cinderella, Blue Beard, Puss in Boots, etc., with some not so well known. They are, for the most part, satisfactorily retold, though once in a while the author so far forgets himself as to introduce a witticism, as when Puss in Boots says to the ogre: "Others said you were an awful bore—or boar—I did not ask them to spell the word." The effect of such modern antics beside the archaic pictures is odd.

The resetting of 'The Sleeping Beauty, and Dick Whittington and his Cat,' and of 'Jack the Giant-Killer, and Beauty and the Beast' (Dent Macmillan), is all that could be asked: the little volumes, in green and gold, are delightful. But the retelling by Grace Rhys is another thing. Her "preparation" for children wears a style above them and not in accord with the simple tale. The printer and the illustrator, R. Anning Bell, give the real distinction to the "Banbury Cross Series."

The various heroes and heroines of juvenile fiction seem to have awakened to the possibility of turning their notoriety to account. In Mr. Howard Pyle's 'Twilight Land' (Harpers) they appear as story-tellers themselves, though why they should when they have nothing fresher to tell, remains a puzzle. We may not complain because the book is a thing of shreds and patches—that was to be expected—but we could wish the patches less threadbare and the shreds more varied. Ali Baba and Cinderella, Patient Grizzle and Dr. Faustus, tell their stories in precisely the same verbose way, and the stories are so much alike that the only object in reading more than one is to find out whether a Genie or a Demon jumps out of a rashly opened bottle or box, or suddenly appears when a stone is rubbed or thrown into the fire; and exactly how the youngest son succeeds where his brothers fail; and whether the lovely princess is asleep or not when the young man's heart melts like butter at sight of her. At least one of the stories is taken bodily from another source with only trifling changes. The numerous illustrations bring out the harsh and repulsive characters too prominently to be agreeable. On the frontispiece alone, which reminds one of a picture in Kingsley's 'Water Babies,' does the eye linger with pleasure.

'The Golden Fairy-Book' (Appletons) contains a score or so of stories translated from various languages; Hungarian, Servian, Italian, Portuguese, French, and Russian each contributing a share. They are such stories as children like, all about princes and princesses, dragons, and enchanted castles. The book is handsomely made, and will doubtless please those insatiable consumers of fairy-tales for whom Grimm and Andersen, the 'Arabian Nights,' and Mr. Lang's many-colored books are not enough.

'The Fables of Æsop,' edited by Joseph Jacobs (Macmillan), includes about eighty of the best-known fables, with an introductory chapter on the history of the Æsopic fable. The large, clear type and the bold pictures will naturally make this a favorite edition for children to read to themselves.

The 'Tales of the Punjab' (Macmillan & Co.), whose resuscitation was described in our last issue, are an interesting contribution to the literature of folk-lore, and at the same time are likely to be pleasing to the young, who can hardly fail to be surprised to meet with some old nursery acquaintances masquerading as foreigners. The learned notes by Major R. C. Temple are meant solely for students, but the elder Kipling's delightful pictures must be appreciated by every reader, young or old. The care with which each detail of costume or furnishing is worked out shows a hand in love with its labor. Sometimes the whole gist of a story is summed up in an ingenious tailpiece or hinted in an initial letter.

Mrs. Frances Hodgson Burnett has put together four short stories to make a handsome book, 'Piccino and Other Child Stories' (Scribners). The Italian peasant child, taken from his native hovel to an English lady's villa, fed on English nursery fare, clad in "women's clothes," as he scornfully terms them, and, worse than all, soused in a tub on the slightest provocation, soon finds the enticing life of a *signorino* more than flesh and blood can endure. Fortunately, home was near, and he took the first chance of returning. Mrs. Burnett evidently admits the reader's right to intimacy with his author. She has before unfolded her own early life, and in "How Fauntleroy Occurred" now brings her son well forward. There must be people who are gratified by such marks of confidence.

Mr. Richard Malcolm Johnston, in a book of short sketches, 'Little Ike Templin' (Lothrop Publishing Co.), shows some amusing aspects of negro character. Little Ike, the lazy baby who would not learn to walk; his much-enduring sister, Till; his crafty brother and their variable mother, whose occasional tenderness so quickly relapses into harsh threats of the "peachy tree," and of "getting after" her naughty children—are the people most likely to be remembered, as the other sketches are slighter.

Mr. Joel Chandler Harris is a man of his word, and hence "Uncle Remus" is no more. But there were odds and ends of the old story-teller not worth associating with his fame if they were certainly his; and these, with sundry fairyland inventions of Mr. Harris's own, make up a plump volume entitled 'Little Mr. Thimblefinger and his Queer Country: What the Children Saw and Heard There' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). "The little boy" who drew out Uncle Remus is replaced by Sweetest Susan and Buster John and their dusky child nurse Drusilla. The queer country lies under the spring, and the children find Brother Rabbit *emeritus* passing his tranquil old age with Mrs. Meadows—"de gals" presumably having got married off. Brother Rabbit now takes up the parable in his own behalf, and consequently has no use for negro English, which is relegated to Drusilla. Some of his tales are very droll, in spite of this loss of the dialect flavor. Mr. Harris challenges comparison with the author of 'Alice' in his fantasy of the "Looking-Glass Children," and does not suffer, within the limits imposed. Mr. Oliver Herford's outline illustrations are among the best that Mr. Harris has yet inspired.

It is hard to commend 'The Patriot Schoolmaster' (D. Appleton & Co.), by Hezekiah Butterworth. The interest of the subject—life in Boston in the days of Concord and Bunker Hill—the modicum of history imparted, the excellence of the author's motive, all combined do not condone the slovenliness of his style, the incoherence of the story, the too frequent mistakes of fact and confusion of sound for sense. An instance of this latter characteristic, so undesirable in a writer of books for the young, is to be found in this reference to a portrait of Sam Adams: "It stands for the pivotal point of human liberty."

The scene of 'Chris, the Model-Maker' (Appletons), by William O. Stoddard, is laid in one of the poor quarters of New York. The story grows in interest to the end, and, though the moral is not obtrusively evident, a lesson for the young in courage and patient endurance under sore difficulties is well taught. It would have been still more attractive but for the redundance of the author's style and the wearisome personifications of inanimate objects.

The hero of J. Macdonald Oxley's 'In the Wilds of the West Coast' (Thomas Nelson & Sons) is a boy of fifteen, the son of an officer in the Hudson Bay Company fifty years ago. During a trip up the northwest coast of the Pacific in a trading schooner he has a series of stirring adventures, which are simply but graphically described. Woven into the tale is a considerable amount of information about the Indians of the Queen Charlotte Islands, their life, houses, dances, and war-making.

There is also a spirited description of the breeding-grounds of the fur-seal on the Pribyloff Islands and of a sea-otter hunt. The interest never flags, and the young reader will be the better for his companionship with a brave and manly boy like Rae Finlayson.

'Three Boys on an Electrical Boat' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), by John Trowbridge, is a tale of adventure in which the scene changes rapidly from an ice-boat with an electrical attachment on a lake in northern Maine, to the United States ironclad, the *Electron*, in Bermuda. Here the boys are employed in navigating a wonderful submarine boat in which the motive power is electricity. But we miss the magic touch of Jules Verne, along with the definiteness of his surprising inventions.

The war for the Union is the subject of 'The Lost Army' (The Merriam Co.), by Thos. W. Knox. Two Iowa boys of fifteen attach themselves as wagoners to Gen. Lyon's army at the beginning of hostilities. After the battle of Wilson's Creek they accompany the force under Gen. Sam. R. Curtis in its memorable march through Arkansas to Helena. The detailed description of the two campaigns is enlivened somewhat by the scouting and foraging adventures of the boys. The value of the book, which contains a considerable amount of historical information, would have been greatly increased if a map of Missouri and Arkansas had been given. For this aid to understanding the military operations described, the adult reader, at least, would willingly dispense with the indifferent illustrations.

## THE STUDY OF SOCIAL CONDITIONS.

*The Aged Poor in England and Wales:* Condition. By Charles Booth. Macmillan & Co. 1894.

*The Unemployed.* By Geoffrey Drage. Macmillan & Co. 1894.

*The Labor Question.* By T. G. Spyers. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894.

*The Dwellings of the Poor and Weekly Wage-earners in and around Towns.* By T. Locke Worthington. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan.

*Co-operative Production.* By Benjamin Jones. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1894.

THE work which heads the above list is by far the most important and the most valuable of them all. It is interesting, of course, to English readers especially, but the methods employed are so scientific, and the determination of Mr. Booth to carry the investigation through to completion so invincible, that no student of social problems can afford to neglect it. When Mr. Booth's plan has been carried out, as it seems likely to be, future investigators will have an account of the condition of the English people that will compare in value with Domesday Book itself. It is true that this enterprise is intended to furnish a scientific basis for a system of old-age pensions; but we do not observe that this intention has in any way influenced the selection of the facts or the preparation of the statistics. The question of old-age pensions may be disregarded altogether, and yet leave the utility of Mr. Booth's conclusions unimpaired for other purposes.

It is quite impossible, in dealing with such a work, to do more than indicate in the broadest way its general scope. The material employed is principally official returns of population, poor-law relief and expenditure, and the number of persons actually receiving alms from the public at particular dates. Every one of the 648 poor-law unions in England and Wales is studied, and careful comparisons are made in such a way as to eliminate individual peculiarities, or at least to make allowance for them, while establishing fundamental identities. As the freedom of action allowed the Boards of Guardians results in an extraordinary diversity of administration, the labor of classifying these multitudinous returns is enormous. The chief rubrics are (1) proportion of old people to the whole population; (2) proportion of the old in receipt of relief; (3) proportion of out-relief given.

Under the first head the most notable fact is the extraordinary variation in the proportions. In the union of Aberayron in Wales there are 1,034 persons over sixty-five years of age to 5,394 between the ages of sixteen and sixty-five; while in Barrow-in Furness the number is only 195 to 5,725. Migration, in this case, accounts in part for these extraordinary figures, Barrow being a new town to which young men have been drawn; but many other causes have to be taken into consideration. An extended comparison, however, shows that upon the whole the numbers of the old vary inversely as the density of population, the urban districts having scarcely more than half the proportion of old people found in the country. There are everywhere more old women than old men; but the excess in the cities is twice what it is in the rural districts. This may indicate, in Mr. Booth's judgment, that urban industries tend to shorten men's lives; but this inference is of questionable validity.

Under the second head the remarkable fact appears that the number of old people in a given population has no definite relation to the number of the old in receipt of relief, although it is closely connected with the character of the relief given—*i. e.*, whether outdoor or indoor. In London 30 per cent. of the old men are in receipt of indoor relief, and 18 per cent. of the old women, while 7 per cent. of the old men and 15½ per cent. of the old women are relieved out of doors. But in the rural divisions only about 6 per cent. of the old men and 2 per cent. of the old women are in the poorhouses, while outdoor relief is given respectively to 18 and 30 per cent. For England and Wales the total proportion of the old receiving aid, including those in receipt of medical relief only, is 29½ per cent.

Very interesting deductions are arrived at by a comparison of geographical divisions, of which we can only say that the North and West show much less pauperism than the rest of the country. It appears, also, that arguments drawn from statistics of general pauperism have little bearing upon the pauperism of old age. We cannot dwell longer upon this work, and will merely add that the percentage of paupers to population in England and Wales seems to have diminished nearly one-fifth between 1881 and 1891.

It would have been strange had the bookmakers left untouched the vast accumulation of testimony contained in the sixty-five blue-books of the Royal Commission on Labor, and Mr. Geoffrey Drage, the secretary of the commission, has naturally had great advantages in the work of exploitation. But his proposals for the treatment of the unemployed do not commend themselves especially to us, and a good deal of his space is given up to a violent attack upon the editors of the blue-book of the Board of Trade, which deals with the same subject. Mr. Drage considers that "for slovenly thinking and pretentious writing" the chapters which he criticises have no parallel "in the whole range of the literature, professional or official, on the subject of the labor question." Such criticism invites retort, and Mr. Drage's armor is not very tight at the joints.

Of a somewhat more practical character is Mr. Spyers's 'Labor Question.' Mr. Spyers, too, had the advantage of an official connection with the Labor Commission, which he has utilized in condensing the evidence taken and the recommendations made by his employers. A large quantity of miscellaneous information concerning various trades and occupations and the condition of the people engaged in them is here put in a somewhat readable form and classified so as to be easily referred to.

Our next author, Mr. Worthington, appears to have acted independently in his inquiry, and, as he is an architect by profession, his remarks upon the proper construction of dwellings are of a practical nature. Some of his matter is of a kind to be available in this country, and there are a few illustrations supplementary to the text. But he would have done better to confine himself to architectural problems, and allow others to deal with theories of governmental action.

The larger claims of socialism have somewhat overshadowed such humble agencies as voluntary coöperation, but Mr. Jones's book shows that this system of production and distribution has grown to be an important factor in the business of the English people. The author confines himself for the most part to a compilation of the annals of the principal associations, classified according to trades. His account is probably the most comprehensive that has yet appeared, and it will doubtless be found serviceable for some time to come as an encyclopædia of the coöperative system now prevailing in England.

*Selections from the Poems of Aubrey de Vere.* Edited, with a preface, by George E. Woodberry. Macmillan.

IT is very fitting that this volume of selections from Aubrey de Vere's poems should be edited by an American. The author himself stands, at eighty years of age, almost the last survivor of that brilliant cycle of poets who came forward in England to replace the Wordsworthian group, and who shone with varying prominence until Tennyson and Browning eclipsed them all, surviving most of them as well. Milnes (Lord Houghton), Sterling, Faber, Trench, Alford, Bailey, De Vere—these disputed for a time the laurels of the two greater poets, and now all save Bailey and De Vere have passed away. Among all these there was no one, except, perhaps, Browning, so linked with this country as De Vere; no one had so many American friends or wrote so often in our periodicals; and, as he is one of the most personally lovable and high-minded of men, it is most appropriate that this American tribute should be paid to him. No one, moreover, has put in verse so charmingly the most graceful of the Irish traditions, and his success in this form has been more than once recognized in these columns. A thorough Irishman in sympathy, he is yet so just by nature as to have named one of his prose works 'English Misrule and Irish Misdeeds'; and his conversion, long since, to the Roman Catholic faith has only mellowed and elevated instead of narrowing his nature. As we have lately pointed out, others have taken up the theme of Celtic legend, and some of these, as Mr. W. B. Yeats, may have lent to

them a more wholly fanciful and aerial touch; but Mr. De Vere will doubtless remain the permanent recorder of the Celtic as Tennyson of the Arthurian romance. In particular, the exquisite legend of "The Children of Lir"—the swan-children—must surely, as Mr. Woodberry says, "become a part of the child-literature of our language." We are further indebted to this accomplished editor for the best characterization of De Vere's precise place in literature, when he calls him the Fra Angelico of poetry; an epithet well justified by the excellent portrait prefixed to the volume.

To select from the accumulated work of one who began publishing in 1842 is not an easy thing; and any criticism we may make may be held to indicate only the personal equation of the critic. We are inclined to think that long poems predominate a little too much in this volume, and those in blank verse especially, while of the shorter poems, often very charming, there is too scanty an allowance. Among these briefer ones, the "Year of Sorrow" has, of course, been included by Mr. Woodberry; yet the phrase "gaunt" seems rather infelicitous for a poem so perfect in structure that it was at first attributed by the public to Tennyson, and one in which despair and grief are so nobly treated as to be attuned to peace. Nor has the editor missed the wonderfully graceful lines "Sing the old song" (p. 269); but we are surprised that he has passed by the beautiful series of "Queen Bertha" poems, tracing the life of a young fair queen in the highest spirit of feudal days. In connection with the sonnets, the personal equation recurs again. There lies before us a copy of an early edition of De Vere (1855), presented by him to Leigh Hunt, and marked in ink with the accustomed precision and discernment of that always sympathetic critic. Of Hunt's eight chosen sonnets, Mr. Woodberry has selected one only, "A Poet to a Painter," and there are, among the eight, at least two—"Venice by Day" and "Venice in the Evening"—which we wonder at his omitting. Indeed, the whole series of Mr. De Vere's "Sonnets in Travel" are of remarkable quality. His strongest short poem, to our thinking, is one also omitted by the editor: it appeared in the edition of 1842 under the title "To ——," and in that of 1855 as "The Soul's Waste." Valuable as Prof. Woodberry's book already is, we cannot but wish he had found room for this:

> Couldst thou but keep each noble thought
> Thou flingst in words away,
> With quiet then thy night were fraught,
> With glory crowned thy day.
> But thou too idly and too long
> From bower to bower hast ranged;
> And Nature trifled with, not loved,
> Will be at last avenged.
>
> With pleasure oft, but ne'er with awe,
> Thou gazest at the skies;
> And from thy lips all zephyrs draw
> Their amplest harmonies.
> Beware! the hour is coming fast
> When every warbled tone
> That brims our hearts with joy, shall yield
> No sweetness to thine own.

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*The Birds' Calendar.* By H. E. Parkhurst. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894. Small 8vo, pp. viii, 351, and 24 illustrations.

*In Bird-Land.* By Leander S. Keyser. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1894. Small 8vo, pp. 269.

Two pleasant, gossipy books about birds, each written by one who is sincerely interested in feathered life, and therefore likely to interest many other persons. The number of persons who care to make ornithology a serious study is extremely small; but amateurs to whom bird-life is a pleasure, are numerous enough to have given rise to what is almost a class of books, of which those now before us are both good examples. They are distinctively in the vein which has been so successfully worked of late by Mrs. Olive Thorne Miller.

Mr. Parkhurst certainly does not make a bid for the favor of professional ornithologists in assuming that their scientific studies are "too much of a makeshift to be very captivating, even to those whose predilections are of an intellectual rather than of a sentimental sort." Why do the writers of these pleasant *entretiens* about birds almost always begin by depreciating the works of those who have treated the technicalities of the same subject? They need not apologize for their own books in this way—for this is what their attitude really means. Mr. Parkhurst's calendar is mensual, for the year round, noting nearly one hundred species which he observed in an area of one-sixteenth of a square mile in Central Park, New York, and illustrating twenty-four of his subjects with half-tone photographs of mounted specimens. This is a very good record. The author writes well, without any of the mawkishness which birds seem to inspire in the breasts of some people who drop into ornithology as a relaxation from more serious pursuits. We imagine he would write still better on the subjects which habitually engage his attention and in which he is professionally versed. The publishers have made a dainty book for him.

That birdland into which the Rev. Mr. Keyser invites us is not exactly as nature made it, being too highly improved by the author's subjectivity. This is admirable, but not likely to be shared by many persons. Birds never strain after effect, except mocking-birds, perhaps, and if Mr. Keyser would cultivate the art of concealing his art, he would seem much more natural. He seems to be always seeking odd and whimsical turns of expression; his mannerisms are obtrusive. Some of his most minute and faithful descriptions of the little tricks and traits of birds in which he delights are most marred in this way. It would have been an improvement if the passages of his manuscript which most tickle his own fancy had been blue-pencilled by some prosaic editor. It was not obligatory, for example, to gush for a page over the fact that he saw a woodpecker climb by grasping a slender foothold with its toes and not with its claws—it was necessary for the bird to do so, for the simple reason that it could not use its claws; and the employment of italics, dashes, and notes of exclamation in describing the performance does not accentuate that fact. Mr. Keyser is at the full magnitude of his literary sin in the chapter called "A Bird Anthology from Lowell," in which every allusion to birds to be found in Mr. Lowell's poems seems to give Mr. Keyser a fresh fit. All the pieces in this book have appeared before in various periodicals, and have been well received; it was quite right to bring them together in one handy volume. The scene of most of the observations is in and about Springfield, Ohio. The most valuable ones are comprised between pages 263 and 265.

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*Riverby.* By John Burroughs. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1894. 16mo, pp. vi., 319.

THERE is one sentence in this collection of essays which every lover of nature and good literature will regret. It is that line in the prefatory note where the author announces that this is probably the last collection of his out-of-door papers. Let us hope that this probability will not be realized. It is hardly necessary to say that, among those whom we may designate as our out-of-door writers, none sounds a more thoroughly genuine note than John Burroughs. Deft as his pen is, it never seems to write to order or for mere writing's sake. Its message seems a cordial invitation to a common feast, and has nothing of the twang of the self-appointed showman to nature's mysteries.

The volume comprises eighteen chapters, every one of which is cheery reading. It is difficult to choose among them. "Among the Wild Flowers," which comes first, is full of delicate pen-pictures. Here is a bit:

"Our columbine is at all times and in all places one of the most exquisitely beautiful of flowers; yet one spring day, when I saw it growing out of a small seam on the face of a great lichen-covered wall of rock, where no soil or mould was visible—a jet of foliage and color shooting out of a black line on the face of a perpendicular mountain wall, and rising up like a tiny fountain, its drops turning to flame-colored jewels that hung and danced in the air against the gray rocky surface—its beauty became something magical and audacious."

"A Taste of Kentucky Bluegrass" is a charming bit of description of a region less familiar than our Northern woods, and with a beauty and character all its own. In "Lovers of Nature" the author strikes a less accustomed vein, mingled with a touch of criticism as just as it is kindly. Here and there he traverses the lay opinion, as when he says of Thoreau:

"In Thoreau's 'Walden' there is observation; in the 'Journals,' published since his death, there is close and patient scrutiny, but only now and then anything that we care to know. Considering that Thoreau spent half of each day for upwards of twenty years in the open air, bent upon spying out Nature's ways and doings, it is remarkable that he made so few real observations."

This is not only refreshing but true. Thoreau had his merits, and they were in their way great, but his reputation as a knower of Nature's ways will not bear serious examination:

"The farm-boy who told a naturalist a piece of news about the turtles, namely, that the reason why we never see any small turtles about the fields is because for two or three years the young turtles bury themselves in the ground and keep quite hidden from sight, had used his eyes to some purpose. This was a real observation."

"A Life of Fear" presents a side of animal life which will be novel to most readers, who are accustomed to think of the birds and squirrels as living, on the whole, in careless ease. In "Hasty Observation" lies a world of wisdom for the inexperienced searcher after truth, incidentally puncturing a dozen popular superstitions.

In brief, this little book is to read and enjoy, and the sole instance where we should be disposed to pencil an interrogation-mark on the margin is where the author compares the "bright *pink* blossoms" of the marshmallow to "burning coals." Are coals ever pink?

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*Following the Greek Cross;* or, Memories of the Sixth Army Corps. By Thomas W. Hyde, Brevet Brigadier-General of Volunteers. With numerous portraits. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1894. 12mo, pp. xi, 269.

COLONEL HYDE began his military service in 1861 as major of the Seventh Maine Infantry. He ended it in 1865 as colonel of the First Maine Veterans and commandant of the brigade in which that regiment was. The whole

of his service was in the Army of the Potomac and in the Sixth Corps, of which the "Greek Cross" was the badge. His experience included the garrisoning of Washington after the first battle of Bull Run, the siege of Yorktown, the Peninsular campaign (including the Seven Days' battles), the Antietam campaign, Sedgwick's capture of Fredericksburg, Gettysburg, Mine Run, the Wilderness, Spottsylvania, Cold Harbor, Sheridan's Shenandoah campaign, the siege of Petersburg, and Sailor's Creek. The mere enumeration of his campaigns stirs the blood with the remembrance of the wonderful experience of the young men just reaching their majority in 1861. The most interesting and instructive part of his service was that which he spent on the personal staff of General Sedgwick and General Wright at Sixth Corps headquarters. This covers the period from Chancellorsville, at the beginning of Hooker's campaign of 1863, to the defence of Washington against Early in the late summer of 1864.

The author expressly disclaims any purpose but that of narrating his own experience, and giving the impressions that men and events made upon him at the time. He has certainly been very successful in doing so. He has a gift for easy narrative, and carries the reader along with him, absorbed in the strong but true picture of the life of the young officer in those bloody campaigns. Some of his adventures are almost as marvellous as some of Marbot's in Napoleon's armies, but, like Marbot's, they may be believed with assurance, and are authentic evidence that truth is quite as strange as fiction.

His service of a year on the personal staff of Gen. Sedgwick was, as Col. Hyde thinks, the cream of his military life, and the development of the character of Sedgwick is no doubt the leading quality of the book which gives it a peculiar value. But there are other portraits of men less known to fame which are almost if not quite as valuable as those of their chief. The military family at corps headquarters makes so interesting a group that it is a distinct gain in local color to have so well-drawn a picture of it added to the military history of the civil war. McMahon, Whittier, Holmes, McClellan, and the rest of the young fellows of the staff are good types of the educated American youth who rapidly developed into brave and accomplished officers.

Of personal narratives of the war, many have been those of private soldiers in the ranks, and others of officers of high rank who attempt the larger military criticism. The intermediate class of the younger officers has not been so strongly represented, and this makes Col. Hyde's book all the more welcome. Its literary quality is good, the publisher's part has been well done, and the engraved portraits which illustrate it are interesting, particularly those of the author and his young comrades.

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*The History of Greece* from its Commencement to the Close of the Independence of the Greek Nation. By Adolph Holm. Translated from the German. In four volumes. Vol. I. Up to the End of the Sixth Century B. C. Macmillan & Co. 1894.

GROTE'S exhaustive philosophic paraphrastic commentary on the entire body of extant literary material for the study of Greek history will not be superseded in this generation. But about once in a decade the English reader feels the need of relating the new results of epigraphy and archæology to this abiding store of knowledge, and desires to be put in a position to speak intelligently of the latest views of ingenious and indefatigable Germans. No work is better adapted to meet these wants than the recently completed 'Griechische Geschichte' of Adolf Holm, the first volume of which lies before us in an English translation. We cannot say of it, as of Grote, that to know it is a liberal education, nor has it the charm which a bold imagination and long familiarity with the landscapes of Greece shed over the pages of Curtius. But it presents, in the moderate compass of four volumes, a succinct survey of all the known facts of Greek history, including the neglected centuries from Chæronea to Actium, a sober and intelligible critical account of the chief interpretations put upon these facts by recent German investigators, and a judicious bibliography, enlarged and brought down to date in the translation. It is indispensable to all students and teachers of Greek history who respect their work.

The general public, we fear, will find it rather hard reading. Holm's severe separation of the facts of the tradition from all conjectural interpretation, comment, or criticism is an immense relief to the student, who, in perusing the picturesque pages of Curtius or Duncker, often experiences an exasperating uncertainty as to whether any given statement rests on authority or on a "geistreiche Combination." But it tends to deprive the narrative proper of all human and spiritual interest, and to convert it into a barren statistical enumeration of names, dates, and deeds. The style, too, though admirably simple and direct, lacks warmth and color. We are duly informed that Homer is a great poet, Æschylus a mighty dramatist, Salamis a famous victory, the age of Pericles a unique moment in the history of mankind; but we are not made to feel these things, and we miss the rhetorical glow which a laudable tradition associates with these inspiring names.

Our space does not permit us to compare Holm's treatment of his theme with that of his chief modern rivals in the field, Busolt and Beloch, nor to discuss the new "Problems of Greek History" now being debated in Germany and recently presented to English readers by Mr. Percy Gardner and Mr. Mahaffy. The volume before us extends to the close of the sixth century, and deals chiefly with times which a sober criticism must regard as prehistoric. The author's attitude towards the mythical tradition is in the main that of Grote, and is defined in the sensible remark that "although we may be convinced that everything cannot have been invented, yet it does not follow that we know what was invented and what handed down by tradition." Curtius's "reverend figure of Minos," dominating all early Greek history, becomes a "mythical personage like Heracles." A widespread Pelasgic race and a Pelasgic civilization are scholastic myths. The education of the Greeks by the Phœnicians, of which we have heard so much, is a gross exaggeration. Of the return of the Heracleidæ we can only say that some such migration of the Greek tribes took place about the year 1000. "We shall never know whether Homer existed, who he was, or what he really did or did not write, but we shall be able to agree as to what is really Homeric in spirit." The guidance and initiation into the higher spiritual life of the young Greek nation by the benign sagacity of the Delphic priesthood, the theme of so much eloquence on the part of the English followers of Müller and Curtius, is a sentimental fiction.

Holm's treatment of these topics, however, offers something more than the uncompromising positivism of Grote. He has himself lived and worked in the erudite atmosphere in which such theories pullulate, and his negations, as an Hegelian would say, are enriched by taking up into themselves the ideas overcome. He patiently takes apart for us the fabric of conjecture, expounds the method of its structure, and demonstrates that all we can accomplish in this kind is to continue the futile work "of the old poets of the Cycle, of the logographers and the historians, and give a stylish façade to a building erected on sand." The student who passes directly from Grote to Curtius experiences a sense of bewilderment, and is at a loss to understand how narratives differing so widely can be drawn from the same materials. Holm enables him to understand.

The translation, with no special claim to elegance or nice accuracy, is a fairly faithful reproduction of the simple, uninspired style of the original. A hasty comparison with the German text here and there reveals occasional errors which seem to diminish in frequency as the translators grow familiar with their task. "Historical conscience" (p. 44) is misleading for "das historische Bewusstsein," unless we are to credit the translation with a Miltonic archaism. "Apollo himself comes from across the sea; he is originally the God of Delphi" (p. 45), will never do for "Apoll selbst kommt vom Meere her; er ist ursprünglich der Delphinios." And we were completely baffled by the statement (p. 112) that "Around Eleusis spreads one of those unfertile plains which are peculiar to this part of Greece," till we turned to the original and read: "Um Eleusis dehnt sich eine der wenigen fruchtbaren Ebenen aus, welche dieser Theil Griechenlands besitzt."

The translators have not avoided the snares set for unwary feet by the German fashion of spelling Greek proper names. As their author says of the Greeks of the mythical age, they do not always "trouble themselves about accuracy in names or apparent discrepancies." In a hasty perusal we have noted among others such monstrosities as Paonians (p. 18), Argolian (p. 52), Protidæ (p. 53), Cnidans (p. 332), axinus for axeinos (p. 274), Teans (p. 280), Ceryci (p. 400), Pryeneans, men of Priene (p. 143), Hella (p. 110), Prytane (p. 268), "the Greek Limé or harbour" (p. 276). Latinization is carried to an absurd extreme in Phricion (p. 141), Ceisus (p. 140), cyceon (p. 411), Zeus Urios (p. 275). There is little care for consistency; we read, for example, Lelegic (p. 64) and Lelegean (p. 72). Among the misprints may be noticed Witisch for Wilisch (p. 149), Tisamenes for Tisamenos (p. 139), Agaristiis for Agaristes (p. 317). Carelessness of this sort greatly impairs the value of the work for reference. It should be reformed altogether in the three remaining volumes, which, for the rest, present fewer difficulties.

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*Border Ballads.* London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: Longmans.

THIS is a remarkably handsome quarto containing some of the best "popular" poetry in existence. Each of the twelve ballads is illustrated with an etching by Mr. C. O. Murray, and there is, as usual, an Introduction by Mr. Andrew Lang. The etchings are not of equal merit, but they are all worth looking at, and some of them deserve more than a glance. That which accompanies the wonderful ballad of "Clerk Saunders" is perhaps the best; certainly one turns to it oftenest. That which is meant to illustrate "The Demon Lover" is probably the most conventional of the series.

Of the "introductory essay," as the Introduction is rather largely called, the regular things must be said. Like every piece of genteel hack-work to which Mr. Lang lends his skilful pen, it is good reading—so good that one hesitates to say how little original there is in it. For the part that deals with the separate ballads the author is, as he freely acknowledges, indebted to the erudition of Professor Child. The few pages that are Mr. Lang's own contain a too unqualified statement of that theory of the origin and distribution of ballads which Mr. Lang happens to favor. The uninitiated reader will not suspect that the question so jauntily dismissed is a "Streitfrage" of quite heart-breaking difficulty. However, slight as it is, the essay is sufficient for its purpose; it serves as a graceful introduction to a book that anybody may be glad to receive as a gift.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alger, Horatio, Jr. Victor Vane, the Young Secretary. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
A Midsummer Night's Dream. American Book Co. 20 cents.
Baker, G. P. Lyly's Endymion. Henry Holt & Co.
Baker, Mrs. Woods. Pictures of Swedish Life: or, Svea and her Children. Randolph. $3.75.
Curtis, G. W. Literary and Social Essays. Harpers.
Deazeley, J. H. The Odes of Horace. Books I. and II. Done into English Verse. London: Henry Frowde.
Eliot, George. Silas Marner. American Book Co. 30 cents.
Field, Eugene. Love-Songs of Childhood. Scribners. $1.
Fowler, J. T. Adamnani Vita S. Columbæ. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Gardiner. S. R. History of the Commonwealth and Protectorate. 1649—1660. Vol. I. 1649—1651. Longmans, Green & Co. $7.
Hours in Many Lands. Illustrated. Raphael Tuck & Sons.
James, Henry. Theatricals. Second Series. The Album. The Reprobate. Harpers.
Knowles, F. L. Wesleyan Verse. Middletown, Conn.: The Author.
Longfellow, H. W. King Robert of Sicily. Illustrated. Raphael Tuck & Sons.
Marshall, A. M. The Frog: An Introduction to Anatomy, Histology and Embryology. 5th ed. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Putnams. $1.40.
McGlasson, Eva W. Ministers of Grace. Harpers. $1.
Milton's L'Allegro, Il Penseroso and Lycidas. American Book Co. 20 cents.
Owen, Rev. Richard. The Life of Richard Owen. 2 vols. Appletons.
Pancoast, H. S. An Introduction to English Literature. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Pepper, Dr. William. Higher Medical Education. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Ridgely, Helen W. The Old Brick Churches of Maryland. Randolph. $2.
Riggs, Rev. S. R. Dakota Grammar, Texts, and Ethnography. Washington: Government Printing Office.
Saunders, John. Chaucer's Canterbury Tales, Annotated and Accented. New and revised ed. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Scott, Sir W. Woodstock. American Book Co. 60 cents.
Shakspere's Julius Cæsar. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
Shaler, Prof. N. S. Sea and Land: Features of Coasts and Oceans with special reference to the Life of Man. Scribners. $2.50.
The Book of the Fair: An Historical and Descriptive Presentation of the Columbian Exposition. 2 vols. Chicago and San Francisco: The Bancroft Co.
Thompson, Rev. A. C. Protestant Missions: Their Rise and Early Progress. Scribners. $1.75.
Towards Utopia: Being Speculations in Social Evolution. Appletons.
Vinycomb, John. On the Processes for the Production of Ex-Libris. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Wambaugh, Prof. Eugene. The Study of Cases. 2d ed. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Young, Rev. Alfred. Catholic and Protestant Countries Compared. Catholic Book Exchange. $1.

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 20, 1894.

## The Week.

By an unexpectedly large majority of fifty-five, the "railway-pooling" amendment to the interstate-commerce law passed the House of Representatives on Wednesday week. The same amendment was urged last summer, but failed of consideration. It virtually repeals the famous section 5 of the interstate law, under which "different and competing common-carriers" were forbidden "to enter into any contract, agreement, or arrangement for the division among themselves or with other carriers of the whole or any portion of their traffic, or any of their gross or net earnings." The purpose of this original section was plain. The disastrous railway "rate wars" of 1884 and 1885 had been settled by a combination of the exhausted companies, under the terms of which selected arbitrators, at the beginning of every year, allotted to each company its proportion of the next year's competitive traffic. This allotment, as in the case of the famous "Trunk-Line pool," was based on the ascertained distribution of tonnage in the preceding year. If then a company carried a larger proportion of the tonnage than its allotment at the year's opening, its net earnings on the excess were paid in to the pool commissioners for distribution to companies which fell short. This allotment was, of course, subject to annual modification. If a company ran above its agreed percentage in one year, it received no surplus revenue over the regular allotment. But its claim was good, at the opening of the next year, for an increase in percentage. There were many other pooling systems, but this was the most conspicuous and successful.

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The railways argued that, without such formal union, a weaker road invariably resorted to a lowering of rates secretly offered to large shippers of merchandise, and this led invariably to a general cut by other competitors, resulting sometimes in the loss of all profit on the business. The interstate commissioners themselves, in their annual report this year, allege as one chief cause of the many railway bankruptcies that, owing to fierce competition, "it is probable that a large amount of competitive traffic has been handled at such low rates that it became a source of loss rather than revenue." The Atchison collapse and the subsequent book-keeping scandals were the immediate results of efforts to live under these hard conditions. On the other hand, the possibility of exorbitant rates under a pooling system has been urged with considerable force. The recent report of the interstate commissioners, though generally favoring the change, advises against it unless the conditions and regulations imposed on pooling contracts can be made sure and readily enforceable. This the House amendment undertakes to provide through the power expressly conferred on the commissioners "to observe the working, operation, and effect of every such contract," and to require, when deemed advisable, that such rates and facilities shall be changed or modified. In an extreme case they are empowered to disapprove and terminate the contract itself. It was argued in last week's debate that the commission's intervention would be greatly hampered by legal and constitutional difficulties, and this will undoubtedly be one specially interesting feature if the act passes the Senate. As the first actual modification of the interstate law's most drastic provisions, the incident is at all events of great significance.

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The decision of the banking and currency committee of the House to report the Carlisle bill commits nobody, not even the members of the committee, to its support in all details. Doubtless the committee found that it might sit the session out without being able to agree on a bill, and so, in order to get at the sense of the House by means of actual discussion and voting, wisely determined to report some sort of bill, and, the secretary's being handy, took that. The distinguishing features of the Carlisle bill are: (1) State banknotes under certain conditions; (2) the locking up (not cancellation) of $30 of greenbacks to be deposited by the banks for each $100 of banknotes taken out; (3) the secretary of the treasury to have power in his discretion to retire legal-tender notes not exceeding $70 for each $100 of new banknotes taken out; (4) repeal of all provisions of law which require a reserve to be kept on account of deposits; (5) all banks to be responsible for the notes of all other banks; (6) all existing national banknotes to be retired within a limited time and new notes taken out. In other particulars the Carlisle plan agrees with the Baltimore plan, both of which provide that the banks may issue notes against their general assets and a safety fund equal to 5 per cent. of all the notes outstanding.

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The merits of the bill are already under debate. The minority of the committee have touched the sore spot in directing attention to the State banknote clauses of Mr. Carlisle's measure. The report adverts to the fact that the chairman of the committee himself led the attack against State banknotes at the last session, when the House voted, by a majority of 70, to retain the 10 per cent. tax. There is no reason to suppose that Mr. Springer has changed his mind on this subject. The minority report makes a strong point when it says that the conditions which the Carlisle bill would bring about, would cause banks already in the national system to abandon it and become State banks. This is undoubtedly true. The conditions of note-issue would be more favorable generally under State than under national laws. There would be a gradual but steady change from the latter to the former, and this change would be accelerated by another provision of the Carlisle bill, which compels national banks to retire their present circulation and take up their security bonds.

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The Government gold reserve has already fallen below the $100,000,000 mark. For the first Treasury statement after the recent loan it was possible to go back to the old form and print the gold reserve in the proud old way. But a single month has made an end of this. No one need regret it. The maintenance of the reserve would no longer deceive foreign investors. They clearly perceived and said that the last loan was only a stop-gap, and have been just as distrustful of our financial system with the gold at upwards of $100,000,000 as they were when it was under $60,000,000. At home the reserve has lost its superstitious reverence. What now makes bankers and investors dubious is not the fact that the reserve is at this or that figure, but the fact that we are tied up to a vicious financial system which makes it possible to drain the Government store, no matter what its size. The thing we now need is to get the people and Congress to see this with equal clearness and to give us relief. The rapid depletion will make them see it more quickly than anything else.

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The pension-appropriation bill, which was taken up in the House on Thursday, calls for $141,581,570 during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1896, of which $140,000,000 is for pensions and the remainder for running expenses. The expenditures for pensions during the fiscal year ending last June were $139,804,461. The commissioner of pensions, in his annual report, expresses the opinion that "in the year 1895, thirty years after the close of the war, the pension-roll must, in the course of nature, reach its highest limit in numbers and thereafter begin to decrease." Ground for this opinion is found in the fact that during the last fiscal year the net increase in the number of pensioners was only 3,532, the total number on the rolls last June being 969,544. The present Administration is enforcing

the laws more rigorously than used to be the case, and the proportion of unworthy claims granted is smaller than ever before. It must be that few deserving claims can now remain for presentation, and it therefore seems reasonable to believe that the limit must soon be reached. Indeed, the estimate for the next fiscal year calls for only about the same sum as was expended during the year ending last summer.

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The *Tribune's* logician was hard at work on Thursday to show how the solid Republican vote in the Senate against taking up the bill to strike off the Sugar Trust's duty was a tremendous manifestation of "hostility to the Sugar Monopoly." There is nothing the Republican Senators are more eager to do than to take away all protection from sugar-refining, but it is the irony of fate that they are never able to see their way clear to do it. The duty was "palmed off on them" in their own tariff of 1890, as the *Tribune* now confesses, but at that time became so firmly bound up with a bounty on raw sugar that no Republican can now, with logical consistency, vote against the Trust unless at the same time he gets the bounty back. This is the distressing situation which forces the Republican Senators into the unpleasant and entirely unintentional attitude of "appearing to insist upon retention of the protective duty for refiners." They are aching and burning to destroy that duty, but logic will not let them. The worst of it is that, even if they begin to see their way out of the bounty dilemma, the powerful reasoners of the Trust stand ready at any moment to furnish no end of new arguments why the duty should not be disturbed.

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A most important gain for the cause of civil-service reform is the action of the President in issuing an order last week putting storekeepers, gaugers, and clerks in the offices of collectors of internal revenue in the classified service. It is not simply that a large number of places are thus rescued from the spoilsmen—2,600, it is estimated—but they are in a branch of the service where the abuses of the old system have always been most flagrant. Moreover, every such step forward makes further progress still easier.

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Senator Lodge, in his remarks before the West Side Republican Club last Friday night, declared that "the party of construction, the party of action," had been "recalled to power." He went on to say that what the party of action was going to do was to "give the country a rest," and that what the party of construction was going to construct was—nothing. No tariff or currency bills for him — that would be "nonsense"; and he had hard things to say of those Republicans who talk of presenting such bills in the next Congress. Now what is this on Lodge's part but to take his place among the "critics," whom his soul so loathes, and to sneer at those who are doing "the world's work," as he expressed it, in the midst of much "dust and sweat"? There is McKinley sweating away at a tariff bill, and Walker and other world's workers laboring at currency measures, while the critical Lodge sits daintily to one side, safely out of the dust and the sweat, and calls their honest endeavors "nonsense"! We are ashamed of such conduct in a man who has professed so great a love for the dust and sweat of the world's work.

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The recent election in Utah indicates that the Republicans are likely to control the State when it enters the Union next year, and thus increase by two their representation in the Senate. In 1892 there was a three-cornered contest between Republicans, Democrats, and "Liberals," in which the Democrats won by a plurality of 2,811; last month the third party disappeared, and the Republicans polled 1,823 more votes than the Democrats. It is by no means certain, however, that the Republicans are to be congratulated upon this victory. The State is going to be so close that the local managers of the party will undoubtedly claim that the only chance of carrying it in 1896 will be by concessions to the silver-men; and the two Senators, if they are Republicans, will be for free coinage and soft money.

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There could not be a more striking illustration of the absurdity of Platt's pretension that there is what economists call an "effective demand" for him as a "boss," than that letter of instructions of his to the country editors which was printed in the *Evening Post* on Tuesday week. We have always maintained that his services as a "steerer" of the Republican party were purely gratuitous, and this letter shows that he thought so himself. He apparently saw perfectly well that nobody wanted him in any capacity at this crisis, so he proceeded to cook up a fictitious and fraudulent public outcry for, and fictitious and fraudulent praise of, himself. He is a resident of Owego and the president of an express company in this city. The population of that place is decreasing, and it evidently needs attention. Platt is doubtless its chief citizen, and must therefore be its main reliance for reform or improvement. That, therefore, is the proper field for any time or energy the express business may leave him for the elevation of his fellow-men. Here we have had enough of him. The worthy who "held over" five years in the quarantine commissionership on a fraudulent pretence, until he was ousted by the courts, and inflicted on us as a deal four new police justices, has destroyed even the attachment to him which his pleasing personality might have created. Not only this, but the secret ballot has destroyed the whole boss business. There is nothing in it any more, even for Platt.

Mr. Morton's announcement that he will not anticipate the election next November by appointing twelve judges of the Supreme Court, has more merits than one. It puts an end to one of the most candid attempts at a job that we can remember in many a day. There was not the smallest pretence that these judges were needed, or that during their twelve months' tenure they would have any work to do. The sole justification of the appointments, had they been made, would have been the fact that the Governor had the legal, technical power to make them, and that a certain number of gentlemen wanted the salaries. The effort to get him to act was, in fact, simply a demand for certain sums of money. This, however, is a comparatively small matter. What is most important and most gratifying in the announcement, is the public revelation that we once more have a civilized man in the chief office of the State.

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It is now ten years since Hill took Mr. Cleveland's place, and during the whole of that period the civilized, intelligent, educated, and honest classes of the community have been all but completely shut out from influence on the executive department of the State Government. When Hill and Flower were in doubt of any sort, they took counsel with the criminal or semi-criminal class, a little collection of the Mikes, Jakes, and Barneys who form the vermin of our society, and who live in a constant state of war with all our best moral and intellectual interests. Not in all that period has there ever been much use in advocating anything before these Governors on grounds of humanity, decency, sound law, or social improvement. An African chief could hardly have been more deaf to the voice of the religious, moral, and industrious section of the community than these two Governors. Consequently, when we see Governor Morton calling to his assistance, on a question partly of law and partly of morality, the leading lawyers of the State, and settling it in accordance with their opinion, we get an agreeably increased sense of the value of our late victory. Its value in this city was incalculable, but the whole State will feel it in every nook and corner of the administration.

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From the beginning of the police inquiry the fate of the guilty men at the head of and behind the system has hung upon the question, Will anybody confess? In every investigation into official rascality, in fact, the appearance of one who breaks down is regarded as marking the crisis. When he takes the stand, there is invariably a great rushing to cover of all the big and little rascals who have been fattening upon the system of government which he has decided to reveal. That he has not appeared sooner in the present inquiry has been a cause of general surprise. He was expected when the three police captains

and several sergeants and wardmen were suspended by the Police Board. The provocation was great, but it was not quite sufficient. When, however, Capt. Stephenson was found guilty of a comparatively mild case of bribery, every guilty subordinate in the service saw yawning before him the doors of the penitentiary, and we have no doubt that, in the minds of a great many of them, the wisdom of confessing began to receive serious consideration. In all probability it was the fate of Stephenson which moved Capt. Creeden to make the full and pathetic confession which he laid before the Lexow committee on Friday.

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It would have been difficult to find a more effective witness than Capt. Creeden. He is a veteran of the war, with a long and honorable record. He served for a quarter of a century on the police force, and tried three times in succession to obtain promotion on his merits, passing the civil-service examination with high ratings each time. He discovered that merit had nothing to do with the matter, and that he could obtain promotion only by paying cash for it. When he first began to consider cash payment, he could have obtained a captaincy for $6,000; but his hesitation cost him dearly, for prices went up in the meantime. When he had bargained for it at $12,000, a rival appeared and forced the price up to $15,000; and though he paid this sum with the understanding that he should have a precinct in which the opportunities for blackmail were so large that he could hope soon to get his money back again, the Police Board broke faith with him, and transferred him to a precinct which was almost barren of such opportunities. No one can read his confession and not be convinced that he is a victim of the system which the bi-partisan Police Board has been administering for the past thirty years.

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The first direct evidence that some of the money collected by Tammany as the price of its government went to Croker in person was brought out by Mr. Goff on Thursday. The president of a towing company, who has contracts with the Street-Cleaning Department to tow garbage out to sea, testified that for several years he sent checks to Richard Croker in June and October of each year, as contributions to the expenses of Tammany's Fourth of July celebration and Tammany's election expenses. The usual amount was $50, but it was increased in one instance to $75 and in another to $150. He said he sent them to protect him in his contracts. When asked why he increased the amount to $150, he said the advisability of doing so was probably suggested to him, adding, "I compared notes with my friends, and it was suggested that we had better not get left, and I concluded to pay the increase." Of course Mr. Croker can say that these were contributions to political expenses, and not at all a personal tribute to himself, but the fact remains that they were paid by a city contractor who felt obliged to pay them in order to retain his contracts. If he, a comparatively small contractor, paid these sums, it is reasonable to suppose that all contractors were obliged to pay, and that the levy upon each was proportioned to the size of the contracts.

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Sir John Thompson's sudden death may have an important effect upon the fate of the Canadian copyright act. He chiefly was responsible for its passage in 1889, and one of the objects of his journey to England was to induce the imperial Government to validate it. The despatches gave some account, two weeks ago, of the protests lodged with the Marquis of Ripon against the act. Representatives of the London Chamber of Commerce, the Society of Authors, and the Copyright Association went to the Colonial Office on November 26 to point out the harmful nature of the Canadian proposals touching copyright and reprints. These proposals, in brief, resemble our own law in making Canadian manufacture a requisite to Canadian copyright. The objections to such a law come, first, from the English publishers, who dislike to see a part of their business given over to Canadian houses; second, from English authors, who do not want to be pirated in Canada and smuggled into the United States; also from those who have international copyright at heart, and who say that Canada, having assented along with the other English colonies to the Berne agreement, has no right now to nullify it by special legislation. The interests of the United States are involved, furthermore, inasmuch as the privileges given in exchange for our copyright act were supposed to run throughout the British possessions. Mr. Bayard has, in fact, been instructed to ask the English Government what course they intend to adopt. We are in no position to cast a stone at Canada for carrying the principles of protection into the book business; yet what little advance towards decency we have made would no doubt be seriously imperilled by English assent to the Canadian act. It is to be hoped, therefore, that such assent will not be given, and that so a new argument will be furnished us to go the whole figure of the Berne agreement, in common with the rest of the civilized world.

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The scenes in the Reichstag over the Socialist disrespect to the Emperor are evidently only the beginning of further trouble. If the men who have refused to stand up out of respect for him, and have even applied abusive epithets to him, could be tried and convicted of "lèse-majesté," they would go to jail quite cheerfully, and be regarded by their fellows as martyrs, and at the next election the Socialist vote would be largely increased. It is the steady increase of this vote, and the mutiny of the Socialist members of the Reichstag, which ought to excite most alarm among the ministry and at court. The notion that it can be kept down by repressive enactments is a chimera. They will only stimulate it. The Germans are just beginning to find out the difficulty, if not impossibility, of basing a feudal monarchy on universal suffrage and parliamentary institutions and a free press. They will know a great deal more about it in a very few years. The Emperor's theories of his own origin, rights, and powers should never have seen the light in a parliamentary country. In fact, they are ridiculous when put on paper in any country in Christendom in our day. They are doing much now to discredit hereditary monarchy. A few years ago, when the dread of France and Russia was greater than it is, it was considered rather fortunate to have a dashing young soldier at the head of the government. So it doubtless would have been if they could have got him to hold his tongue. But he is as loquacious as he is brave, and has a conceit of his own wisdom which is mercifully vouchsafed to but few men in power. The consequence is, that he rarely speaks without feeding the flame of discontent and insubordination under the name of socialism or radicalism. And the pity of it all is that his military value is still an unknown quantity.

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The scandals attending the recent execution of an anarchist in Spain have at last brought about the suppression of these lamentable public spectacles. One cannot say that bull-fighting Spaniards, more than other meridionals, have any special horror of blood, and, though the punishment of the Barcelona bomb-thrower had some specially repulsive features, on the whole it was a less sickening sight than recent executions in France have been. The garrote never can be quite so horrible as the guillotine. The cabinet of Madrid, then, cannot have been led by any motives which the hardest head could deem sentimental in decreeing that henceforth the death penalty shall be inflicted only within prison walls, and in the presence of none save officers of the law and certain ecclesiastics. It has simply come to the conclusion that public executions do more harm than good; that the exemplary punishment which criminalists find necessary had best not be exemplified at noonday in the plaza; that the swagger of a murderer in the face of death shall no longer make a popular hero of him. It is a great pity that so rudimentary a reform as this is should not spread into France. There seems to be no immediate hope of it. A bill for the suppression of public executions passed the French Senate last spring, but was rejected by the Deputies. It was renewed at the present session, and has just been unfavorably reported upon. The new anti-anarchist law, however, makes executions of convicted anarchists private.

### THE PUNISHMENT OF DEBS.

JUDGE WOODS has sentenced Debs and his assistants to six and three months in jail, respectively, for their action in interfering with interstate commerce and disobeying the injunctions of the United States Circuit Court. This is a very mild punishment when we look at all the attending circumstances, the riots, the destruction of property, and the killing and maiming of human beings. But Debs and his assistants can be punished only for what they did, not for what others did, even though this was the consequence of the orders given by the chiefs of the American Railway Union. The imprisonment of these men even for a short time is a token of what society has in store for this class of offenders. It is not often that a judge has the courage to impose any heavier penalty than a fine on an offender who has not actually participated in train-wrecking, and of course a fine is immediately paid by a subscription, and amounts to no punishment at all. A term of six months in jail cannot be served vicariously; and even though Debs be considered a martyr by his friends and followers, the fact that he has been sentenced to jail by the law of the land will remain a stigma and a warning, both to him and to others. A second offence would not be treated so lightly.

The act of Congress under which Debs is convicted is the so-called anti-Trust law. It prohibits combinations and conspiracies to restrain or interfere with interstate commerce. It is very probable that Congress did not have in mind a conspiracy to stop interstate commerce altogether by tearing up tracks, "killing" locomotives, and overturning and setting fire to railroad cars, but fortunately it made the language of the law broad enough to cover such a conspiracy, thus:

> "Every contract, combination in form of trust or otherwise, *or conspiracy in restraint of trade or commerce*, in any Territory of the United States, or of the District of Columbia, or in restraint of trade or commerce between any such Territory and another, or between any such Territory or Territories and any State or States or the District of Columbia, or with foreign nations, or between the District of Columbia and any State or States or foreign nations, is hereby declared illegal. Every person who shall make any such contracts or engage in any such combination or conspiracy, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof shall be punished by fine not exceeding five thousand dollars or by imprisonment not exceeding one year, or by both said punishments in the discretion of the court."

Now, the judge says that even if this statute had been intended merely to prevent monopolies in trade, it is easy to see that other car companies might have conspired to prevent railroads from using Pullman cars, and might have directed their employees to uncouple such cars from trains already made up, in which case both they and their employees would have been guilty of conspiracy under the statute. "Will it be said," asks the judge, "that under this statute one who is not a capitalist may without criminality assist capitalists in doing things which on their part are criminal? If that be so, then if a capitalist and one who is not a capitalist join in doing things forbidden by this statute, neither can be punished, because one alone cannot be guilty of conspiracy." However that question may be answered, it is a settled principle of law that a statute is to be interpreted by its language when the language is clear. In the enactment of laws three separate branches of the Government are concerned, embracing 356 Representatives, 88 Senators, and one President. In the passing of an ordinary brief law like this one, usually not more than one-tenth of all the persons concerned tell what their understanding of the law is, or what they intended when they voted for it. Hence if the courts should attempt to find out *aliunde* what is meant by a law, they would be pretty sure to go wrong. They must interpret the law, not the *Congressional Record*.

Already the labor unions have begun to censure the court for its judgment in the Debs case. There is no constitutional or legal objection to such censure, but the whole affair shows what sort of a social and industrial state we should be in if organized labor could have its own way. Labor not organized may be, and in fact is, greater in numbers than organized labor. Labor not organized is persecuted more remorselessly by organized labor than the latter is by any machinery of the law. A few days ago a pair of walking-delegates in this city were indicted by the grand jury for preventing a number of carpenters from working at their trade, following them around from one job to another and causing them to be discharged every time they found a place. Therefore, when we say that society would be in a state of chaos if labor could have its own way, regardless of the courts of law, we mean labor as represented by Debs and the walking-delegate generally.

A report from Chicago says that at a meeting of the Trade and Labor Assembly on Saturday, Judge Woods was roundly denounced by the speakers, and that resolutions were passed against any increase of the army of the United States, such increase being considered "a menace to the interests of progressive individual liberty in the interest of the plutocratic millionaire classes." This means that when any mob seizes a railroad or all the railroads at any particular place, and stops the traffic upon which the whole nation subsists, there ought not to be any force at hand to disperse the rioters and to restore order. Here we have the usual walking-delegate view of government, and from it we can learn what sort of social state we should be in if there were no military force, and no courts courageous enough to put down the mob and send the leaders to jail. In every contest of this kind it turns out eventually that the rioters are a very small part of the community, and that when the machinery of the law gets in motion, they cease to be formidable. Debs will serve his time in jail, and his power when he comes out will be greatly curtailed.

### THE NICARAGUA CANAL BILL.

ADVICES from Washington indicate that it is the purpose of the supporters of the Nicaragua Canal bill to press it through both houses of Congress, if possible, at the present session. This bill pledges the credit of the Government of the United States to the canal company, at the outset, to the extent of $70,000,000. The supporters of the project estimate the total cost of the canal at $87,799,570. It would require, however, either a large measure of credulity or a very strong bias to enable a man of average intelligence to believe that the work would ever be completed by or for the Government for that sum.

It is significant that the act of Congress of February 20, 1889, incorporating the "Maritime Canal Company of Nicaragua," to which it is now proposed to pledge the credit of the Government, while fixing the capital stock at $100,000,000, authorized its increase to $200,000,000. It also provided that the United States should not, by anything contained in the act of incorporation, be considered as committed "to any pecuniary liability whatever for or on account of said company." It turns out, however, that the act of incorporation was in the nature of an entering wedge; and it is now proposed that the United States shall assume a guarantee in order to enable the company to obtain funds. It is unnecessary to say that, if this guarantee should prove to be insufficient, the Government of the United States would be called upon to increase it. In a word, this Government is to be committed to the cost of the construction of the canal, whatever it may be.

In the report of the Senate committee on foreign relations, made at the last session of Congress, on the pending bill, it was stated that, when the Canal Company, after prosecuting part of the work, ran short of funds, "capitalists from Europe made propositions to the company, which are yet pending, to enter into an agreement for the completion of the canal on terms far more liberal to its present owners than any that have been offered by the United States"; and it was further stated that, "if action by Congress is delayed unreasonably," the company would be compelled either to abandon its concessions and lose the money already invested by it, or to accept the offer made "by the foreign capitalists." On this ground it was urged that Congress should act, in order that the canal may not be placed "under the control of a European government" or "in the power of European capitalists."

In this desire we cordially concur. The importance to the United States of an interoceanic waterway across the isthmus now separating the Atlantic from the Pacific Ocean, renders it impossible that this

Government should be indifferent to the question of foreign control. If the construction of the canal by the United States were essential to the exclusion of such control, this Government would, in our opinion, be justified in incurring great pecuniary liabilities in order to avert such a result. But we are of opinion that it is possible to secure the absolute freedom of the canal from foreign control without the assumption by the United States of any pecuniary liability whatever. This fact, if it can be established, is especially worthy of consideration at the present time, when the condition and the prospects of our national finances are such that wise statesmanship would seem to forbid the assumption of any pecuniary liabilities that may be avoided, to say nothing of those that are wholly unnecessary.

The cry of "an American canal under American control" proceeds upon the theory that the Government of the United States ought to exercise an actual control over the canal and its use. This theory, if it is to be endowed with force and substance, involves the idea that the Government of the United States shall have the right, not only to fix the conditions on which the canal shall be used, but also to permit or to forbid its use to any other nation or all other nations, as circumstances may seem to require. It may be suggested that this idea is somewhat incompatible with the argument that the universal use of the canal will insure an ample return on all the capital that the United States may invest in it. We do not, however, lay any stress on this suggestion. It is, we assume, generally contemplated that the canal shall ordinarily be open to the commerce of all nations. But what we desire to make clear and to emphasize is, that the idea that the United States should assume, or seek to assume, a reserved power of exclusive control over the use of the canal, is both short-sighted and chimerical.

The great principle of the Roman law—the principle that navigable waters are common to all—though obscured during the Middle Ages, has to a great extent been re-established. In modern times, and especially since the period of the French Revolution, one international stream after another has been opened, till it may be said that the tendency to treat international waterways as highways of commerce has become irresistible. The considerations by which this result has been brought about would apply with tenfold force to a canal between the Atlantic and the Pacific. It would be in the largest sense an international highway, to which the world's commerce would at once be adjusted. The mere opening of such a highway to the use of the world would constitute an irrevocable dedication of it to that purpose. Instead, therefore, of attempting to exercise an exclusive control over the canal, the true policy of the United States, as well as of all other nations, is to neutralize it, by a general agreement that its use shall never be obstructed, either in war or in peace, and that it shall never be made the object or the theatre of hostilities. While such an agreement would insure its peaceful and open use at all times, the attempt of any power to control it would simply invite attack, and thus tend to self-destruction.

We do not doubt that, if the neutralization of the canal were effectively secured, private capital could be obtained for its economical construction, without exposing the treasury of the United States to indefinite liabilities or to any liability whatever. We do not doubt that an American company, acting under an American charter, and thus insuring the construction of the canal "under American auspices," could obtain ample funds at home and abroad for all the purposes of construction, if the leading nations of the world would now take the step which, if the canal is opened, they will be compelled to take sooner or later, of agreeing not to make it either the object or the theatre of hostilities.

## *ATHLETICS AND HEALTH.*

In the recent discussion of football and of athletics in colleges, the relation of athletics to health and to the sedentary lives which most college graduates have to lead, has been strangely overlooked. The football champions have, as a rule, destroyed their influence by their extravagance. For instance, Prof. Richards of Yale, in Walter Camp's learned work on 'Football Facts and Figures,' says: "Personal encounters of some sort seem absolutely necessary to the education of young men, especially men of the strongest character. Such young men, judiciously trained, constitute the best citizens of the state, and a state full of such citizens becomes thereby safest to live in, for such men are its best defence." Dr. Shattuck of Boston, in like manner, defends football as providing us with national defenders on the battle-field in case the European Powers should attack us. These deliverances have also received a very solemn endorsement from "a captain, a most valuable player," in a class prayer-meeting, who is reported by Prof. Richards to have declared on that occasion "that the great success of the team the previous season was in his opinion due to the fact that among the team and substitutes there were so many praying men." So that not only is the game good as a preparation for war, but the Almighty takes a hand in it and sees that "the praying men" get most touchdowns and goals.

These gentlemen who regard football as a good preparation for service on the battle-field are apparently under the impression that war is still conducted in the old Homeric fashion; that is, that the combatants are ranged in line a few yards apart, and, after an exchange of bad language, "clinch" and "slug" each other as they roll over in the mud, each trying to stab the other with a spear or short sword, or hold him down till another man on the same side can break his back with a club. It is extraordinary that such ideas should prevail; that, within thirty years of our own civil conflict, people should think that a battle consists of personal encounters. Battles in our day, and more and more every year as weapons improve, are nearly all carried on and decided at long range. Assaults on the front of a well-armed enemy grow rarer and rarer, because the modern rifle fire sweeps everything away that gets within a thousand yards. In the Franco-German war whole regiments perished under fire from an enemy they never saw, and with smokeless powder this result is likely to be more and more frequent. What a soldier most needs in our day, therefore, is not agility or strength of muscle, but what we may call greatness of soul, a heroic spirit, a capacity to meet death and wounds calmly, and to see them all around him without flinching. The notion that a "centre rush" or a "half-back" is any better off under such conditions than a quiet student who has drunk deep "at the fountain of heavenly radiance," is too absurd for discussion. Let any one read the account of Prince André's adventures at the battle of Borodino in Tolstoi's 'War and Peace,' and he will understand what we mean.

But even if war were now Homeric, or even Greek or Roman—that is, carried on by means of personal collision, as it was down to the invention of gunpowder—the superiority of athletes for purposes of national defence would still be open to serious question. Pugilists are notoriously, in our time, not good soldiers. We believe no officer who cared to make a figure in a campaign would like to command a regiment of them. That any set of men can occupy themselves intently and continuously with the strengthening of their muscles and the improvement of their wind, as a preparation for extraordinary physical exertion, without damage to their mental and moral parts, is a chimera, and the people who are training up our young men in this belief have a good deal to answer for. What we need in our youths is the capacity for high resolve, and noble aims, and the firm courage which does not need to be stimulated by bets or gate-money.

Are we, then, opposed to athletics? By no means. We note with regret Dr. Sargent's complaint that, while football is all the rage, but little use is made of the fine gymnasium of Harvard College. This probably means that the rest of the college takes exercise in watching the football and other teams. College students, almost to a man, are intended to follow sedentary callings. They are not meant to punt, or tackle, or buck, or close with sword and shield, but to sit in counting-rooms or studies, or plead in courts. Their training at college, therefore, should in all respects fit them for these pursuits, and daily exercise

is as necessary for the full and efficient discharge of these sedentary duties as for football, or baseball, or rowing. The men are rare indeed who can meet the demands of modern life in the pulpit, at the bar, or in the counting-room or editorial office, without a certain amount of physical exertion in the open air. Now and then there is a man who can do without this, or with very little of it, like Mr. Evarts, or Mr. Choate, or the late Mr. David Dudley Field; and such a man has a distinct advantage over his rivals in the same field. For most men, it is an absolute necessity, if they mean to do their work well, to be what the athletes call "fit," and able to stand the competition which is the law of modern life. But then the man who takes more than he needs, or who accustoms himself to conditions which are not general among his contemporaries also, weights himself in the race as much as the man who takes less than he needs. The young fellow who comes from college requiring three hours' daily exercise with dumb-bells, clubs, big stones and weights, of course, other things being equal, goes down before the young fellow who keeps in condition with an hour's walk or other exercise. If, too, he is so used to fresh air that one hour in a court-room muddles his brain or makes him feel faint, the other man who can stand three hours of it without damage has a distinct advantage over him, and will use it remorselessly.

No one can dip into the literature of football without seeing that it is treated throughout with an extravagance that borders on insanity. This is sure to pass: all crazes run their course. But it has done and is doing a great mischief in turning away the minds of the youth of the country from the value and necessity of moderate exercise. It has begot and is spreading the fallacy that if you are not a member of a team, and have no coach, it is not worth while doing anything to keep up your bodily vigor. It leads men to suppose that bodily vigor is of no great use unless you are going to play in a match, or to fetch and carry under the stern eye of a "captain." But the truth is that every lad in college is preparing for that greatest of all matches, the battle of life, in which he has to meet antagonists about whose strength and prowess he has no "tip," and who will surely "down" him unless he downs them. This is a battle, too, in which sound health and good spirits are of infinitely more importance than muscular strength, and in which ninety-nine men out of a hundred can make a respectable figure only by maintaining their physical vigor.

## *THE ENGLISH SITUATION.*

In spite of all efforts on the part of the Conservatives to prevent it, the House of Lords has become the burning question of British politics, and there has hardly ever been such a scene of confusion as the discussion of the topic presents. This is due to a variety of causes. The Liberals say that they cannot get away from it, because there is no use in sending up to the House of Lords any of their reformatory measures as long as it is constituted as at present. To this some Conservatives answer that the country is satisfied with the House of Lords as it is at present, but others admit that it stands in serious need of change, and all, or nearly all, including Lord Salisbury, are committed, by some bygone speech, article, or motion, to this view. None of them can quite deny that it is a check only on *Liberal* rashness or impetuosity, and that it could not be relied on to block revolutionary schemes if they were produced by the Tories. There are, with regard to this, two cases in point which cannot be got over. One is the extension of the suffrage in 1867. No measure ever passed by the British Parliament was as likely as this one was to break down "the ancient and happy constitution" of the kingdom. It was sent up to the House of Lords by Gladstone, and was promptly rejected. It was sent up by Disraeli soon afterwards, and was promptly passed, in pursuance of a plan of Lord Derby for "dishing the Whigs." Another was the Gladstonian bill bringing the Irish lease-holders under the operation of the land act. As Gladstone's measure it was rejected; as Balfour's it was adopted by the Peers. To the argument that this is an intolerable situation for the Liberals, the only answer is that they are such dangerous men that anything that restrains them is good enough.

But the Liberals are not agreed among themselves as to what the change in the House of Lords should be, nor are those Tories who admit that it needs change. Lord Rosebery says he is a "second-chamber man"; that is, he thinks a second chamber of some kind indispensable, but he declines to say what kind of chamber this second chamber should be. Moreover, he calls on the party to give some idea of what it wants, thus revealing a state of mind which some people think very unsuitable in a leader. Mr. Asquith, on the other hand, apparently thinks England could get along very well with one chamber if it were put under certain restraints, while Labouchere and the Radicals represented by the *Daily Chronicle* want a single chamber without any restraints.

Sir William Harcourt, in the meantime, apparently sulks in his tent. He has not opened his mouth in the discussion, and is well known to be anything but pleased with the way Lord Rosebery is carrying it on. His disgust with the arrangement by which Lord Rosebery was made Premier over his head, on Mr. Gladstone's retirement, was not concealed. He has revenged himself by securing the passage of a masterly Radical budget, which has probably done more for his party than anything which has occurred since its return to power. But, this done, he retired to the country, and waited in silence for the further results of Lord Rosebery's much speaking. These results, if he is jealous of Rosebery, must be gratifying enough. There is no doubt that the Premier is steadily losing ground with his party and the country. This is admitted on all sides. He rarely makes a speech without revealing the fact that not only has he no settled policy, but no settled convictions on any subject. In asking the constituencies incessantly for instructions on the great questions of the day, he not only reveals his defects as a leader, but presents a contrast to his predecessor which troubles everybody, and, above all, those serious Non-conformists who constitute the bone and sinew of the Liberal party.

The consequence of all this confusion of opinion is that the problem, What is to be done with the House of Lords? does not make much progress towards solution. Two bye-elections—one in England and one in Scotland—recently won by the Conservatives, give some plausibility to the Tory contention that the majority wants the House of Lords let alone. But this, when examined closely, would really mean, if it were true, that the country did not desire to see the Liberal party ever in power again, for power is of no use to it as long as the Peers can veto its bills. So it has to be admitted that something must be done with the Lords. Lord Salisbury and Mr. Balfour, and Lord Rosebery, too, all point out that nothing can be done with it without its consent, unless by means of a revolution, and the extreme Radicals answer that they are ready for as much revolution as may be necessary for this purpose.

One plan is to exclude peremptorily, by the action of the Lords themselves, all peers of bad character, and strengthen the remainder by the election of life members. Another is to extinguish the hereditary principle in three generations, and then elect the peers who are to sit by the whole body of the peers. Another is to make up that House, in half at least, of elected notables from the ranks of war, literature, science, and commerce. But there is a curious objection, even among the Liberals, to making the second chamber too strong—that is, reforming it to such an extent that it would have such a hold on the country that it could effectively resist the Commons; so that every plan of improvement has to be examined under the theory that the second chamber, however respectable, must be kept subordinate. Mr. Bryce has propounded a plan, drawn from his American experience, which has apparently some merit—namely, enabling the Commons to override the Lords' veto by a two-thirds vote. But the objection, and probably fatal objection, to this is, that neither party, in the

present condition of English politics, has, or is likely to have, a two-thirds vote in the Commons.

It would be a great mistake, however, to suppose that the discussion as carried on is simply a conflict of opposing opinions touching the best framework of government. It goes far deeper than this. In defending the Lords, the Conservatives are defending one of their outposts against the gathering forces of Radicalism, which are now attacking the old order in every department of politics. The county councils and the parish councils have dislodged the class which formerly ruled England from top to bottom, from some of the most potent seats of their influence, and the deepest uncertainty as to the effects of this change consequently pervades all classes of English society. The attack on the Lords is, therefore, looked on by the upper classes as an attempt, not to improve the machinery of legislation, but to complete that transformation of England into a pure democracy which the Radicals admit to be one of their aims.

## LAST LETTERS OF BARON RICASOLI.

ITALY, November, 1894.

THE tenth and last volume of the letters and documents of Baron Bettino Ricasoli completes this important publication, and, with the six volumes of Cavour's letters, enables the student of modern Italian history to obtain thorough insight into the views, aims, and methods of those statesmen who, accepting the idea of Italian unity, which to them up to 1859 had seemed a mere Utopia, set themselves frankly and conscientiously to ordinate and establish that unity on a solid, durable foundation. The "iron baron" was a strange contrast to Cavour, yet was the only man who at the great statesman's death in 1861 could have carried out his home, foreign, and ecclesiastical policy. But his stern, unbending nature, the antipathy entertained for him by the French Emperor, the ambition of ex- and would-be ministers, together with court intrigues, rendered his position as prime minister untenable. He had consented to the "recall of the exile" Mazzini, consulted Garibaldi on national armament, openly affirmed the right of the people to form political associations and to hold public meetings; had sanctioned the petition signed by thousands in the various provinces for the withdrawal of the French troops from Rome. These and other measures won for him the support of the liberal members of the Chamber, the hostility of the moderates; and King Victor, in a bluff letter of March, 1862, expressed his doubt that "he possessed the confidence of the true majority of the House, for which it is not sufficient that you have obtained a favorable vote from the Extreme Left."

Ricasoli resigned, and wily Rattazzi succeeded. Sarnico and Aspromonte followed. Millions were squandered, debts incurred, yet Italy remained without an army or navy; the French Emperor became the real master of Italian affairs, the September convention and the transfer of the capital to Florence completing the general confusion. In 1866 the King, accepting the Prussian alliance and declaring war against Austria, again summoned Ricasoli to his councils, and he unwillingly accepted the office of Prime Minister and Home Secretary. The war terminated in quite other fashion than Ricasoli hoped; he was indignant at the cession of Venice by Austria to France at the evacuation of the Tyrol, but remained in office, hoping, now that the French troops had quitted Rome, to bring about that reconciliation between the Church and State which could be effected only by the abolition of the temporal power. This he, even as Cavour, fondly believed could be brought about with the consent of Pius the Ninth.

The ninth volume of his letters, and now the tenth, derive their chief interest from the history given of these efforts, which, unsuccessful then, must ever remain so, because, as Sella alone among Italian statesmen perceived and affirmed, "no pope would consent to be deprived of the temporal power, and, despoiled by violence, would never forgive or accept the olive branch from his despoilers." When Leo XIII. succeeded Pio Nono, the Liberals, new to power, really believed that they would be able to inaugurate the reign of conciliation, induce the new pontiff to bless the people in St. Peter's Square, and to acknowledge Humbert King of Italy. Sixteen years of strife and bitterness have proved the fallacy of these hopes; yet Italian statesmen, even those who scoffed at them in former times, still persevere, while the Vatican, accepting all concessions, taking advantage of every lull in vigilance to get possession of public education, of the communal administrations, yields not an iota, abates nothing of its hostility, loses no opportunity of encouraging and flattering any and all Continental Powers that may have a real or fancied grievance against Italy.

These volumes bear witness to the intense efforts made by Victor Emmanuel and Ricasoli to reconcile the "perfect liberty of the Church in spiritual matters with the perfect liberty of the State in mundane matters"; their concessions to the bishops and archbishops whom they hoped to win over to their cause. Many of these who had been, by former ministers, deprived of their sees on account of their hostility to the new order of things, were recalled; and from Rome the cardinal and bishops of Benevento, of Naples, and ten other archbishops and bishops, in a long letter thanking the minister for this act of justice, affirmed that the "divine code of the Catholic hierarchy enjoined on them to take no part in any conspiracy or expedition against a constituted government, the duty of submission and obedience in all that was not contrary to the laws of God and the Church." But the liberty promised does not suffice; they ask to be freed from all supervision by the Government, from all vigilance or interference.

"Ah, may the day soon dawn when Italy shall witness the magnificent and imposing religious spectacle which now rejoices the hearts of the free citizens of the United States of America. There, in Baltimore, more than forty bishops and archbishops, with mitred abbés, minor prelates, and priests, are met in a national council, according to the laws of the Church, without the necessity of demanding the permission either of the federal authorities or of any single State. After sending greetings and homage to the Supreme Pontiff, the immortal Pius IX., wishing him long life and *the preservation of all the rights of the Holy See*, they continue their discussions with unlimited liberty, without the least reserve, without having to offer any guarantee in virtue of any federal or local law. And when the resolutions of the Council shall have received the sanction of the Pope, they will be proclaimed in every city and hamlet, and executed by the spiritual authorities without *exequatur* or *placito*. Ah, yes! this is the 'perfect liberty of the Church' which we reclaim."

Ricasoli's answer is an admirable compendium of Church history in the Old World and in the New:

"The Government would be only too happy to abandon suspicion and precaution; and if to-day it dare not yet do this, it is because the principle of liberty which it preaches and also practises is not admitted or put in practice by the clergy. The conditions of the Church in Europe and in America are totally different. In those virgin regions the Church was established in a new society, which, however, brought with it from the mother country all the elements of civil association, and represented the purest and most sacred of social elements, the religious sentiment which sanctions right and sanctifies duty, uniting human aspirations in an idea loftier than all mundane things. The only empire there sought by the Church is that most pleasing to God, the empire over souls. Brought in by liberty and flourishing under liberty's wing, the Church found all that was needful for its free development, for the calm and fruitful exercise of its ministry. There the Church has never sought to deny to others the liberty it claims for itself; never attempted to appropriate for its own exclusive benefit the institutions which protected it. In Europe, on the contrary, the Church arose on the ruins of the great empire which had subjugated every land; it was constituted amid the political and social cataclysms of the dark ages, and was compelled to create an organization sufficiently strong to save civilization from wreck; this in the midst of brute force and violence."

"But when Europe, emerged from the chaos of the Middle Ages, reëntered on the path of progress assigned to it by Providence, then the Church enjoined on all subject to her the immobility of the dogma of which she is the guardian; regarded with suspicion the development of intelligence, the multiplication of social forces; declared herself the enemy of all liberty, denying that supreme of all, the liberty of conscience. Hence the conflict between the ecclesiastical and the civil authority, because the former represented subjection and immobility; the latter, liberty and progress. This conflict, owing to peculiar conditions, assumed the most serious proportions in Italy, where the Church, deeming that, for the exercise of her spiritual ministry independently of all lay authority, a temporal dominion was necessary, here obtained and exercised temporal power. And in Italy now the Church finds itself not only in conflict with the civil authorities, but also with National Right.

"This is the origin of the distrust and precautions alluded to in my circular, and which your reverences regard as injurious, whereas they are but the result of necessity. With us, bishops cannot be regarded as merely spiritual pastors, because they are at the same time the champions and instruments of a power which is opposed to national aspirations; hence the civil authority is compelled to subject them to such measures as are necessary to preserve its rights and those of the nation."

During this his second ministry Ricasoli was heartily supported by Victor Emmanuel, who had learned to appreciate his sterling worth, his devotion to Italy and to the dynasty. When his bill for regulating the relations between Church and State and the conversion of ecclesiastical property was rejected by the Chamber of Deputies, the King wrote:

"DEAR BARON AND COUSIN: I have seen for some time past that the Chamber does not fulfil the high mission confided to it by the nation. Yesterday's vote does not surprise me, but it is my duty on this occasion to assure you how entirely I have approved and approve your conduct and that of the entire cabinet. I refuse to accept your resignation. There are means to save the nation and insure its prosperity. To-morrow we will discuss them.

"Your affectionate cousin and friend,

"VICTOR EMMANUEL."

The House was dissolved, but the electors sent back members more hostile still to the Government. No minister of finance could be

found to fill the place of Scialoja. The King writes to Ricasoli :

"I have failed ! Amari, urged, almost maltreated by me (*ragi nato, quasi assassinato da me*), refuses absolutely, and leaves it to me to inform you of his refusal. This dear Italy cost blood and sweat to make it; now it seems that the Italians are prepared to bleed and sweat to unmake it. But I swear before God that I will not be the instrument of its destruction."

It was his wish that Ricasoli should accept Rattazzi, but Ricasoli could not consent to this. Seeing that the country was on the verge of bankruptcy, he offered the King the alternative of accepting Sella for finance minister, Depretis for home minister, or the resignation of the entire cabinet. The King, in a long letter, gives his reasons for objecting to Sella's financial programme :

"I cannot belie the promises made in my last speech, which was concerted with you and the entire cabinet, and received favorably by the nation. Still less can I accept a programme which, in our present conditions, proposes to augment taxation and to introduce the tax which, rightly or wrongly, is the most odious of all [the grist tax], and would arouse such general discontent that none of us could foretell the consequences."

Hence he accepts the resignation of the entire cabinet, and summons his "fido" Rattazzi; Mentona and the second occupation of Rome by the French troops following the "letting I dare not wait upon I would" of that ill fated minister.

After this second attempt, Ricasoli declined ever afterwards to head or form part of an Italian ministry, but for some time he continued his active correspondence with the chief political men of the day, and to the last his relations with the King were cordial. Once Rome proclaimed capital of United Italy, he lent himself to the establishment of a *modus vivendi* between the Vatican and the Quirinal —as usual without success; and the law on papal guarantees embodies many of his propositions. He declined the Speakership of the House of Deputies, and refused to head the Moderate party in the House.

"I shall work with that party as far as my conscience permits, but as a private individual, a simple soldier. Certainly I shall not attempt to lead men who slip through your fingers like eels, who don't remember to-day the promises made yesterday, who chatter too much and think too little, and hence are never true or constant in any undertaking."

Consulted as to the proposed increase of the salary of civil servants, he wrote :

"The Government ought to take its stand on morality, discipline, order, economy, work ; and those in high places ought to set a practical example. Italy spends too much and spends wastefully Her servants are badly paid, I admit, but they don't even earn their scant wages The aversion to work of any kind is the pest of the present day in Italy Not only the servants of the State, but those of the provinces and the communes, do as little work as they can, and do that badly; inertia and indiscipline everywhere prevail, fruits of the low state of morality, the absence of all sense of human dignity."

Towards the end of the reign of the Moderate party his strictures on their tactics, their dissensions, their petty vanities, and miserable rivalry became more and more severe, yet he deprecated the advent of the Liberals to power. When, however, that came to pass, in 1876, Ricasoli offered no factious opposition, joined no coalition for their overthrow, and on his death in 1880 was truly mourned for in Florence; all Italy rendering homage to the integrity of his character, to his entire abnegation, his single devotion to Italy, one and free.

We have taken together the last two volumes of this valuable series of letters and documents, which refers to the years from 1866 to 1880. The editors and annotators of these ten volumes—Marco Tabarrini and Aurelio Gotti—have done their work admirably, and the preface to each volume gives an excellent summary of the events to which each series of letters refers. J. W. M.

## PRINCE EUGENE.

PARIS, December 6, 1894.

IT is a pity that an interesting and serious book should have a foolish title. Was it necessary, in order to catch the eye of the public in the bookseller's window, to give to the life of such an important personage as Prince Eugene, the stepson of Napoleon, the Viceroy of Italy, the hero of the retreat from Russia, this title: 'Une idylle sous Napoléon I.—Le Roman du Prince Eugène'? No historical work appears nowadays without a portrait. I can forgive the frontispiece portrait of Prince Eugene, wrapped up in his military cloak, and his hand on a magnificent Turkish sword, from the original painting at the Castle of Arenenberg—a fine military face, with a large forehead, thoughtful eyes, an expression of kindness and of honesty.

This book on Prince Eugene was evidently inspired by the passion which is now felt for all that relates to the First Empire. The author, M. Albert Pulitzer, tells us that in glancing accidentally over the memoirs and correspondence of Prince Eugene, published about forty years ago by A. du Casse, in ten octavo volumes, he read, with real pleasure, the letters addressed by the Prince to his wife, a royal princess of Bavaria, considered one of the prettiest persons of her time. These letters were written during the great Napoleonic era. M. Pulitzer regards them "as one of the most charming love novels of which history offers us an example." He is kind enough to give us also a portrait of the Princess, who is dressed very much in the style of the present day, since fashions are moving in a circle; and she certainly has an interesting face, though it could hardly be called handsome. The original portrait is at the royal castle of Drottningholm.

Josephine Tascher de la Pagerie, born at Martinique, was hardly fourteen years old when she was married to Viscount de Beauharnais. Her son Eugene was born September 3, 1781; he was thirteen years old when his father, after an unfortunate campaign on the Rhine, was arrested and guillotined; he was himself, according to the ideas of the period, placed as an apprentice with a cabinet-maker; his sister, Hortense, the future Queen of Holland, had to work at a dressmaker's. After the Terror, Eugene entered the Army, and when his mother married Gen. Bonaparte in 1796, he followed his father-in-law to Italy as sub-lieutenant of hussars. He became an aide-de-camp of the general; after the 18th Brumaire he became captain in the consular guard. His advancement was rapid—to colonel in 1802, brigadier in 1804, at the age of twenty-two. Bonaparte himself had been brigadier only at twenty-four.

After the proclamation of the Empire, Napoleon sent him to Italy, giving him the dignity of Archchancellor of State, and making him a Serene Highness. After having crowned himself at Milan as King of Italy on the 26th of May, 1805, Napoleon conferred on Eugene, on the 5th of June, the viceroyalty. The Viceroy was but twenty-four years old : he was Napoleon's favorite:

"Brought up," Napoleon wrote to the Senate, "by our care and under our eyes since his infancy, he has become worthy of imitating and, with the help of God, of surpassing some day the examples and the lessons which we have given him. Though still young, we consider him, from the experience we have had of him on the most important occasions, one of the pillars of our throne and one of the most capable defenders of the country. In the midst of the cares and bitterness inseparable from the high rank in which we are placed, our heart needs to find mild affections in the tenderness and the constant friendship of this child of our adoption."

During the campaign of 1805 against Austria, Eugene rendered great service to Napoleon; he organized and increased considerably the Italian army. It was not easy always to please Napoleon, who would have his authority felt in the most minute details—so much so that Duroc could write to Eugene: "To speak of the smallest thing: if you ask his Majesty for his order or advice to change the ceiling of your room, you must wait for it; and, if Milan were burning and you asked him for means to extinguish the fire, you must let it burn and wait for your orders." Was this irony or susceptibility? We find the same note in all the correspondence of Napoleon with his brothers; but his brothers were unruly, while Eugene was thoroughly disciplined and anxious to do his duty.

The treaty of Presburg had changed the Electorate of Bavaria into a kingdom and allotted Tyrol to Bavaria. Napoleon, stopping for a few days at Munich with Maximilian Joseph, whom he had just made King, asked for the hand of the Princess Augusta of Bavaria for Prince Eugene. The Princess was engaged to her cousin, Charles of Baden—but could anything be refused to the hero of Marengo and Austerlitz? Princess Augusta had to submit to the will of her father. Eugene was at Milan and ignorant of what was going on at Munich. He received this letter from Napoleon: "My Cousin: I have arrived at Munich. I have arranged your marriage with the Princess Augusta; it has been made public. This morning the Princess paid me a visit, and I have had a long conversation with her. She is very pretty. You will find with this message her portrait, on a cup, but she is much better-looking." Three days afterwards he received the order to come at once to Munich. The marriage was celebrated with great pomp on the 14th of January, 1806; forty-eight hours after the marriage Napoleon recognized Eugene as his adopted son, and gave him the name of Eugène Napoléon de France. He ceased from this moment to address him as "mon cousin," and addressed him as "mon fils."

The Princess Augusta, though she became a bride by necessity, was not long in recognizing the sterling qualities of her husband. Eugene soon felt, himself, a strong affection for his wife, who deserved it in every respect. He fulfilled his duties of Viceroy with much intelligence and won the affection of the Italians. He could take no part in the campaign which brought Napoleon to Berlin. Napoleon wrote to him, on this occasion, this laconic despatch: "My Son : The army of the King of Prussia exists no longer. All there was of it at Jena (160,000 men) has been killed, wounded, or taken prisoner ; not a man has crossed the Oder. I am master of Spandau, of Stettin. My troops are on the confines of Poland. The King of Prussia has crossed the Vistula : he has not 10,000 men left. I am rather pleased with the inhabitants of Berlin."

Eugene had his part to play in the campaign of 1809. The Italian army was mobilized and entered Hungary, and Eugene won a victory at Raab. When the peace was signed, he was occupied in pacifying Tyrol. He showed much humanity in this difficult task, and, admiring the courage of Andreas Hofer, he was desirous to save his life, when he received this order from Napoleon: "My Son: I asked you to send Hofer to Paris; but, since he is in Mantua, give orders to form at once a military commission to try him and to have him shot where he is. Let all this be the affair of twenty-four hours."

The divorce of Napoleon and Josephine was a great trial for Eugene, fond as he was of his mother and devoted at the same time to his stepfather. The incidents attending this event are well known. Napoleon summoned Eugene to Paris, and explained to him the reasons which had induced him to separate himself from a wife who could give him no heir. Eugene saw at once that a prompt solution was necessary; he offered to give up the viceroyalty of Italy and to remain with Josephine—to follow her, if necessary, to Martinique. The great sacrifice was consummated in the great cabinet of the Tuileries: Josephine gave her consent to the divorce in the presence of Napoleon, of King Louis, of King Jerome, of King Murat, of the Queens of Spain, Naples, Holland, Westphalia, of Napoleon's mother, of his sister Pauline, and of Prince Eugene. After an absence of two months, Eugene returned to Milan; he was hardly arrived when Napoleon wrote to him that he was going to marry the Archduchess Maria Louisa, and ordered him to return for the ceremonies of the betrothal and marriage.

He left for Paris with his wife, and while he was there the throne of Sweden was offered to him; he refused it, and it fell to the lot of Marshal Bernadotte. There was some question, also, of offering to Eugene the throne of a reconstituted Poland, but Eugene was determined to refuse it if it was offered. The great campaign against Russia was already in preparation. At the beginning of 1812, Eugene received in the Grand Army the command of the fourth corps, composed of Italians, and of the sixth corps, composed of Bavarians, 80,000 men in all. He left Italy on the 16th of February, and crossed the Brenner. Some people thought that the reason of a new war was the desire of Napoleon to punish the Russians by the reëstablishment of Poland, which would be given to Eugene. In a letter addressed to La Valette, his friend, Eugene says: "My fate is decided. I have a splendid command. . . . One thing does not make me laugh: it is the idea that my humble person should be destined to Poland. This rumor has been spread and it pains me. . . . I have no ambition for a throne." Eugene's conduct during the campaign in Russia was above all praise; he showed the highest military capacity, and a fortitude in the fatal retreat which was truly heroic. He wrote almost every day a few lines to his wife, always trying to reassure her and to give her as little anxiety as possible. The series of these short letters is a graphic and realistic history of this terrible campaign, which was fought against the elements as much as against man.

Eugene played a very important part in the famous battle of the Moskva; he took and held Borodino the whole day. He stormed the famous redoubt where so many men found their death. What simplicity in this letter, written after the battle, on the battle-field, on the 8th of September, 1812: "Two words only, my dearest Augusta, to say all is well with me. We had yesterday a great battle, very hot, and glorious for the Emperor. I commanded our left, and we did our duty." From Moscow, after the great fire, he writes on the 1st of October: "There is some thought now of spending the winter here. . . . The Emperor has sent to Paris for actors, and has asked me to get singers from Milan." The Emperor feigned not long to prepare winter quarters in Moscow; he still hoped to procure terms of peace from Alexander. When all hope of peace was given up, he thought of leading his army to St. Petersburg; but the opposition of the marshals was such that he resolved finally and very reluctantly to retreat.

What this retreat was has been often told. Eugene had for his part a brilliant combat at Malo-Yaroslavetz; with 20,000 men he fought successfully against 80,000. He had to fight again at Krasnoi; he was at the rear with Ney, and found himself so long separated from him that he thought for a moment that Ney was lost. "The danger was immense," writes Constant in his memoirs; "the guns of Prince Eugene gave a signal understood by the marshal, who answered with *feux de peloton*. The two corps met. Marshal Ney and Prince Eugene threw themselves in each other's arms; the latter wept with joy. Then came the battle and the terrible crossing of the Beresina. The remains of what was the Grand Army arrived on the 5th of December at Smorgoni. Napoleon assembled all his chiefs of corps and announced his immediate departure for Paris; he had to cross the whole of Germany and to organize new armies in France. He left the supreme command to King Murat. Prince Eugene had great repugnance to being under Murat's orders, but he submitted and did his duty to the last. Murat announced suddenly to Eugene on the 17th of January that he was to set off at once for Naples, leaving the army under his orders. Eugene took command on condition that the Emperor should confirm him in it. Napoleon wrote to him: "I view with pleasure the command of the army in your hands. I find the conduct of the King very extravagant, and such that I could almost have him arrested as an example. He is a good man on the battle-field, but he is wanting in moral courage."

# Correspondence.

## THE SAUPPE COLLECTION AT BRYN MAWR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your readers will remember a letter of October 23, 1893, drawing attention to the fact that the philological library of the late Prof. Hermann Sauppe of Göttingen was for sale. Through the munificence of Miss Mary E. Garrett of Baltimore this library was purchased for Bryn Mawr College, and thus another of the collections of great German scholars has found its way to this side of the Atlantic, in all respects equal, in many points superior, to most of its predecessors. I have thought that it might be of interest to scholars and colleges in the United States to know in what lines this library is especially strong.

The private catalogue, in Prof. Sauppe's own handwriting, includes between 8,000 and 9,000 numbers. To these must be added a large collection of unbound books, periodicals, and pamphlets, and upwards of 7,000 dissertations, which had been accumulating under his hands for nearly fifty years. More than two-thirds of the books, and almost all the dissertations, are in the field of Classical Philology and related subjects; the remaining books have to do with modern literature, especially German, and with history.

The cataloguing of this large collection cannot be completed for some time, but it has proceeded far enough to enable us to get some idea of the range of the library. It is especially rich in earlier editions of the classical authors, some from the fifteenth, a large number from the sixteenth century—works invaluable to the student of the historical development of philological research or to the patient investigator in textual criticism. There is a good collection of Alduses and Elzevirs, and all the other well-known presses of the period are well represented. In such an abundance it is not easy to specify, but reference may be made to the Mainz edition of Livy, the Froben edition of Tacitus, the Cruquius edition of Horace, the Basel editions of Thucydides, Herodotus, Isocrates, Plato, and Plutarch, and many others, in addition to the gem of the collection, the Hermolaus edition of Plautus, which is supposed to exist in but four copies. In the authors to which Prof. Sauppe devoted especial attention, such as Plautus, Horace, Tacitus, Homer, Plato, and the Orators, particularly Demosthenes, the library is very complete.

Prof. Sauppe was about the last representative of the encyclopædic school of classical philology. His interest extended to all subjects, and his lectures covered a wide field. Thus, in addition to his studies in the particular authors mentioned, he gave considerable attention to the history of philology, to hermeneutics and criticism, to archæology, and to inscriptions. All these subjects are well represented in his library, and in inscriptions it is especially full. Among many important works may be mentioned the complete Ἐφημερὶς ἀρχαιολογικὴ at present so difficult to obtain, the last missing numbers of which Prof. Sauppe is said to have discovered in a journey through Greece.

Students of German literature will be interested in the Goethe collection. Prof. Sauppe was director of the gymnasium at Weimar in his earlier years, and lived in friendly association with the family of the Duke of Weimar, with Goethe's grandsons, and with such men as Koehler, Schoell, Liszt, Hirzel. It was during this period that the greater part of the Goethe collection was brought together. It consists of several hundred volumes, including first or early editions of many of Goethe's works, most of the collections of his correspondence, and many books and pamphlets concerning his life and works, some of them very rare. Closely allied are a number of books either by or on Goethe's contemporaries, such as Herder and Schiller.—Respectfully yours,

Gonzalez Lodge.

Bryn Mawr College, December 4, 1894.

## FEDERAL AND CONFEDERATE FORCES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your issue of November 15 contains a criticism of my Life of General Lee. Without going into the question of General Lee's opinion on the question of secession, except to say that if he thought secession was treason and secessionists traitors, he would never have been found fighting on the Southern side during the war, I want to say that when your critic says that the Southern army at Sharpsburg was nearly 60,000 and at Gettysburg nearly 80,000, he is giving his figures in the

face of the official reports of army commanders, whose reports in turn are made up from those of their subordinates. For instance, you will find that General Lee's report of his battle at Sharpsburg says that he had less than 40,000 men present. (See ser. 1st, vol. 19, part 1, page 151, War Records.) General Lee told me that he fought the battle with 35,000 men. There can be nothing doubtful about his statements.—Very truly yours,

FITZHUGH LEE.

GLASGOW, VA., December 7, 1894.

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[We regret that we cannot print at full length the computation accompanying the above letter submitted for our private convincement. We shall cite from it candidly in what we have to say, and our readers will at least get a glimpse of the difference in the two methods of reckoning the strength of hostile armies in the civil war.

The Confederate report of September 22, 1862, so close after the battle of the 16th and 17th, is found in the 'Official Records,' vol. xix., pt. 2, p. 621, and the tabulation is there given by divisions. A note on the *original return* is there copied in these words, viz.: "This return is very imperfect, the cavalry and reserve artillery not being reported." This sends us to the nearest official return of the cavalry and reserve artillery, the former of which we find on page 660, the latter on page 639, of the same volume. These are the official statistical returns made by the commanders thrice a month to the adjutant-general at Richmond. They are supported by the detailed reports downward to companies, though condensed by divisions in the tables quoted. They are the *only* reports made officially *as statistics* at the time. The killed and wounded are found in the report of the medical director of Lee's army on pp. 810-813 of 'Official Records,' xix., part 1. The missing have to be collected from the numerous division and brigade reports, and these are found conveniently analyzed and tabulated in 'Battles and Leaders of the Civil War,' ii., 603. The missing numbered 2,304. Our only reconstruction of tables is to bring these official statistics together.

What, then, is the character of the material by which Gen. Fitzhugh Lee seeks to contradict these formal and official statistics? We are obliged to repeat that an examination shows that they are the "vague estimates" which they are called in the review.

Let us illustrate by an example or two. Gen. D. H. Hill's division is given by Gen. Fitzhugh Lee as numbering 3,000, and page 1022 of the first part of the nineteenth volume is referred to. Turning to it, we find that it is Gen. Hill's report of his part in the battle, full of extravagances. He says on page 1026 that "the battle [Antietam] was fought with less than 30,000 men." Is this official? Quite as much so as some of the other figures. He says on p. 1022, "My ranks had been diminished by some additional straggling, and on the morning of the 17th I had but 3,000 infantry." These are the figures which Gen. Fitzhugh Lee uses in preference to Hill's own official statistical report to the adjutant-general made four days after the battle. The round numbers show that it does not pretend to accuracy. Let us test it a little. On p. 1026 he appends a detailed list of his casualties, including South Mountain, and they amount to 3,241, or 241 more than his whole division at the beginning of the battle of Antietam! His statistical return to the adjutant-general on September 22 reported 5,071 as the effective force of officers and men then present for duty—a quick resurrection of the annihilated division! It is not pretended that he had received any reinforcements. His killed and wounded he reported at 2,316, and, adding these to the number present after the battle, it is proved that he had at least 7,387 on the 13th of September, leaving out his "missing" and treating all of them as stragglers. The corrected returns of the medical director make an even stronger showing to the same effect.

But this is not all. Gen. R. H. Anderson's division reported to Hill during the battle, and the latter says (p. 1023) that Anderson had "3,000 or 4,000 men." Gen. Fitzhugh Lee therefore puts Anderson down at 3,500, splitting the difference, and taking Hill's "vague estimate." This he calls an official report of numbers, in preference to accepting Anderson's own statistical report to the adjutant-general of September 22, which was that which we used, and which returns the effective force of officers and men present for duty in his division at 5,324 after the battle! The killed and wounded were 1,021, and the true number at the beginning was therefore 6,345, not counting the missing.

Another example taken at random is of the "Stonewall" division, Jackson's own. J. R. Jones, in command of it, says (p. 1008 of volume last quoted) that, "not numbering over 1,600 men at the beginning of the fight," it was obliged to fall back; and these round numbers Gen. Fitzhugh Lee gives as "official" in preference to the statistical report of the division to the adjutant-general just after the battle, in which the figures are 2,553 effective officers and men. Jones says of his losses (*ibid.*) that they amounted "to about 700 killed and wounded." He says nothing of any missing. Add the 700 to the 2,553 remaining after the battle, and we have at its beginning 3,253 instead of 1,600, or more than twice as many! If we had space, we could continue this comparison to any extent.

Gen. Fitzhugh Lee must pardon us for saying that these examples of the way in which he made up his figures are exactly what we had in mind when criticising his book, and that his tables and references demonstrate the truth of the criticism. But he says Gen. R. E. Lee told him in conversation that he fought the battle with 35,000 men, and "there can be nothing doubtful about his statements." The answer is that Gen. R. E. Lee told the adjutant-general at Richmond in his formal, written, statistical returns, made upon his honor as an officer and for the exact purpose of having "official" figures, what we have given above.

There was a great deal of vague talk and apologetic reporting on both sides; but everybody who knows anything of the army methods knows that it is to confess one's case away when, on a question of figures, a disputant "fights shy" of the adjutant-general's tri-monthly returns. He puts himself in the place of the Western man who claimed that his booming town had 50,000 inhabitants, "reckoned any way you please but by a square count."

Stragglers are not reported on either side, and the absent make no part of any official tables of the present. Commanders are held responsible for the numbers shown "present for duty," and straggling is only one form of running away. But the thing becomes ridiculous when, in estimating opposing forces, we are told that half of one army is to be omitted on the plea that the men straggled, but none of their opponents.

We have to add that, as the battles of South Mountain and Antietam occurred with only two days between, the reports are not always distinct as to the casualties in each, and we are forced to use the aggregate. This is why we speak of the two engagements together and make our dates of comparison the 13th and 22d of September.

As our statement that Lee had at Gettysburg nearly 80,000 men has also been challenged, we will add a briefer synopsis of the authority for it, premising only that it is supported quite as conclusively as the other. An abstract of the forces engaged at Gettysburg was carefully prepared by Col. Robert Scott, head of the bureau of archives at Washington, for 'Battles and Leaders of the Civil War,' and will be found in vol. iii., p. 440, of that book. Further investigation shows that some of Lee's forces were still omitted, and that the total was about 3,000 larger than the figures which we give. The same, except the "net gain by reinforcements," will be found in Lee's official returns for May (the nearest return preserved), 'Official Records,' xxv., part 2, pp. 845, 846. We take our figures from the last-named original authority, and Lee's effective force is thus shown to be as follows, viz:

| | |
|---|---|
| Lee and staff | 17 |
| Longstreet's corps | 29,171 |
| A. P. Hill's corps | 30,277 |
| Cavalry | 10,292 |
| Artillery (Alexander's and Garnett's battalions omitted) | 4,702 |
| Artillery, above two battalions | 800 |
| Net gain by reinforcements | 2,250 |
| | 77,509 |

—ED. NATION.]

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## THE GREEK OF IT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The letter in your last issue which gives the percentage of Spartan over Athenian victors in the Olympian games suggests an interesting comparison. In a lecture on Yale

football given here this week, the speaker mentioned the advice given by alumni and coaches to the Yale team before a game with Harvard—"Die in your tracks, but win the game." This brings a reminiscence of the maternal Spartan and the shield. Such training may well produce good soldiers.

Considering Harvard's roll of poets, philosophers, scholars, and men of affairs, may not her culture be deemed more typically Athenian than Spartan? In following out this comparison, a perusal of the college magazines of each institution is of interest in showing difference of attitude and ideal.

Very respectfully, M.

POUGHKEEPSIE, December 11, 1894.

## BURNING FROUDE'S 'NEMESIS OF FAITH.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The following contemporary account of what occurred at Oxford is from the *Prospective Review*, vol. v., p. 163 (1849), a review edited by such careful and responsible men as the Rev. James Martineau, Rev. J. J. Tayler, and the Rev. Dr. Wicksteed:

"Our readers probably know, yet it may not be amiss here to put on record, the reception given to the 'Nemesis of Faith' at Oxford. The Head and Fellows of Exeter College, regarding the offence committed by Mr. Froude, in publishing it, to justify and call for an extreme stretch of power on their part, threatened him with absolute and public expulsion if he did not voluntarily resign his Fellowship before the evening closed. In what way the threat operated we are not competent to explain; but it is certain that in consequence he did resign. His book was solemnly committed to the flames in the Public Hall of the College by the hand of the Senior Tutor, who, if we are rightly informed, made a funeral speech over it." MONCURE D. CONWAY.

## SPINSTER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In looking over old deeds I have found the word *spinster* used with a meaning unknown to me. I first found it designating an unmarried widow, then describing a wife, as in the following instances:

James and Abigail Verry of Norton, deed land, March 10, 1800, to Elizabeth Wiswall, *wife of Elijah*, of Norton, *Spinster*. (*Bristol County, Mass., Deeds.*)

Asa Hodges, yeoman, and Priscilla Hodges [*his wife*], *Spinster*, deed land, in Douglass, Feb. 9, 1785. (*Worcester County, Mass., Deeds.*)

Can you enlighten me as to the use and meaning of the word? If a survival of the original meaning, was this common in New England in the last century and the beginning of this century? A. D. H., JR.

# Notes.

MR. JOHN T. MORSE, JR., has been engaged to prepare the authorized Life and Letters of the late Dr. O. W. Holmes.

A new and revised edition of Mr. Austin Dobson's complete poems, from new plates, is announced by Dodd, Mead & Co. It will be adorned by a portrait of the poet etched from life by Mr. William Strang, one of the boldest of contemporary British etchers. This edition will also contain seven etchings by M. Adolphe Lalauze, suggested by the Oriental and Gallic verses of the British poet, and avoiding such of Mr. Dobson's poems as Mr. Thomson and Mr. Partridge have already illustrated. The same firm have in hand 'Thomas Hardy,' the initial volume of a new series of "Contemporary Writers," edited by Dr. W. Robertson Nicoll, the author in the present instance being Mrs. Annie Macdonell; 'Corrected Impressions,' by George Saintsbury; 'The Women of the United States,' from the French of C. de Varigny; an illustrated work on China by the Hon. Chester Holcombe, an official resident of that country for seventeen years; and a series of handbooks on athletics.

Additional announcements from Macmillan & Co. are: 'The Principles of Sociology,' by Prof. Franklin H. Giddings of Columbia College; a work for secondary schools on the English Language, by Prof. Oliver F. Emerson of Cornell; 'The Confession of Faith of a Man of Science,' by Dr. Ernst Haeckel; 'Life at the Zoo,' by C. J. Cornish; a "Social England" series, edited by Kenelm D. Cotes, M.A., Oxon.; a 'Local History of Phrygia,' by Prof. W. B. Ramsay, vol. i. relating to the Lycos Valley and the extreme southwestern parts of the country; and new editions of Kidd's 'Social Evolution,' Stephen's 'Digest of the Criminal Law,' and Sylvanus Thompson's 'Electricity and Magnetism.'

Dr. Daniel G. Brinton, professor of American archæology in the University of Pennsylvania, has in press a 'Primer of Mayan Hieroglyphics,' in which he endeavors to interpret the mysterious writing on the monuments of Central America. Ginn & Co. will be the publishers.

An 'Inductive Course in Physics for Grammar Schools,' by F. H. Bailey, is to be issued by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

Messrs. Keppler & Schwarzmann will publish immediately Mr. H. C. Bunner's new volume of very short stories, entitled 'More Short Sixes,' illustrated by C. J. Taylor.

Mr. William Archer has nearly finished the English translation of Ibsen's new play, and it will be published in England by Mr. Heinemann and in America by Stone & Kimball simultaneously with the appearance of the Scandinavian original.

Mr. George A. Aitken, whose standard Lives of Steele and Arbuthnot have brought him reputation early in life, is now preparing for Dent, London, an edition of Defoe's works of fiction. It is to be in 16 dainty volumes, similar to Dent's edition of Miss Austen's works. It may have been observed that Mr. Wright, the biographer of Cowper, has dedicated his recently published Life of Defoe to Mr. Aitken.

The first volume of Mr. Vere L. Oliver's 'Genealogical History of the Island of Antigua,' West Indies, has been completed, and will shortly be issued to subscribers. The second volume will contain a continuation of the pedigrees, together with a large quantity of miscellaneous records of the Leeward Islands. A correspondent informs us that Mr. Oliver, who is a gentleman of fortune living at Sunninghill, Berkshire, England, is anxious to start a *West-Indian Notes and Queries*, to be published quarterly at cost price. Mr. Oliver thinks copies of the parish registers and an index of land-patents should be included in the matter to be published in the periodical. American sympathizers with the undertaking should communicate personally with Mr. Oliver at Whitmore Lodge, as above. Miss Cassin, a lady of St. John's, Antigua, has issued a prospectus, by the way, for a monthly magazine to be edited by her. It is to be called *The Carib*, and is to treat of matters West-Indian, historical and otherwise.

Among books of reference certainly, and doubtless among parlor gift-books, the two folio volumes of Mr. Hubert Howe Bancroft's 'Book of the Fair' (Chicago: The Bancroft Co.) have strong claims to a place. It ranges, in its account of the Columbian Exposition of 1893, from previous world's fairs to the Midwinter California Exposition. We are shown pictorially the great buildings in process of erection, and their ruins after fire has begun its devastation of them. The naval review in New York is fitly embraced in the list of ceremonial observances connected with the continental celebration. The auxiliary congresses are also taken note of. It would be idle to criticise the text for accuracy or fulness, since only a part could be told, and errors there must be in the most summary record of this nature. Yet no person ever saw all that is here depicted. The typography is excellent, and the vast array of illustrations well chosen where choice was free—as in all the external aspects of the Fair. The treatment is systematic and orderly, and there is an index sufficient for its purpose. We should have liked to see the names of the architects mentioned in immediate connection with their creations, and more information than the name might regularly have been affixed to the numerous portraits.

The Joseph Knight Co., Boston, have contrived some "World Classics" in pocket form and dainty attire—the two before us both Frenchy and from the French, both smoothly translated and prettily illustrated. One is Daudet's 'L'Arlésienne,' the other the Goncourts' 'Armande.' In each case there is an agreeable biographical introduction. The same house sends us 'Pipe and Pouch: The Smoker's Own Book of Poetry,' compiled with discrimination by Joseph Knight. Poetesses are not wanting from the list, in which Lowell's humor and sentiment are conspicuous.

The attractive reprints of standard verse this season are noteworthy. We can but mention them, and first, in the "Elizabethan Library," "'The Poet of Poets": the Love-Verse from the Minor Poems of Edmund Spenser,' edited by A. B. Grosart (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.). This old-fashioned little volume draws upon "The Shepherd's Calendar," the "Hymns of Love and Beauty," "Colin Clout," "Epithalamion" and "Prothalamion," and the "Amoretti," each set with its prefatory account by Dr. Grosart, besides annotations. The same library, editor, and publishers bring about 'Green Pastures,' a punning title for choice extracts from the works of Robert Greene, not wholly metrical in this case, but pastoral enough. Two stouter volumes embody the 'Poems of William Drummond of Hawthornden,' edited by Wm. C. Ward (London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: Scribners). The introductory memoir, which closes with a bibliography of Drummond, fills 125 pages. It is based on Masson's Life, to which it adds an item or two; and the notes exemplify more closely than has ever been done before Drummond's indebtedness to other poets, especially the Italian—Petrarch, Guarini, Marino above all. Lastly we enumerate 'The Lyric Poems of Edmund Spenser,' in the Dent-Macmillan series called "The Lyric Poets," and 'The Prelude to Poetry: the English Poets in the Defence and Praise of their own Art,' in "The Lyrical Poets" (an accidental distinction, maybe, of Lyric and Lyrical in the bastard titles). These are admirable specimens of book-making, save for the fine if clear print, and are edited by Ernest Rhys. The former, of course,

overlaps Mr. Grosart's selections, and Spenser reappears among the "defenders" in 'The Prelude,' which is, however, mostly in prose, taken from Sir Philip Sidney, Ben Jonson, Dryden, Wordsworth, Coleridge, Shelley, and Landor—ask no more!

Mr. Aldrich's 'Story of a Bad Boy' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) has been advanced to a showy edition illustrated by A. B. Frost. The author himself supplies a preface, and justifies his reluctance to engage in that sort of undertaking, for his humor is not at ease. All Mr. Frost's designs exhibit his cleverness and raciness, and "A Rainy Afternoon in the Garret" is a charming composition. The combination of wash and pen-and-ink drawing, however, is always risky, and is here out of key with the typographical elegance aimed at.

Joyce's 'Old Celtic Romances' (London: Nutt) is called on the title-page a "Second edition, revised and enlarged." The enlargement consists in the insertion of the "Voyage of the Sons of O'Corra." In all other respects the volume is a reprint of the first edition of 1879. Even the original preface is retained verbatim, with its now incongruous statement that the editor is *holding back* the O'Corra story; and the names occurring in this story have not been incorporated in the alphabetical list of proper names for the volume in general. Having left his notes unchanged, Joyce shows that he has not turned to account the work of the last fifteen years in Irish mythology.

'The Celtic Twilight,' by W. B. Yeats (Macmillan), is a dainty little volume of short pieces, all readable, and some quite attractive with their fine Irish flavor. In substance, most of them, but not all, border upon or set foot within the land of ghosts and fairies. The writer has a vivacious, clear-cut manner of narrating and moralizing; and, like the prudent householder, he brings out of his store things new and old. Most to our liking are "The Last Gleeman," "The Man and his Boots," "The Thick Skull of the Fortunate," and "The Religion of a Sailor." The humor of these is Irish to the core. As a whole, the booklet is of a kind that one can pick up at any time and read at random. But why is *shee*, 'hill-people,' 'fairies,' spelled *she* (p. 119)?

Mr. W. E. Henley and Mr. Charles Whibley have compiled 'A Book of English Prose, Character and Incident, 1387-1649'—as the somewhat inarticulate title runs—which is worthy of hearty commendation. The selections are made with taste, and are, without exception, worth reading, though many of them are from writers little known except to students. They are nearly all remarkably spirited, and will tempt many to accept the too sweeping generalization of the preface, that "the level of prose our distant fathers held is far higher than our own." The book is well printed and inexpensive. The more widely it circulates, the better, for it is old-fashionedly sound and wholesome, and therefore, if for no other reason, timely beyond all account. The publishers are J. B. Lippincott Co.

It is a pity that we must have a confusion of titles for translated novels. We had got used to 'Lisa' in Mr. Ralston's version of 'A Nest of Nobles,' and now Mrs. Constance Garnett presents us with 'A House of Gentlefolk,' being the second volume in her series of reproductions of Turgeneff's novels (Macmillan). "Stepniak" again prefaces the translation with a critical summary of this sad but ever beautiful story.

Mr. W. H. Frost evidently believes that the coming generation will be more Wagnerian than the present, and he has found a means of initiating it into the Nibelung myths at an early age. The 'Wagner Story-Book' (Scribners) contains the plots of ten of Wagner's operas and music dramas told in a chatty style suitable for young readers. The omission of the names of the characters seems injudicious, especially in the case of such famous legends as those of Siegfried and Lohengrin; but otherwise Mr. Frost's book may be commended. The illustrations do not call for special praise.

'The Child-Life and Girlhood of Remarkable Women,' by W. H. Davenport Adams (New York: Dutton & Co.), is a book which parents may safely put in the hands of their daughters provided they will first cut out the illustrations, which belong to the very worst period of coarse wood-engraving; and provided also that they do not object to the low level of style which marks the professional manufacturer of many books. With this drawback, the accounts are full of interest, contain frequently copious extracts from the recollections of girlhood of the remarkable women depicted, and may well inspire young girls to unselfish ways of living. The book is a reprint, without change, apparently, from the edition of 1883, though that fact is not mentioned.

Skeffington & Son, London, have published "A Digest" of the Rev. Bainbridge Smith's 'English Orders, Whence Obtained,' a notice of which appeared in the *Nation* of the 6th of September last. In its new shilling shape, Mr. Smith's treatise will be brought within the reach of those of the Anglican clergy who are not "passing rich."

Enthusiastic admiration for a gifted friend has directed the pen of M. de Heussey in his sketchy 'Villiers de l'Isle Adam, his Life and Works.' The book, which has been very well translated into English by Lady Mary Loyd and published in admirable fashion by Dodd, Mead & Co., is decidedly thin in texture and weak in critical appreciation. It is practically a laudation of Villiers de l'Isle Adam, undoubtedly a talented but somewhat erratic writer, and an arraigning of the cold and unappreciative world which failed to crown with highest honors a writer who failed, in his turn, to seize and hold the attention of the public Villiers de l'Isle Adam wrote some beautiful verse—some passages of which are paraphrased with such freedom as to lose the meaning of the original—and some powerful tales, but he does not quite occupy the very high place assigned to him by his excited biographer and the no less laudatory translator.

'Contes tout simples' is the title given by Coppée to his latest volume (Paris: Lemerre; New York: Meyer Frères & Cie.), which appears in the dainty dress of the "Collection Lemerre illustrée." The stories are short, they are simple, and they are dramatic, most of them. All of them have just such a touch of seriousness as marks Maupassant's best work, and there are turns that remind one of that writer. Coppée has "scored" with this little volume.

*Le Rire*, the new French comic paper, has reached its third number without showing any qualities that should seem to promise longevity. The first two numbers were simply hopeless, in spite of a drawing of Forain's and of a mildly amusing skit at Puvis de Chavannes. The third is a shade better, with some political caricatures over which one may permit one's self to smile, but which, after all, are more curious than they are funny.

*La Quinzaine* is a new bi-monthly review, of the size and general look of the *Revue de Paris*. It covers also much the same ground, taking art, literature, philosophy, and history as chief parts of its province, but differing from its contemporary in making much of religion and little of politics. Its position is that of a moderate and intelligent Catholicism. As collaborators its list shows five Academicians, MM. Émile Ollivier, F. Coppée, H. de Bonnier, J. M. de Hérédia, and Paul Bourget, and some fifty other names, all respectable, and one—Mistral's—which is illustrious. We will not criticise a first number. The one in hand contains unpublished letters of Barbey d'Aurevilly and Maurice de Guérin; an article on the late Père Gratry, which leaves unmentioned the only episode in that good man's life that drew on him the eyes of the world; an article—"Chez John Bull"—which contains some quite new misinformation about America; a curious and interesting sketch of the religious side of Thiers; and some fiction and conversation and verse. One of the bits of verse is by M. Paul Bourget: it may be read, or skipped. The departments conducted by the regular staff are, on the whole, good.

Those in search of a French magazine approximating the English or American pattern will do well to look at *Le Monde Moderne*, an illustrated monthly (Paris: A. Quantin; New York: Westermann; International News Co.) which bears January, 1895, on the face of its first number. Its great variety of departments embraces sport, fashions, music, book-reviews, minor inventions; there are articles on Verdi's "Falstaff" and "Othello," on Sarah Bernhardt, on the contest for Lake Tchad, on photography in colors, on the excavations at Dashur in the Libyan desert, etc., etc.

The *Bulletin de la Société de Géographie* contains an account of the adventures of a young Frenchman in Morocco which reads more like romance than reality. Gabriel Delbrel, a lad of eighteen years, left France in September, 1890, for Algeria. In a few months he seems to have acquired the Moorish language sufficiently to cross the frontier, costumed as a native, but without concealing his nationality or his religion. This proving too dangerous, he afterwards passed as a Turkish Mussulman. He went to Fez as one of the followers of a Berber kaid, and even accompanied him into the presence of the Sultan when he paid his tribute. Later he was arrested by the oldest son of the Sultan, Muley Omar, of whom Mr. Walter B. Harris gives such an unfavorable account in his article in *Blackwood* on the accession of the new Sultan. He succeeded in making his escape, and, joining his Berber friends, went with them to the oasis of Tafilelt, where the imperial army was encamped. Here again he was recognized and brought before the Sultan, but was taken under the protection of Muley Abdul Aziz, his Majesty's favorite son and the present Sultan, whose interest in him arose from the fact that Muley Omar had told him of the Frenchman's drawings. A warm friendship seems to have sprung up between the two young men, and M. Delbrel taught the prince to draw. He accompanied the army to Morocco, but, soon after his arrival in that city, managed to escape to the coast, reaching Marseilles in January of this year.

What was once the "Office for the Examination of Barbarian Books" in Yedo has become the Imperial University of Japan, whose Calendar for 1893–'94 is now before us. Mr. Arato Hamao, LL.D., who has been for more than twenty years connected with the institution, is still the untiring President. The various colleges now associated in one organization

are those of law, medicine, engineering, literature, science, and agriculture. The steady growth of the great university is shown not only in the historical résumé, the lists of subjects taught, the faculties, museums, libraries, and collections of apparatus, but in the long and suggestive list of scientific publications. Something is lacking, however, in the department of literature, for Prof. Chamberlain's monograph still stands alone. In the grand total of undergraduates we find 1,397. Of professors, winners of degrees, and graduates there have been 1,961, of whom 129 are deceased. A neat map of the "Compound" also accompanies this suggestive pamphlet.

A fund is being raised to purchase Carlyle's house at Chelsea and make of it a personal museum. The house is untenanted and in a run-down condition, and $20,000 is the estimated amount necessary to buy and maintain it. Earl Rosebery heads the committee. Subscriptions should be addressed to Mr. A. C. Miller, 61 Cecil Street, Manchester, England.

—Dr. Holmes is triply commemorated in the *Harvard Graduate's Magazine* for December —by two of his classmates, in a poem and in an account of his assiduous attendance at and literary participation in the class meetings; and by Dr. D. W. Cheever, a former assistant in the Harvard Medical School, who with much charm and feeling tells of Oliver Wendell Holmes the Anatomist. The late Prof. Josiah Parsons Cooke has a proper tribute paid to his worth as a man and benefactor of the college, and his distinction as an investigator in chemistry. Excellent portraits accompany both these obituary notices. Prof. de Sumichrast makes a very impressive showing of the machinery now established at Harvard for securing a friendly adviser among the Faculty for every student willing to avail himself of it. It lacks, to our mind, but one feature, and that is a notification to parents of the objectionable societies, customs, or practices which the Faculty need parental assistance in suppressing. The general advance in domestic humanity is illustrated by the so-called "football game," abolished in 1860, in which the seniors (and sophomores) annually "received" the freshmen (and juniors) in a slugging match, as contrasted with the operations of the Committee on Reception for the freshmen described by Prof. de Sumichrast. That intercollegiate humanity, however, has suffered a sharp decline in the same period, is only too notorious. Dr. Sargent, in an article on the gymnasium, offers what must be a barren argument for admitting faithful exercise there to count as one of the factors in a student's rank. Mr. Dole's plea for the study of Russian is rational, and will be heeded, no doubt, when a foundation is provided. Prof. Hart, reviewing the opening of the academic year, foreshadows the abandonment of the Harvard examinations for women, as having been superseded by the new "treaty" with Radcliffe College. He instances several ways in which this treaty is precipitating what used to be called "the confounded woman question" upon the authorities. The present number of the *Magazine* is one of the best yet published.

—The influence of college-bred men on their time is always an interesting topic. No doubt the old notion still prevails that in the United States the self-made men have been uppermost in public affairs; but this is a popular fallacy, as a glance at the training of our Presidents and leading politicians would show. A more striking illustration is given in the list of "immortals" whose names have recently been placed on the drum of the dome of the new House of Representatives in Boston. The commissioners under whose charge the building has been constructed have chosen fifty-three names of Massachusetts men who, in their judgment, best deserve commemoration, the number being determined by the space to be filled. Of these, Morse, who graduated at Yale, invented the electric telegraph, and Bell the telephone. Dr. Morton discovered ether. Four were historians, and all Harvard graduates—Bancroft, Prescott, Motley, and Parkman. The poets Emerson, Holmes, and Lowell were also Harvard graduates; Longfellow and Hawthorne graduated from Bowdoin; Bryant studied at Williams; Whittier did not go to college. Of two painters, J. S. Copley and W. M. Hunt, the latter belonged to Harvard; and of three clergymen, Channing and Brooks graduated at Harvard, and Jonathan Edwards at Yale. Among statesmen are Pickering, John and J. Q. Adams, Dane, Quincy, Everett, and Sumner of Harvard, Choate and Webster of Dartmouth, Andrew of Bowdoin, and Henry Wilson. The law is represented by Parsons, Shaw, Story, and Allen; all but the last, whose selection has been criticised, being Harvard alumni. The two Revolutionary generals, Knox and Lincoln, did not go to college; the two generals in the Rebellion, Devens and Bartlett, went to Harvard. Of the reformers, Wendell Phillips was Motley's classmate at Harvard, Garrison had no college education, and Horace Mann graduated at Brown. From Brown, too, came Dr. S. G. Howe, instructor of the blind. Bulfinch, the architect, and Peirce, the mathematician, went to Harvard; Agassiz fitted at several Continental universities. Franklin, Bowditch, the navigator, and Putnam, the settler of the Northwest, had no college education. Five of the original colonists—Winthrop, Carver, Endicott, Bradford, and Vane—are appropriately remembered; the first studied at Trinity College, Dublin, the last at Oxford.

—Thus it appears that out of fifty-three men representing the highest attainments in the civic life, the literature, art, and science of Massachusetts, thirty-eight, or 72 per cent., were certainly college-bred. Morton, the dentist, and Allen, the judge, must have had the equivalent of a college education in learning their profession. Where Bradford, Carver, and Endicott were educated does not appear. Of the thirty-eight, Harvard claims twenty-five, viz, Bancroft, Prescott, Motley, Parkman, Emerson, Holmes, Lowell, Hunt, Channing, Brooks, Pickering, J. and J. Q. Adams, Dane, Quincy, Sumner, Parsons, Shaw, Story, Everett, Phillips, Devens, Bartlett, Peirce, and Bulfinch; Bowdoin has three—Hawthorne, Longfellow, and Andrew; Dartmouth two—Webster and Choate; Yale two—Edwards and Morse; Brown two—Mann and Howe; Oxford, Dublin, and Munich have one each—Vane, Winthrop, and Agassiz, respectively. The fifteen non-collegians are Morton, Bell, Whittier, Copley, Carver, Bradford, Endicott, Knox, Lincoln, Wilson, Allen, Putnam, Garrison, Franklin, and Bowditch. If we exclude the five founders, Bell and Agassiz are the only foreigners in the list, which is, on the whole, fairly good. Perhaps in place of Henry Wilson one might have expected John Hancock, whether as president of the Continental Congress or as first Governor of the Commonwealth. Doubtless also Poe and Thoreau would have many supporters, and Allston might have kept company with Copley. Does Bell's telephone entitle him to the roll of honor in the same degree that Eli Whitney's cotton-gin should entitle him? Whitney's invention, it is not too much to say, not only revolutionized American industries, but indirectly had tremendous influence on the political development of the country; the telephone has been, thus far, merely a commercial convenience. Finally, since in selecting Bell they chose among the living, the commissioners might well have chosen President Eliot of Harvard, whose work in education, in the entire country not less than in Massachusetts, has had no parallel. But the fifty-three worthies whose names are thus blazoned serve as well as a larger number might to prove the ascendency of college-bred men in Massachusetts since the coming of the Pilgrims.

—The December *Forum* contains a short autobiographical sketch by the late Philip Gilbert Hamerton, entitled "The Chief Influences on My Career," which, as the editor remarks in a footnote, "has a melancholy interest because it is among the last products of Mr. Hamerton's pen, if not the last." The opening sentence of the article reads: "The most powerful influences over my life have been (1) literature, (2) nature in landscape, (3) the graphic arts, (4) society." He explains that human intercourse has been placed last because he lived much in the country, "where books and landscapes were more accessible than cultivated people"; but the order of the other three influences is very significant. He was first and always a man of literary culture, secondly a lover of nature, and third and resultantly a painter. As an artist he never achieved anything remarkable, but his equipment and individuality made him naturally a critic of art. At first his love of nature led him to a wrong view of art, and he assumed, as did Ruskin, that the most literal transcript of natural fact was the highest form of art. Later his practice of art gave him a deeper insight, while his literary culture aided him in the presentation of his views to the reading public, so that he became perhaps the most powerful influence in the dissemination of right views of art in the English-speaking world. He had an infinite capacity for taking pains in the statement of apparently simple things, and never hesitated to go over old ground or to dwell at length on the things the artist generally takes for granted; and hence he succeeded where most artist-writers fail, while he was enough of a painter to avoid the pitfalls of the purely literary mind when dealing with art. To the specialist he often seemed to deal in solemn commonplaces, but they were not commonplaces to the general public for which he wrote. If never sparkling or epigrammatic, his style was clear and smooth; and if his views were never new and seldom profound, they were eminently sound. If not a great critic, Mr. Hamerton was a good one, and his books have afforded pleasure and instruction to thousands for whom stronger meat might have been less wholesome.

—A new proposal tending towards much greater freedom of study at Oxford was brought forward in Convocation on November 27, when the draft of a new statute was promulgated which provides for the establishment of a research degree. This is to be a Baccalaureate of either Science or Letters, according to the field in which the candidate has done his work. A special delegacy will be appointed as supervisors of the new department. No one may enter on the course of special

study which entitles him to be a candidate unless he is twenty-one years old, has obtained the Oxford B.A., or otherwise qualified himself, has shown aptness for research, and has chosen a line of study which may profitably be pursued at the University. The delegacy may then accept him, and after two (or, in some cases, three) years of study, he may receive the degree of Bachelor of Science or Bachelor of Letters. If he obtains either of these degrees, he will be allowed to proceed to his M.A. under precisely the same conditions as if he had obtained the ordinary B.A. degree. It will be seen how much this plan favors special and original work and the increase of the sum of knowledge. Details, no doubt, will be discussed with a certain fervor, but it is said that the scheme, as a whole, is likely to pass.

—American collectors of Napoleonica are presumably interested in American editions of books relating to Bonaparte, but about these very little seems to be known. After the *Century Magazine* published (October-November, 1893) the diary of Sir G. Cockburn's secretary, the editors learned (according to a note in the December number) that a small edition of the work had been issued in England in 1888. But they seem never to have heard of the edition published in Boston in 1833, the title-page of which reads as follows: 'Buonaparte's Voyage to St. Helena; Comprising the Diary of Rear-Admiral Sir George Cockburn, during his Passage from England to St. Helena, in 1815. From the Original Manuscript, in the Handwriting of his Private Secretary. Boston: Lilly, Wait, Colman, and Holden. 1833.' (12mo, pp. xi, 123.) Following the title is a "Publishers' Advertisement":

"The following Narrative, in the original manuscript, was put into our possession by Captain J. F. Brookhouse of Salem. . . . The manuscript is in the handwriting of a gentleman well known and much respected at St. Helena, who officiated as private Secretary to Admiral Cockburn during the voyage. He has since died, and it is through his family connexions that the public are now favoured with this interesting document. There is another copy of this manuscript in existence, which was, at one period, in the course of publication in England, but considerations, which may be obviously inferred from the character of the production itself, then led to its suppression, and must continue to prevent its appearance from that quarter."

Of the English edition the editors of the *Century* say, in the note mentioned: "A comparison of the Admiral's diary with that of his secretary, John R. Glover (which is the diary *for the first time* printed by the *Century*), would seem to indicate that the Admiral's account was based on the fuller and more important record of his secretary. Whether the Admiral dictated any part of his diary may not be determined; but there can be no doubt of the paramount historical value of the Glover manuscript. . . ." Another version of the same incidents and conversations, but of much less historical value, is that published by Warden, the surgeon of the *Northumberland* (London, 1817). There were two American reprints of this, also published in 1817. The titles are identical except as to imprint, that of one (18mo, 142 pp.) being "Newbern [N. C.?]: Published by W. Ivey and J. Scott," the other (18mo, 240 pp., plates) being "Philadelphia: Published by Mitchell & Ames." A companion volume to these was Capt. Maitland's 'Narrative of the Surrender of Buonaparte, and of his residence on board H. M. S. *Bellerophon*.' Of this, also, there is an American edition (Boston: Wells & Lilly, 1826. 12mo, 176 pp.). All four books are in the library of Harvard college.

## SHALER'S UNITED STATES.

*The United States of America:* A Study of the American Commonwealth, its natural resources, people, industries, manufactures, commerce, and its works in literature, science, education, and self-government. Edited by Nathaniel Southgate Shaler, S.D. 2 vols. D. Appleton & Co. Royal 8vo. Illustrated. Pp. xxv, 670, 649.

It was most natural that those who were under the spell of the White City a year ago should be stimulated as never before to ask how its magic was possible when the stretch of an actual life reached back to the time when an Indian trader, coming from the comparative civilization of the fur company's settlement and depot at Mackinaw, had hid his canoes among the rushes of Chicago River while he packed his goods down to his market among the red men at Kankakee. He had gone half a day's journey on his way from Fort Dearborn when his pack-horses, escorted by his buckskin-clad guards with rifle on shoulder, waded the sedgy lagoons that now opened from the peristyle into the Court of Honor, where gondolas and electric launches rivalled each other in lending romance to the passage from palace to palace, each more dazzling than the other. Gurdon Hubbard did not quite live to tell his story as the fairy boat moved silently in front of the great dome outlined in the night by lines of myriad lamps, but there were those there who had heard him tell it but a little while before, and whose hearts swelled with wonder at it all.

How had it happened? What had made it possible? Whence had come the trooping millions that had swarmed across a continent and worked a transformation in a wilderness that had not changed since the retreating ice of a far-away glacial epoch, but which now had burst so suddenly into the full flower of modern civilization? These questions went humming through the brains of hosts of visitors, native and foreign, and they gained in earnest interest from the spirit of prophecy which was also in the air and was part of the contagion of the moment—which saw these fleeting outlines of noble architecture and sculpture made imperishable in marble and in bronze, rising in imposing vistas in many a great city from the East to the West, with a grandeur as colossal as the continent itself.

Prof. Shaler seems to have caught the inspiration of the scene, and to have set himself the delightful task of telling the story of the marriage of this wild nature with a new and vigorous race of men, and of the giant progeny which came of it, physical, industrial, mental, political. The work called for a geologist, broadened by life in a critical epoch of his country's history and by sympathy with all its problems. It was not a question of the mere depth of the till or the loess that the ice had left on the boundless prairies, or the classification of the Silurian fossils which the erosion of the Ohio Valley displays in marvellous variety. It was rather how, in its continental workshop, nature had been making a home for civilized man—how the glacial drift was not only a grist of the ice-mill, but of the mills of God as well, making possible the vast fields of bending grain, and the armies of husbandmen with scythed chariots of rattling reapers—how the fossil animals had stored up for unnumbered ages the phosphates underlying and feeding the lush pastures where the shimmering blue of the grass-blossoms gives name to the Kentucky home of fine horses, of ponderous beeves, and of stalwart men.

This is the poetry of science, it is true; but it is one of the secrets which Science whispers to all her devotees, that her adepts find all their paths leading up to lessons of harmony and beauty on the grandest scale. If the professor's plan of a comprehensive view of the relations of the land to her people and her people to the land was a vacation thought suggested by the visit to the Exposition of 1893, it was a most happy thought and one of the most fertile. It is in the line of those large generalizations which make the fascination of Darwin's voyage round the world in the *Beagle*, where even we who follow afar off can see the growing thought of the relation of long isolated habitats to peculiar specific forms of life. It has its resemblance to Wallace's sagacious tracing of the inductive lines by which the distribution of earth's inhabitants, high and humble, vegetable as well as animal, is tied to continental mountain chains which rise like vertebræ from the back of the lifting shore. It has humbler pretensions, and does not announce epoch-making discoveries, but its relationship to great work is none the less a close one.

It is right to speak thus of the editor's share in this important work, for he has not only planned it, but his authorship of its chapters greatly outmeasures that of any of his coworkers. More than a score of experts, each of whom is a recognized authority in his department, have furnished a picture of the growth of the country in some noteworthy direction. All these combine to make an exposition, to the mind's eye, in which we pass from hall to hall, noticing the achievements, marking the discouragements, learning our own peculiarities, comparing each with what has been done or is doing elsewhere in the world. In this way the means is given of building up an adequate notion of our country in its actual state; the land, the inhabitants, their institutions, their industries, their character, their morals, and their health.

Some of the most interesting suggestions are those which grow out of the physical geography of the country. First comes the broad inquiry how much of the continent is habitable by folk of our stock. This subdivides into numerous branches. What limits are fixed by the cold of the north, what by the heats of the south, what by the altitude of the interior plateaus, what by the droughts of the arid region, what by the swamps of the lowlands? What regions are malarial, what are consumptive? How far can science overcome any or all of these limitations?

Physical features of the country are shown to have modified the spread of immigration. The French were tempted by the highway of the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes to scatter rapidly over the whole of that vast basin. But the scattering itself attenuated the civilizing forces of the colonies, and the people more easily fell into merely adventurous and trading lives, mingling in blood as well as in habits with the aborigines. The English colonies were held more together by the rampart of mountains parallel to the Atlantic coast, and grew into strong communities trained and schooled in the life of civilized pioneers before they broke over the Alleghenies. Then one route was opened by the Mohawk Valley to the fat lands of the "Genesees." Another path was found by the upper Potomac to the headwaters of the Monongahela and to Fort

Duquesne. Still another, farther south, mounted the James till gaps were found leading over into the Kanawha, or into the Holston Valley and thence by Cumberland Gap into Kentucky. Each line of migration had its characteristics, determined by the communities from which it emerged, and modified by the soil, the climate, and the latitude of the country which it settled. The action and reaction of physical, moral, and political influences upon the community is constantly borne in mind and often traced in curiously interesting facts. The reason for a sharp line between a dense and thriving population and one sparse and poor is sometimes shown to be the character of the rocks which underlie their homes. The modifications which may be made in the future by drainage, by irrigation, by fertilizers, by artesian wells, by new grasses or grains, are all suggestively discussed, as well from the standpoint of physical resources of the earth as from that of increased facilities of transportation and commerce. Coal-mines, oil-wells, forests, the distribution and supply of fuel and lumber are each the subject of wise and instructive lessons. So are the mines of gold, silver, copper, lead, and other useful metals.

The chapters written by Prof. Shaler are about one-third of the whole in quantity of matter, and would make, of themselves, a book of symmetric treatment and composition. Those furnished by his co-workers are necessarily more varied in handling, as they are less closely connected in topic. None of them is trivial, and all are written by men who are able to present vividly the facts that help make up the general survey which is their common aim.

Prof. Judson tells the story of the acquisition of the Mississippi Valley and the interaction of French and American institutions upon each other, including the strange phenomenon of the attempt to found a Mormon State. Mr. Bancroft does the like for the Spanish and American colonies of the Pacific coast and the wild rush to the gold mines which produced a social and political revolution.

Mr. Edward Atkinson deals with the Progress of Industry, noting in what fields of work the simple mechanism of ancient times has survived, and contrasting this with the perfected modern machinery of advanced type. The potter's wheel is an example of the first. Of the second he says: "It would be possible to-day to put logs of wood into one end of a factory and to take out from the other end a printed book, stitched and ready for the covers, without a single human hand touching the fabric of the paper from the beginning to the end of the process." This advance in the mechanic arts and this fertility of invention applied to every department of industry has, we are told, "enabled our soil to support a great increase in population which exists in comfort where a sparse population was fading away." Examples of it are shown with a clearness of description and a vivid portrayal of results that keep the romance of national progress keyed to a high poetic pitch, which is not lowered, but seems to gain power from scores of tables, illustrated by diagrams, showing to the eye at a glance the meaning of important statistics. Mr. Fairfield adds to the illustration of the subject by a description of shoemaking of old and in the present.

After Mr. Cooley has expounded the principles of transportation by water and by land, and the vital interest the whole nation has in it as the necessary condition of occupying the great continental spaces, we have Mr. Kenelly's picture of the work of the telegraph and telephone in the transportation of thought, the annihilators of time in the communication of messages. The outline of electrical theory is given and its application as motive power. Then Mr. Prout takes up the subject of the railway itself, considering what are the characteristics of American improvements and the noteworthy developments of American ideas. These are shown in surveying and locating lines, in rapidity of construction, whether of track or of bridges, in adapting forms of engine to conditions of structure made necessary by haste and economy, and in securing comfort and safety in long journeys where the train must be the hotel.

Mr. Charles F. Adams inquires into the causes and effects of the combination of capital and enterprise under the control of corporations. He exhibits them as analogous to the improved machinery in manufactures—a time-saving, labor-saving, money-saving method of doing better what was before done at greater cost every way. He shows why we may believe that, like the introduction of labor-saving machinery, these, too, will prove to be useful to the whole community, though temporary loss may occur to individuals in the change from one method to the other. A warning example is given of the losses apt to attend governmental interference in enterprises which need the economy and thrift born of personal interest.

The education of the masses of the people which has made republican self-government a possibility, and which has given the intelligence and enterprise necessary for all the other steps forward, is considered and analyzed by the Commissioner of Education, Mr. Harris. The kinds of schools, their work and methods, the relations of common schools to those of higher grade, and of all to liberal education, are made the subject of a critical examination. This is supplemented by a presentation of the progress of learning and the various means of promoting it, by President Gilman.

But we have not yet mentioned the growth and characteristics of our cities and municipal organizations, the political organization of the country, the machinery of legislation, the general outline of our finance, and a discussion of our financial situation; and that these are ably handled, the names of Col. Waring and of Profs. McMaster, Wilson, and Taussig are sufficient guarantee. Literature, art, and architecture are dealt with by Messrs. Warner, Millet, and Van Brunt; public hygiene, by Mr. Abbott; and the physical state of the people, by Mr. Sargent. The aborigines and their condition make a sad but interesting picture from the pen of Major Powell. Mr. Soley gives the history of our mercantile navy and of the skill of our shipbuilders and the enterprise of our navigators and sailors. Col. Dodge tells of the armed means of preserving the peace and enforcing the law by our army and militia system, and how our national guard has grown to a great and sure reliance. The Rev. Lyman Abbott answers the question, What is the moral outcome of all this, and what are democracy and the spirit of national progress to do in affecting the ethical and spiritual life of the nation?

This very bare outline will at least give some notion of the editor's plan and the large scale on which this picture of the actual United States is drawn. The performance is much more close to the promise of the scheme than is ordinarily possible. There is very little interference of parts or repetition of matter. If there is not the literary unity which a single writer could give, where is the writer who could present such a group of subjects with the sure hand and firm touch of this corps of experts? Students of special departments may not always agree with the conclusions here reached, and the standpoint of those treating allied subjects may not be identically the same; but the book is not a controversial one. It is a picture and not a discussion. As a picture it is greatly stimulating, even inspiring, and must be regarded as a remarkable success.

In external form the solid volumes are attractive. Most of the illustrations are half-tone reproductions of photographs, and the pictures of scenery and of buildings are especially satisfactory.

## RECENT AMERICAN POETRY.

In comparing any recent harvest of English and American poetry, it is not difficult to point out certain generic differences, bearing rather on *milieu* and antecedents than on genius or skill. Of a dozen English books of this kind, eight or ten will probably be written by university men who know the same slang, play the same games, and are equally capable of a Greek motto; they often show the effects of travel, but within a limited range; there is no varied local coloring; they know their London and often their Paris; they are usually conventional, particularly when they assume to be unconventional, because then they are trying to adopt some new convention, which is apt to be Parisian in origin, although Walt Whitman for a time, taken far more seriously than at home, contributed his share of it. Among a dozen new Americans, on the contrary, only one or two will show traces of university training or the slightest inclination for a Greek motto; but there will be a far greater variety of local coloring, because they come from different parts of an enormous land; and there is usually a refreshing indifference to what London or Paris thinks. There is, on the whole, more that is hopeful among them, because "vitality is always hopeful," and it is easier, in the long run, to add culture than to create individual character. It is not at all certain that Thoreau and Whittier and Whitman would have been stronger men or done more influential work, even for England, if they had ever crossed the Atlantic.

The greater influence of the daily newspaper in America gives it far more voice in literary matters here than in England; and hence the question comes up much oftener here, in poetry as in all other arts, between the test of serious judgment and the test of popularity. Which is the greater, "Ben Bolt" or "In Memoriam"; "Little Annie Rooney" or "Paradise Lost"? The good-natured critic must allow that there is something to be said in favor of the hand-organ standard, whether for music or art. We cannot think, however, that Mr. Joel Chandler Harris puts his case very well in writing a preface to Mr. Frank L. Stanton's 'Songs of the Soil' (Appletons). He claims admiration for these, first and chiefly, on the ground that "the writings of no American poet have achieved such wide popularity." But this is, to a certain extent, an *argumentum ad hominem*—it is addressed to those who have contributed to spread that popularity—whereas the present reviewer is not conscious of ever before having seen Mr. Stanton's name, although he is very glad to encounter it at last. Then this merit is further argued on the ground that this writer's poems "are struck off in the heat and hurry of newspaper work" (p. viii.), and that he

"frequently writes five or six poems a day." Moreover, any criticism on them is "sophistication," and the apostles of culture are invited to complain of them as wanting in literary art. We have no claim, perhaps, to speak for those apostles; but we should say that the poems justify Mr. Harris's description of their origin. With a volume of Riley's dialect poetry before him, for the humor, and a volume of Poe for the serious measure—see, for instance, the jingling repetend in "Chattahoochee" (p. 151)—we can see no reason why any wide-awake country editor should not produce five, six, or even seven of these poems in a morning without seriously interfering with business.

The 'Songs of the Soil' simply takes rank with 'Back Country Poems,' by Sam Walter Foss (Boston: Lee & Shepard), of which we are also assured that it is "well known to the newspaper-readers of the country." There is more homely earnestness, perhaps, about Mr. Foss, and both poets have, undoubtedly, a wide range of readers and of usefulness; but it only injures them to place them where they do not belong. After all, what they offer to the critical reader is that Riley-and-water which is now abundantly on tap in so many different directions, and which is often a pleasant beverage, though it rarely satisfies. And since Mr. Harris girds at the poor critic, and even Mr. Foss makes his Sebastian Morey say (p. 194) of his last poem

> "The angels tol' me every word, an' it would make me famous
> If every 'tarnal editor warn't sich an ignoramus,"

it may be well to point out, from the point of view of the long-suffering reader, one simple proposition: Dialect poetry, beyond all other, must smack of the soil, or it is nothing. Now, there has been some recent criticism in the newspapers upon Mrs. Moulton and other poets, who have been reverting to the old American stock-in-trade, belonging to days when they sang of the nightingale and lark as inevitably as Mr. Weller, in his love-making, talked about "darts and piercers." In Mr. Foss, to do him justice, we find no such incongruity, but we have only to open Mr. Stanton's volume and find (p. 41) "A Song for Her," which consists of three verses in which the birds selected to perform the minstrelsy are the mocking-bird, the whippoorwill, and—the "lark of dawn"; not, be it observed, the homely and honest meadow-lark of American meadows, but the very skylark "at God's gates." How can any one help seeing a certain incongruity in this—as they might perceive it in a banquet of succotash and Bath buns, or 'possum and Yarmouth bloaters?

Not that this is peculiar to this particular writer; Mr. Richard Hovey and Mr. Bliss Carman are poets of much higher pretensions, and yet, in their 'Songs from Vagabondia' (Chicago: Stone & Kimball) they celebrate the throstle, a bird as out of place on American soil as any nightingale of them all. It cannot be too often pointed out—and we have not heretofore to reproach ourselves with any neglect of this duty—that this want of local coloring, beginning with birds and flowers, soon shows itself in other ways, and impairs genuineness in everything. Thus, Mr. Robert J. Wickenden, in his 'Poems of Nature and Sentiment' (New York and Chicago: Keppel), writes in his "Milkmaid Song" (p. 20):

> "The lark mounts high in song and sky
> To welcome in the morning";

and in his "Twilight Pastoral" flings in (perhaps for the latitude of Chicago) a shepherd boy with his pipe (p. 15)—

> "While the shepherd boy and the nightingale
> Pipe forth their evening hymn."

The transition being thus effected from exotic birds to exotic human figures, it is not strange when Mr. Crawford, in his late novel of New York society, makes his Katharine Lauderdale consult "a dissenting minister."

To return to 'Songs from Vagabondia,' it has an interest in being in some degree a reflection, illustrations and all, of that current London taste of which we ourselves have heretofore spoken with a certain distaste. It may be described as an undergraduate book, and this to a degree rather surprising from two authors who have already done maturer work. It is flavored rather aggressively with that cheap Bohemianism which goes with Hasty Pudding Clubs and Skull and Bones associations, or perhaps even suggests those London shop-boys in Dickens who club for oysters and porter as they go home at night and think there is nothing like life. The merit of the little book lies, on the other hand, in a certain lilt and ring which make it tuneful, and sometimes almost fascinating. The love-making is mostly of the patronizing description, and is turned generally, in the current London fashion, to what is brown and sunburnt. But on the whole there is a sensation, as with Thackeray's Dick Tinto, of young gentlemen who only play at vagabondism, and have no real objection to a bath-tub and clean linen, while sometimes a strong and even noble key is struck, as in "The Marching Morrows" (p. 48).

> Now gird thee well for courage,
> My knight of twenty year,
> Against the marching morrows
> That fill the world with fear.
>
> The flowers fade before them;
> The summer leaves the hill;
> Their trumpets range the morning,
> And those who hear grow still.
>
> The dust is on their corselets;
> Their marching fills the world;
> With conquest after conquest
> Their banners are unfurled.
>
> Yet fear thou not! If haply
> Thou be the kingly one,
> They'll set thee in their vanguard
> To lead them round the sun.

He who can touch a chord like that will not always be found lingering underground with Kavanagh and his Cruiskeen Lawn (p. 33).

To pass from this obtrusively vagrant book to the comparatively trim gardens of Mr. William Roscoe Thayer is not wholly a pleasure, because, although Mr. Thayer, in his 'Poems, New and Old' (Houghton), likes Oriental themes, and sings sometimes of Hafiz and of wine, it is still done in the Western and almost in the academic spirit, and emotion is rather described than lived. He too touches the lyrical chord deftly here and there, though the song is apt to seem made, not sung:

> "Shepherd on Dakota's hills,
> When you drive your flock to shearing,
> Sailor on the Carib Sea,
> As your ship is southward steering,
> Guess ye where the goal may be?
> Fleece and freight shall come to me
> Spite of distance and of veering."

This strain is graceful and flexible, yet it evidently goes to piano-music, and not to the banjo of 'Vagabondia'; but there is room for all.

'Lincoln's Grave,' by Maurice Thompson (Stone & Kimball), was first read as a poem before the Harvard Chapter of the Phi Beta Kappa; and it certainly impresses us, on re-reading, as one of the few fine poetic fruits of the war. It derives its peculiar power from the fact that its author served in the Confederate ranks; but, apart from that, it gives an analysis of Lincoln's character surpassed only by Lowell's terse lines in the Commemoration Ode. What could touch the very life of the man better than this, for instance (p. 22)?

> "His humor, born of virile opulence,
> Stung like a pungent sap or wild fruit zest,
> And satisfied a universal sense
> Of manliness, the strongest and the best:
> A soft Kentucky strain was in his voice,
> And the Ohio's deeper boom was there,
> With some wild accents of old Wabash days,
> And winds of Illinois;
> And when he spake he took us unaware
> With his high courage and unselfish ways.
>
> "And fresh from God he had the godlike power
> Of universal sympathy with life,
> Or high or low; he knew the day and hour,
> Felt every motive actuating strife,
> Lived on both sides of every aspiration,
> And saw how men could differ and be right,
> How from all points the waves of truth are driven
> To one last destination;
> How prayer that battles prayer with awful might
> Eternally tempestuous rolls to heaven."

As for Mr. James Whitcomb Riley himself, it is safe to say that so long as he writes dialect poems people will read them, because he has the gift of tears and strikes home to the heart. In 'Armazindy' (Indianapolis: Bowen-Merrill Co.) he has, for instance, this brief picture—but it is enough (p. 31):

> HOW DID YOU REST LAST NIGHT?
>
> "How did you rest last night?"
> I've heard my gran'pap say
> Them words a thousand times—that's right—
> Jes them words thataway!
> As punctchul-like as morning dast
> To ever heave in sight,
> Gran'pap 'ud allus haf to ast—
> "How did you rest last night?"
>
> Us young-uns used to grin
> At breakfast, on the sly,
> And mock the wobble of his chin
> And eyebrows heit so high
> And kind: "How did you rest last night?"
> We'd mumble and let on
> Our voices trimbled, and our sight
> Was dim, and hearin' gone.
>
> Bad as I used to be,
> All I'm a-wantin' is
> As puore and ca'm a sleep fer me
> And sweet a sleep as his!
> And so I pray, on Judgment Day
> To wake, and with its light
> See *his* face dawn and hear him say—
> "How did you rest last night?"

It is hardly needful to say that with each new and slender volume by Mr. Aldrich, such as 'Unguarded Gates' (Houghton), we rise above the academic into the sphere of the artistic. This adjective has been so often used about him that it is hackneyed, and sometimes it is meant as a word of reproach, perhaps, or even of limitation, as identifying his merit with form rather than substance. Perhaps it is fortunate when he disowns allegiance to art, sometimes by an imperfect rhyme, or by a sonnet which departs from that due Italian sequence of rhymes which is wont to hold him captive—as with "Andromeda," for example (p. 97), where the thought is so generous and the phrasing so noble as to vindicate whatever sequence he pleases to use:

> The smooth-worn coin and threadbare classic phrase
> Of Grecian myths that did beguile my youth,
> Beguile me not as in the olden days:
> I think more grief and beauty dwell with truth.
> Andromeda, in fetters by the sea,
> Star pale with anguish till young Perseus came,
> Less moves me with her suffering than she,
> The slim girl-figure fettered to dark shame,
> That nightly haunts the park, there like a shade,
> Trailing her wretchedness from street to street.
> See where she passes—neither wife nor maid.
> How all mere fiction crumbles at her feet!
> Here is woe's self, and not the mask of woe.
> A legend's shadow shall not move you so.

Note how every syllable tells upon the ear; note the Shaksperian precision of the phrases, building up the successive lines until "mere fiction crumbles," and the last two lines come in, as in Shakspere's sonnets, with a summing up of the thought and a slight recoil, as of a spent wave. More ample in structure, and with something of Lowell's rhythmic lifting, but with more delicate adjustment and more complete freedom from jarring metaphors than

the rich and robust Lowell ever achieved, is the following (p. 55):

TWO MOODS.

Between the budding and the falling leaf
Stretch happy skies;
With colors and sweet cries
Of mating birds in uplands and in glades
The world is rife.
Then on a sudden all the music dies,
The color fades.
How fugitive and brief
Is mortal life
Between the budding and the falling leaf!
O, short-breathed music, dying on the tongue
Ere half the mystical canticle be sung!
O harp of life, so speedily unstrung!
Who, if 'twere his to choose, would know again
The bitter sweetness of the lost refrain,
Its rapture and its pain?

Though I be shut in darkness, and become
Insentient dust blown idly here and there,
I count oblivion a scant price to pay
For having once had held against my lip
Life's brimming cup of hydromel and rue—
For having once known woman's holy love
And a child's kiss, and for a little space
Been boon companion to the Day and Night,
Fed on the odors of the summer dawn,
And folded in the beauty of the stars.
Dear Lord, though I be changed to senseless clay,
And serve the potter as he turns his wheel,
I thank Thee for the gracious gift of tears!

Mrs. Dodge and Miss Edith M. Thomas both send forth volumes for children—the former giving us 'When Life is Young; A Collection of Verse for Boys and Girls' (Century Co.), and the latter 'In Sunshine Land' (Houghton). It is impossible to compare them without perceiving that while Miss Thomas has the finer poetic touch, Mrs. Dodge is the natural singer for children, trained and developed also by long practice. One can read 'In Sunshine Land' with much pleasure; but open 'While Life is Young' wherever you will, the reader's life becomes young also, and the most hardened critic looks round for some child to whom to impart the cheery lay.

'Quintets, and Other Verses' (Chicago), by William Henry Thorne, editor of the *Globe Review*, offers serious and thoughtful strains. 'My Garden Walk,' by William Preston Johnson (New Orleans: Hansell), would have a certain interest by reason of the imprint, had not Mrs. Mary A. Townsend caught the inspiration of the Bayous so much better. 'The Thought of God, in Hymns and Poems,' by Frederick L. Hosmer and William C. Gannett (Boston: Roberts), offers a second series of those thoughtful and unhackneyed religious poems which are identified with the names of these authors. 'A Century of Charades,' by William Bellamy (Houghton), is a collection so crisp and piquant as almost to create a new branch of literature.

'Gathered Windfalls' (Albany: Moulton) is in memory of Mrs. Mary C. Peckham, a Rhode Island poet, but who wrote much of her verse in the Western States; 'One Hundred Sonnets' is also by a wife and mother (Mrs. Julia Noyes Stickney), and has been modestly printed at the pretty Merrimack village where the poems found birth (Groveland, Mass.: Ambrose). 'The Icicle, and Other Poems,' by E. W. Bäärnhelm (Esther Walden Barnes), is also a local product (Portsmouth, N. H.)—the Swedish name being really that of the author, whose father came in boyhood to this country and anglicized his name. 'Madonna, and Other Poems,' by Harrison S. Merritt (Philadelphia: Lippincott), has at least one bit of vivid local coloring, in this Nantucket poem (p. 108):

A PINE-TREE BUOY.

Where all the winds were tranquil
And all the odors sweet,
And rings of tumbling upland
Sloped down to kiss your feet,

There, in a nest of verdure,
You grew from bud to bough:
You heard the song at mid-day,
At eve the plighted vow.

But fate that gives a guerdon
Takes back a double fee:
She hewed you from your homestead
And set you in the sea.

And every bowling billow
Bends down your barren head,
To hearken if the whisper
Of what you knew is dead.

## A VERY POPULAR ASTRONOMER.

*Popular Astronomy.* By Camille Flammarion. Translated from the French by J. Ellard Gore. D. Appleton & Co.

M. Flammarion is the most picturesque figure in the astronomy of our time. He was a computer at the Paris Observatory when the late Richard A. Proctor first came into public notice as an astronomical writer. For a generation little had been done to popularize astronomy in France, and one cannot but suspect that Flammarion saw in the works of Proctor a kind of nutriment for which the appetites of his countrymen could easily be whetted. Certain it is that he first wrote so much like a French Proctor that, could a man have a legal copyright in his own personality, the Englishman might have brought suit on the ground of infringement. But the Frenchman soon left his prototype far out of sight. He proved himself a born journalist of so advanced a type that the New York *World* showed a great lack of enterprise in not securing his services at any cost. The most common occurrence—a halo around the sun, or the occultation of a star or planet by the moon—becomes in his hands a subject for an elaborate article, with magnificent illustrations. His writings began to circulate wherever the French language was read. They were soon sold by the hundred thousand, and received with such enthusiasm that "Sociétés Flammarion" have been organized to do honor to his name and work, not only throughout France, but even in South America. A very pleasant feature of his writing is his unalloyed pleasure in his fame, which he nowhere conceals, and which, by the naïveté of its expression, is relieved from all appearance of offensive egotism. He is very proud of his private observatory. A Bohemian astronomer having given the name of our author to a lunar crater, an elaborate description of the "cirque Flammarion," with two fine illustrations, appears in his astronomical monthly. In the book now before us he tells how he was perplexed for months by a mathematical question of which he could find no solution in the books, apparently quite unconscious that the reason of its omission was that it was too simple to need mention.

That he can also write in serious vein is shown by his great volume on the planet Mars, which is an orderly and well-digested account of all the noteworthy observations upon the features of our neighboring planet from the invention of the telescope to the present time. A comparison of this work with his 'Popular Astronomy,' now before us, shows that he writes one way for the seeker after knowledge and another for the public.

Among our author's productions the 'Astronomie Populaire' is the largest and probably the most widely circulated. First published in 1879, it not only gained an instant and unprecedented popularity, but was crowned with the Montyon prize by the French Academy (not the Academy of Sciences, be it understood). Not until 1894, however, does it appear in an English translation. On comparing the latter with the original, the first thing to strike us is the omission of the most characteristic feature of the original work—its striking and peculiar illustrations; among a score of others, the following, most of which are full-page:

View of the skeletons of the last family of the human race, who, overtaken by the eternal frost which is to follow the cooling of the sun, have wrapped themselves in their last blanket, and lain down to die in a dreary cleft of an ice-bound rock.

Excitement and terror among the inhabitants of the moon, caused by the apparition in mid heaven of a balloon on its way from the earth.

Landscape view on the planet Mars, showing a troop of mounted horsemen bearing an unmistakable resemblance to North American Indians, cavorting in a forest of what looks more like colossal tuning-forks than anything a terrestrial botanist ever dreamed of.

The victims of Thermopylæ (in a rocky defile of course; thunder-riven rocks are Flammarion's favorite landscape features), cursing the barbarity of Mars, the god of war.

*Fiancée* of the early ages of the world, reclining on a crag, and awaiting, by the light of the evening star, the approach of her lover, who is seen in the distance toiling up to her perch, with the aid of a very modern-looking alpenstock.

Nature asserting her rights after war, in the form of an abandoned siege-cannon on which a dove has lighted.

After taking such a liberty with the original as to destroy its individuality, it is rather surprising to find the translator so punctilious in reproducing the text that he does not attempt either to bring it up to date or to correct it, except by interpolating sentences in square brackets, with his initials. How unsatisfactory this plan may prove in literary form will be seen by a single extract:

"We have already seen twenty-five stars blazing out in the sky with a spasmodic gleam, and relapsing to an extinction bordering on death [the number of well-authenticated cases of "temporary stars" is much less than twenty-five.—J. E. G.]; already bright stars observed by our fathers have disappeared from the maps of the sky [that any bright stars have really disappeared is very doubtful —J. E. G.]; a great number of red stars have entered on their period of extinction [that red stars are really cooling down is now a disputed question—J. E. G.]. The sun is but a star; he will meet with the fate of his sisters; suns, like worlds, are born to die, and in eternity their long career will have endured but 'the space of a morning'" (p. 79).

This is an extreme case, yet such interpolations stare at us all through the book. It is difficult to see what objection the author could have made to having the translator bring the book up to date and otherwise adapt it to English tastes. The policy adopted has, however, resulted in giving us a very interesting and even amusing picture of the author's style and method of treatment. Digressions, personal and otherwise, constantly relieve the tedium. A meteoric shower occurring when the author was in Rome leads him to report a conversation with the Pope on the subject. An optical illusion of some observers who looked at a transit of Mercury with very bad telescopes leads to a description of comical typographical blunders in newspapers, having no relation to astronomy. After half a page of this, he remembers that he has not finished up with the planet Mercury, and returns to it. Here and there we have such rhapsodies as the following, which shows not only the digression, but the smooth and easy curve by which he gets back to his subject, after straying so far that we should fear he was hopelessly lost:

"O folly of terrestrial mannikins! folly of busy merchants, folly of the miser, folly of

the suitor, folly of the pilgrim to Mecca or to Lourdes, folly of the blind! When shall the inhabitant of the earth open his eyes to see where he is, to live the life of the mind, and to base his happiness on intellectual contemplations? When shall he throw off the old man, the animal cover, to free himself from the fetters of the flesh, and soar in the heights of knowledge? When shall astronomy shed its light upon all minds? But the star of night recalls us. We already know its distance, its magnitude, its motions. We shall soon pay a visit to its rugged surface. Before undertaking this voyage there still remains, however, an interesting point to elucidate: it is the weight of this globe, and, in connection with that, the density of the materials which compose it, and the force of gravity at its surface.

"*How has the moon been weighed?*"

To measure a book written in this way by a serious standard would scarcely be reasonable. That it is often inaccurate in details, and frequently gives us conjecture for certainty, need not be stated. Accuracy in such a book can be secured only by an amount of serious study, and extended knowledge of the errors of older observers with their imperfect instruments, which would be very irksome in a writer of M. Flammarion's characteristics. Still, it is only due to him to say that, under the bountiful portion of *sauce piquante* which he serves us, there is found more good meat than several eminent popularizers of science in England are wont to offer us. Judging by what we see of the productions of the latter, this generation cares nothing for serious knowledge, and will study the results of science only when they are put into the extremest form of modern sensational journalism. Such being the case, no form of astronomy could suit them better than M. Flammarion's book. If less serious than Mr. Proctor's 'Old and New Astronomy,' it is much more amusing.

Mr. Gore has done the work into smooth and very readable English, and if he does not always give the exact sense of the original, no harm is done except when he makes such a slip as to spoil the point of an anecdote by rendering *visiter* by "visit." Nor can we allege against our author the supposed failure of his countrymen to know anything about what is done outside of France. An interest in and appreciation of things American is shown in more than one passage.

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*In Old New York.* By Thomas Janvier. Harpers.

Mr. Janvier successfully overcomes two of the temptations that beset chroniclers of the infancy of American cities where the rapid encroachment of the new all but obliterates the old. The scarcity of historical survivals leads, on one hand, to bare statement of facts and statistics, and on the other, to excessive imaginative decoration. Mr. Janvier has found the middle way, and has set forth the results of careful, even loving, personal research touched with pleasant fancy.

Any truthful record of the growth of New York must deal chiefly with the development of trade and multiplication of streets, subjects so inflexible for literary treatment that an effort to disguise or modify the truth by lingering on picturesque features of the early Dutch and English occupations might easily be forgiven. Mr. Janvier asks no quarter, but depends on his literary skill to make uncompromising truth agreeable. After a well-condensed sketch of the little Dutch trading-post and of Governor Stuyvesant's inglorious exit from New Amsterdam, with the passage of the Bolting Act in 1678, he plunges into the prosy ways of commerce and pursues them steadily to the opening of the Erie Canal in 1825. The perfecting of a waterway connecting the city by the sea with the remote interior completed, he thinks, the material evolution of New York: "That is to say, by the year 1825 the essential elements were assembled—a large and mixed population, transportation facilities into the heart of the continent, a foreign trade diffused over the whole globe—which constitute the New York of to-day." Between these two important dates we learn why New York grew so fast, why in the first two centuries of existence it did not grow even faster, and exactly how it struggled and faltered topographically until the wise men, sitting in council in 1811, declared that it should henceforth become a straight-away right-angled city, decorous and trim to look upon, and, above all things, easy to get about in. Giving the Commissioners their due for foresight and common sense, Mr. Janvier continues critically:

"All that can fairly be said in the premises—and this quite as much in their justification as to their reproach—is that they were surcharged with the dulness and intense utilitarianism of the people and the period whereof they were a part. Assuredly the work would have been done with more dash and spirit a whole century earlier—in the slave-dealing and piratical days of New York, when life here had a flavor of romance and was not a mere grind of money-making in stupid, commonplace ways."

Passing from the general to the particular, in papers on "Greenwich Village," "Lispenard's Meadows," etc., fidelity to fact is still the guiding star; but in handling people identified with localities and single houses which enshrined memories of historical personages, imagination naturally has more leeway. The author's mode of giving information about the past, vivifying it by reference to the present, and indicating character, is well illustrated in a paragraph concerning the several transfers of a large estate known successively as Sappokanican, Bossen Bouerie, Greenwich Village.

"With even greater but more personal astuteness, the second Dutch Governor, Wouter van Twiller—having a most unbecoming regard for his own strictly individual interests—made himself at once grantor and grantee of this property, and so appropriated the Company's Farm No. 3 as his own private tobacco-plantation. He was a weak brother, this Governor Van Twiller, and his governing was of a feeble and spasmodic sort; but his talent for converting public property to private uses was so marked that it would have given him prominence at a very much later period in the history of the Ninth Ward—the whole of which section of the future city, it will be observed, with some considerable slices from the adjacent territory, he grabbed with one swoop of his big Dutch hands."

Again, in connection with Greenwich, there is a delightful sketch of Sir Peter Warren, K.B., and the fortunes of his daughters run along with the tales of the old roads named after these fine ladies, Abingdon, Fitzroy, and Southampton. Mr. Janvier has traced the twists and turns of these old roads indefatigably, and made a list of surviving landmarks which may surprise veteran New Yorkers.

To all curious prowlers about the city, old citizens or newcomers, we heartily commend Mr. Janvier's book. For practical use, edification, and entertainment, no book on the subject that we know compares with it.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alger, J. G. Glimpses of the French Revolution: Myths, Ideals, and Realities. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Almanach de Gotha, 1895. Gotha: Justus Perthes; New York: Westermann.
Archer, T. A., and Kingsford, C. L. The Crusades: The Story of the Latin Kingdom of Jerusalem. Putnams. $1.50.
Baldwin, Dr. D. A. The Family Pocket Homœopathist. 3d ed. Rochester, N. Y.: E. Darrow & Co. 50 cents.
Bates, Prof. Katharine L. Shakspere's Merchant of Venice. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 35 cents.
Betham-Edwards, M. A Romance of Dijon. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Biddle, A. J. D. A Dual Role, and Other Stories. Worcester, Mass.: Warwick Book Co. 50 cents.
Bigelow, Poultney. The Borderland of Czar and Kaiser. Harpers. $2.
Chandler, Mrs. I. C. Three of Us. Hunt & Eaton. $2.
Clarke, Rev. J. F. Messages of Faith, Hope and Love. Boston; G. H. Ellis. $1.
Clark, W. L. Hand-Book of the Law of Contracts. St. Paul: West Publishing Co.
Claretie, Jules. Jean Mornas. [Modern French Series.] Philadelphia: Christopher Sower Co.
Cochrane, C. B. Songs from the Granite Hills of New Hampshire. Boston: Cupples & Patterson. $1.25.
Cotterell, George. Poems, Old and New. London: David Nutt.
D'Anvers's Elementary History of Art. 4th ed., newly revised by the author. London: Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Scribners. $3.75.
Daudet, Alphonse. L'Arlésienne. Boston: Joseph Knight Co. 75 cents.
Dawes, C. G. The Banking System of the United States. Rand, McNally & Co. 75 cents.
Dickson, W. K. L., and Antonia. Life and Inventions of Thomas A. Edison. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $4.50.
Dillingham, Lucy. The Missing Chord. G. W. Dillingham.
Ebers, Georg. Im Schmiedefeuer. 2 vols. Leipzig: Deutsche Verlags-Anstalt; New York: Westermann.
Eckstein, Ernst. Der Besuch im Carcer. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 25 cents.
Fish, Prof. J. C. L. Lettering of Working Drawings. D. Van Nostrand Co.
Forman, Emily S. Wild-Flower Sonnets. Illustrated. Boston: Joseph Knight Co. $1.
French Folly in Maxims. Philosophy, Art, Letters. 3 vols. Brentano's. $2.25.
Goncourt, E., and J. Armande. Boston: Joseph Knight Co. 75 cents.
Gregory, W. F. Goldsmith's Traveller and Deserted Village. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn; 25 cents.
Hale, Lucretia P. Faggots for the Fireside. New and enlarged edition. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Hamilton, H. C. Martha. Putnams. $1.
Hamilton, Rev. F. W. The Church and Secular Life. Boston: Universalist Publishing House.
Jaynes, Prof. E. S. Schiller's Maria Stuart. Henry Holt & Co. 60 cents.
Justus Perthes's See-Atlas. Gotha: Justus Perthes; New York: Westermann.
Knight, Joseph. Pipe and Pouch: The Smoker's Own Book of Poetry. Boston: Joseph Knight Co. $1.25.
Lindsay, W. M. The Latin Language: An Historical Account of Latin Sounds, Stems and Flexions. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
McMurrich, Prof. J. F. A Text-Book of Invertebrate Morphology. Henry Holt & Co. $4.
Memoirs of the Prince de Joinville. Macmillan. $2.25.
Merchan, Rafael M. Variedades. Tomo I. Bogotá: Imprenta de *La Luz*.
Middleton, Colin. Without Respect of Persons. London: Lawrence & Bullen.
Newman, Prof. A. H. A History of the Baptist Churches in the United States. Christian Literature Co. $3.
Painter, Prof. F. V. N. Introduction to English Literature. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. $1.25.
Palaz, Prof. A. A Treatise on Industrial Photometry, with special application to Electric Lighting. London: Low, Marston & Co.; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $4.
Queen Victoria's Dolls. Illustrated. Marcus Ward & Co. $5.
Raymond, Walter. "Love and Quiet Life": Somerset Idylls. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Smith, Prof. W. R. Lectures on the Religion of the Semites. First Series. New ed. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $4.
Sonnenschein, Prof. E. A. A Greek Grammar for Schools. [Parallel Grammar Series.] London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Southworth, Mrs. The Fortune-Seeker. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Stuart, Ruth McEnery. The Story of Babette, a Little Creole Girl. Harpers.
Sweetser, M. F. In Distance and in Dream. Boston: Joseph Knight Co. 50 cents.
Tabb, J. B. Poems. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.
Taylor, Ida S. A Little Quaker Meeting. Illustrated. Raphael Tuck & Sons.
Taylor, Ida S. My Little Pansy People. Illustrated. Raphael Tuck & Sons.
Taylor, Ida S. The Year Book of American Authors. Illustrated. Raphael Tuck & Sons.
Taylor, Ida S. The Year-Book of English Authors. Illustrated. Raphael Tuck & Sons.
The American Church Almanac and Year-Book for 1895. James Pott & Co. 25 cents.
Theatrical Sketches; Here and There with Prominent Actors. Merriam Co.
The Surprising Adventures of Baron Munchausen. Scribners. $2.
Tyson, Edward. A Philological Essay concerning the Pygmies of the Ancients. London: David Nutt.
Villari, Prof. Pasquale. The Two First Centuries of Florentine History. Scribners. $3.75.
Ward, W. C. The Poems of William Drummond of Hawthornden. 2 vols. London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: Scribners. $3.50.
Warner, C. D. The Golden House. Harpers.
Watson, William. Odes and Other Poems. Macmillan. $1.25.
Wedmore, Frederick. English Episodes. London: Elkin Mathews; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Wesselhoeft, Lily F. The Fairy-Folk of Blue Hill. Boston: Joseph Knight Co. $1.25.
Wetherill, Charles. History of the Free Quakers in the City of Philadelphia. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Wharton, Anne H. Colonial Days and Dames. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Whiting, Lilian. The World Beautiful. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Willing, Thomson. Some Old-Time Beauties. Boston: Joseph Knight Co. $3.
Wilson, J. G. The Presidents of the United States. Appletons. $3.50.
Wise, Lieut. H. A. Captain Brand of the Schooner *Centipede*. Harpers. 50 cents.
Wright, Prof. W. A Short History of Syrian Literature. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.25.
Young, F. K., and Howell, E. C. The Minor Tactics of Chess. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Zahm, Rev. J. A. Bible, Science and Faith. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co. $1.25.

# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 27, 1894.

## The Week.

THE country is again confronted with the absurdity of a system under which a Congress that has recently met after a recess of some months takes a fortnight's vacation over the holiday season—accentuated as it is in every "short session" by the fact that there are only three months for work if every day is utilized. There are now pending many important measures which have passed the Senate or the House and await action by the other branch, and there is the overshadowing issue of currency reform pressing for consideration. Yet it is generally taken for granted that the record will show little accomplished on the 4th of March, when this Congress expires by constitutional limitation, beyond the passage of the appropriation bills and some other necessary legislation of the same perfunctory nature. Moreover, it is a discarded and repudiated body which possesses legislative power this winter. Our present Representatives were chosen more than two years ago, and the Democratic majority was rejected by the people last month. Their "mandate" was given in November, 1892, and it was revoked, so far as that is possible, in November, 1894. The result is that the Democratic Representatives who have just been repudiated by their constituents do not feel as though they had a clear commission to do anything. Indeed, some of them hold that they have no right to do anything beyond necessary and perfunctory work. Congressman Pigott of Connecticut takes this position openly. His party, he says, has been defeated overwhelmingly throughout the country, and to his mind a Democratic Representative "has no license and no authority to enact any legislation beyond that absolutely necessary for the economical administration of the Government." Republicans will share this view, just as Democrats four years ago held that their opponents had no right, after the "tidal wave" of November, 1890, to go back to Washington and try to pass the force bill. The whole system is utterly bad, and it ought to be reformed.

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Mr. Springer's new currency bill is an improvement on the Carlisle bill, but it contains the two principal defects of that measure, namely, State-bank notes and the 30 per cent. greenback deposit. The latter cannot be considered a banking measure at all. It is simply a method of enabling the Government to get rid of the bother of its legal-tender notes temporarily. It would not serve this purpose unless the banks would consent to take out circulation on those conditions, and we do not think that they would. The State-bank provision is now in such shape that all the banks taking out circulation under it would, at the start, be national banks in everything except the name, but with the difference that if they go wrong after they get started, the comptroller will not be able to pull them up as he can the national banks. This, we need scarcely say, is an important difference.

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A very instructive pamphlet on Canadian banknote currency, by L. Carroll Root, has been issued by the Reform Club. The most instructive part of it is a diagram showing how Canadian currency expands and contracts, according to the demands of business, and how inflexible and lifeless ours is. Thus the circulation of Canada, beginning with thirty-one millions in January, 1891, began to rise in August (that is, in the crop-moving season), and reached thirty-seven millions in November, falling to thirty-one millions in April, 1892. In October it was up to thirty-eight millions, and down to thirty-two in January, 1893. This was a regular rise and fall corresponding to business requirements. In the United States, on the other hand, there was no movement either up or down which had any relation to business changes. The currency ran at a dead level, except as it was augmented by the operation of the Sherman silver act, until the panic of 1893 came. Then there was a spasmodic increase of banknotes, but this increase did not become effectual until September, when the money pinch was over. Then the circulation became redundant, but there was no way to retire it. The banks, instead of "issuing" it, as is the practice in Canada, had bought it from the Government at the rate of about 115 cents per dollar. They could not retire it except by a roundabout and dilatory process, the law prohibiting the retirement of more than three millions in the aggregate in any one month, and requiring the deposit of greenbacks, dollar for dollar, for the privilege. Thus, says the pamphlet, "in the United States the extraordinary increase of our circulating medium conjured up by the stringency of 1893, but coming too late to avoid its worst consequences, has continued to the present date, giving the country, just at the time when it needed least currency, by far the largest supply it has ever had, and leaving the banks, in default of even ordinary business demands, to become gorged with such an unheard-of surplus of currency as has never before taxed the wits of financiers or disgraced the currency system of a civilized country."

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The paid-up capital of the Canadian banks is sixty-two million dollars, their surplus twenty-seven millions, and their circulation thirty-three millions. The ratio of circulation to capital is 54 per cent., and of circulation to capital and surplus about 38 per cent. Since the business conditions of the two countries are similar, and since the rise and fall of the volume of currency are not hampered in Canada by restrictions, it may be assumed that the proportion of circulation to bank capital which can be kept out in ordinary times in this country, does not exceed 50 per cent. Before the war the proportion was rather less than 50 per cent. Therefore the authorization of the Carlisle bill to the banks to issue circulating notes to the amount of 75 per cent. of their capital would not really enable them to do so if the public demand for their notes were not more than 50 per cent. In other words, a permission to issue $75,000 of notes will not enable a bank to keep out more than $50,000 if the public have no use for them. Hence the elaborate calculations made at the Treasury Department, showing what would be the profit on note issues under the Carlisle plan, fall to the ground, since they are based upon the assumption that the banks can at all times keep out circulation to the amount of 75 per cent. of their capital. There is no ground for this assumption in the experience of any country where specie payments are maintained and where banking is not a monopoly.

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The Milwaukee *Wisconsin* thinks that it is not safe to assume that the number of bank failures in the last thirty-one years can be taken as a sound basis for estimating the number in the next thirty-one years if the Baltimore plan should be adopted. A very slight examination ought to teach the contrary, since the only change which the Baltimore plan contemplates relates to the method of securing note issues. Bank failures are produced by two causes, viz., improper loans and defalcations. It is very rarely that a bank fails for any reason that cannot be classed under one or other of these heads. The question then is whether improper loans and defalcations are likely to be more numerous if the note issues are secured by a cash guarantee fund of 5 per cent. and a small tax than by a deposit of Government bonds. One of the main functions of the comptroller's office is to examine banks as to their internal condition from time to time, in order to get wind of improper loans and defalcations. These examinations are not always sufficient to prevent failure, but they are defective only as all human institutions are. Nobody has been able to make a bank-vault that a robber cannot get into if he has time enough to work on it. The Baltimore plan contemplates that the Government shall con-

tinue, as now, to be responsible for the notes of national banks. The question raised by the Milwaukee *Wisconsin*, therefore, is whether the comptroller's office would be more or less vigilant in making examinations under the Baltimore plan than under the existing system. We think that it would be more vigilant because its responsibilities would be somewhat greater.

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Admiral Walker's letter on Hawaiian affairs, made public on Wednesday week, ought to result in his court-martialling for insubordination and conduct unbecoming an officer. Such a mixture of insolence to his superior officer and going out of his way to insult the minister and the Government of a friendly nation, and all on the strength of mere surmise and air-blown rumor, could not be duplicated in naval annals. If our Navy Department were not hopelessly given over to Jingoism, and, from secretary to midshipman, spoiling for a fight, such a flagrant breach of discipline as Admiral Walker has been guilty of, and such eagerness as his to embroil this country in war, would not go unpunished for a day. He coolly confesses that he had received "entirely unqualified" orders to do a certain thing, but concluded not to do it for a while until he had made up his mind what "paramount public interests" required, and even then tells his commanding officer that he is making an egregious blunder, and really ought not to be obeyed at all. These are the ideas of sailor's duty and discipline which go to make up the "new" navy we are all to be so proud of. They are certainly new, and if ever put to the test of an actual sea-fight, would bring the navy professing, or the country tolerating, them into a pretty mess. For the practice of attacking foreign ministers and governments in official communications to the Department, and this without adducing a single fact, there is one precedent. Stevens made a gross and abusive attack on this same British minister in Honolulu, whom Walker now exposes as a dangerous plotter (as "it is currently believed"); but his attack was so outrageous and offensive that the President declined to send it to Congress, and the Republicans, getting a hint as to its nature, were able to keep down their first fierce desire to demand its production. This Stevens letter could still be had if Lodge were to call for it, and we think it is his duty to do so; we cannot too soon know the worst about the depraved character of British emissaries on our Hawaiian frontier.

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The admiral's Fee-Fi-Fo-Fum talk, if one could forget how humiliating it is, is extremely ludicrous. With the naïveté of a trained Jingo, he goes back to take up the scent where Harrison and Tracy lost it. He sees, as they saw, that we must somehow get England into the annexation intrigue, or the game is up. They failed most comically to get Great Britain to so much as lift an eyelash in the Hawaiian business, but Walker goes at the thing all over again with great courage and hopefulness. He kept his eye on Minister Wodehouse and the *Champion* like a lynx. Not for an instant did he believe that the British war-ship was going out to take "deep-sea soundings." He knew well enough that the scheme was to get him off the scene, and then he "believed" that the British minister "would seize upon any pretext, however slight, to land the *Champion's* forces"; and where should we be then? It is very well known, observes the sagacious Walker, that "the British are very much in the habit of retaining any foothold once obtained." He forgets that they once had their flag over the Hawaiian Islands, run up by just such a filibustering seaman as he, and that it was ordered down again by the home Government; but, of course, this was ancient history, and there was then no wicked Wodehouse around. Poor Walker, in fact, seems to have had a terrible time of it with British and royalist conspiracies robbing him of sleep, until he got rest by the arrival of the new English minister, "who had no other policy than the policy of his Government." The direful Wodehouse, according to this, had a policy of his own which he was going to force upon the English Government, just as Walker was going to force his policy upon the Washington authorities. All this certainly makes up an "astounding" document, as the Washington despatches gravely call it, and we agree with Lodge that to have had so much good laughing-matter retained "in the dusty pigeon-holes of the Navy Department" would have been a sin and shame.

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An interesting constitutional question is raised by the contest which four Populist candidates for Congress in Mississippi at the recent election will make of the seats awarded by the returns to the Democratic nominees. The new Constitution of Mississippi, adopted four years ago, imposes educational and property qualifications for the suffrage, under which the negro vote has been reduced to very small proportions. The act of Congress readmitting Mississippi to the Union in 1870 made certain "fundamental conditions," of which the first and most important was "that the Constitution of Mississippi shall never be so amended or changed as to deprive any citizen, or class of citizens, of the United States of the right to vote who are entitled to vote by the Constitution herein recognized." This was the Constitution of 1869—adopted while the Republicans controlled the State in the reconstruction era—which allowed practically every male citizen to vote. The real question at issue is whether such a condition could constitutionally be imposed. If so, the Union is not composed of States possessing equal rights. New York can restrict the suffrage in any way it chooses, so long as no attempt is made to discriminate "on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude"; it can establish an educational qualification, require the possession of a certain amount of property, or make any other test, so long as it applies equally to all races. But Mississippi, according to this theory, must always remain in the same condition as in 1870.

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On many subjects that came before the Federation of Labor at its recent convention in Denver there was great division of sentiment, but, on one, entire unanimity prevailed. That was the question of compulsory arbitration, which was condemned without qualification. This action is in line with that taken by all similar gatherings which speak for "Labor." The feeling seems to be universal among workingmen that a system which gave the Government authority to force a man to work against his will, on terms decreed by arbitrators, would be practically a system of slavery. There is quite as much unanimity among employers in the view that it would be practically the confiscation of property if the Government had the right to force them, at the decree of arbitrators, to hire men at wages which they could not afford to pay. So long as the two classes affected remain of their present mind on this subject, it seems like a waste of time to talk about compulsory arbitration.

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We recently quoted the testimony of an agricultural journal, the *Farmers' Advocate*, published at Burlington, Vt., that there is no such distress in that region as has been alleged; that, on the contrary, a long drive during the autumn through two counties of Vermont disclosed "absolutely nothing to indicate the existence or the recent passage of anything like 'hard times.'" Equally emphatic testimony is now rendered as to the state of Maine by what must be considered the best authority in the matter, the head of the State Grange. In his address at the recent annual convention he declared that "the present state of agriculture in Maine is one of prosperity, and the outlook for the future is encouraging." Nor did he stop with this general statement. He proceeded to affirm without any qualification that "never were the farmhouses of Maine more comfortable or better furnished and adorned; never were their occupants better fed or better clothed, or surrounded with more of the things that make life pleasant and desirable than at this present time." As for the talk about the decadence of agriculture and its present depression, he has no patience with it, and asserted that "no class of citizens is more independent, none have felt to a less degree the pressure of the hard times brought about by the recent depression in business industries, than the farmers of Maine."

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There is substantial agreement among those best qualified to judge that the same

thing is true of the farmers in the South—that, despite the low price of cotton, they are really better off to-day than at the close of any other year since the war, are less in debt, have more supplies for the winter, and enjoy greater comfort. The situation is not much less favorable at the West, outside those regions which were devastated by droughts and hot winds. Although wheat is lower than ever before, the prices of other things have fallen quite as much, so that 100 bushels of wheat will oftentimes buy more now than twenty years ago, while progress in diversified agriculture has relieved the farmer from his former dependence upon a single crop. It seems perfectly clear, therefore, that agriculture has weathered the business depression better than any other industry; that the farmer can stand "hard times" more easily than any other class of the community. It remains to be seen whether this impressive showing will have any effect upon the public mind in arresting that steady drift from comfort on the farm to distress in the city which has long been an alarming phenomenon.

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The Court of Appeals has affirmed the decision of the lower courts imposing a fine of $850 upon the members of the State Canvassing Board of 1891 for disobeying the orders of that court and canvassing the illegal return from Dutchess County. The members of the board were Frank Rice, secretary of state; Edward Wemple, comptroller; Elliot Danforth, treasurer; Charles F. Tabor, attorney-general; and John Bogart, state engineer. They should turn about now and bring suit against Senator Hill to recover the amount of the fine and the legal expenses they have incurred in defending themselves in the courts of the State, for Hill was the instigator of their offence, and used Maynard as his agent in persuading them to commit it. The Court of Appeals, by this decision, puts the final stamp of theft upon the acts of Maynard and Hill in securing control of the State Senate in 1891, and thus closes that disgraceful chapter of State history.

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Capt. Schmittberger, who took the bribe from the French Steamship Company, and has been indicted, and would certainly be convicted, has broken down under the entreaties of his wife and made a clean breast of it on Friday. His revelations would be "awful" if they came out of the clear sky. But, given the character of the police commissioners, they are as natural and simple as rain out of a cloud. Schmittberger testified that disorderly houses were allowed to flourish in the "Tenderloin" district, where he was first policeman; that they paid for protection, and that it was understood that the money went to Capt. Williams; that he himself was promoted to roundsman for finding Commissioner Wheeler's dog; that he was promoted to be sergeant without paying any money; that he got about $180 or $190 a month from the steamship companies; that he received $80 a month from a Bohemian Liquor-Dealers' Association, and gave part of it—about $50—to Inspector Williams; that policy-shops were protected at the Sixty-seventh Street station, for which they paid $200 a month each; that liquor-dealers also made payments for protection, of which he gave Williams $200 a month; that the reports sent by him about pool-rooms to headquarters were false; that Williams got from him altogether in that precinct about $1,800; that when, under Superintendent Byrnes's orders, the liquor-dealers were arrested, Jimmy Martin had the officers who made the arrests transferred for "blackmailing the liquor-dealers"; that in the Fifth Precinct, in 1892, he got $200 each from pool-rooms; that he paid $50 a month of this to Inspector McAvoy; that in 1893, at the Forty-seventh Street station, he received $500 to $600 a month from policy shops and disorderly houses; that he reported some disorderly houses to Jimmy Martin, who said he could let them alone till the school was built; that he had, under Martin's direction, to cause an apology to be made to the keeper of a disorderly house in West Fifty-sixth Street, for having disturbed her under a complaint from the neighboring citizens; that he got a letter from Sheehan asking him to allow a gambler to open a house; that in that precinct he paid Inspector McAvoy $175 a month; that McAvoy was "a very religious man," and said he would not take the money without an assurance that it did not come from disorderly houses; that he was transferred as captain to the "Tenderloin" district in December, 1893; that there he got only $200 a month; that he gave money, as a matter of policy, as "a political contribution," to Martin and Sheehan; that he asked Inspector Williams how much it would cost to make one Martens a roundsman, and Williams said $300; that he got the money from Martens and gave it to Williams, and Martens was made a roundsman accordingly; that when Martens was made sergeant, he paid Williams $1,600, and $16,000 when he was made captain; that he thought "the department rotten to the core," and that no man can get promotion in it except through "politics or money," and that he thought Supt. Byrnes an honest man; that he knew nothing against him. The committee then adjourned till Wednesday.

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Difficulties are thickening before Lord Rosebery's ministry, and it looks as if resignation or dissolution could not much longer be deferred. On top of severe and unexpected defeats in bye-elections has come the formal demand of the McCarthyites that home rule be given the first place in the Queen's speech at the opening of Parliament. Otherwise, Lord Rosebery is informed, he must not count upon Irish votes. The situation is one to call for the highest qualities of leadership. Wherein the premier most grievously falls short of possessing these is unintentionally shown by a French writer, M. Augustin Filon, who writes of him in the December *Fortnightly*. Praise is given to the Englishman by the Frenchman for having "some of our favorite characteristics"; "he does not preach, he never talks through his nose, he exhibits no Puritan cant." These may be very delightful virtues, but nothing can be more certain than that they are a fatal possession for the leader of the Liberal party in England. With its chief strength among the Nonconformists, the direct inheritors of "Puritan cant," accustomed to long years of leadership by a serious-minded man of the highest moral qualities and the most profound religious convictions, it could not, in the nature of the case, be expected to retain its zeal or its discipline under a leader of Gallic qualities. It is evidently not retaining either, and the explanation is to be found as much in a change of commanders as in the change of battlefield.

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That Zola's star is on the wane even in France is shown not only by the fact that he did not receive a single vote at the last election to the Academy; the French press, the respectable press, is beginning to weary of him, and to tell him so. What has done more than anything else to provoke the reaction is Zola's unblushing advertising of himself. His Barnumizing antics in London a year ago were pretty hard for self-respecting Frenchmen to endure, but in his late performances at Rome he appears to have both outdone and undone himself. The *Débats* takes him to task for his effrontery in playing off the King of Italy against the Pope, and himself against both and all the world, and applies to him Talleyrand's saying in regard to Napoleon, "What a pity that so great a man should be without breeding!" Rome never saw greater conceit than in Zola's person, says the *Débats*, not even in the person of Tarquinius Superbus. In his talk and ready-made interviews he quietly assumed to be the representative not only of French literature, but of humanity and civilization, of the union of the Latin races, of peace, of the science of the future, and Heaven knows what not. This is too much for the *Débats*. It agrees that the age is one of *réclame*, but the thing can be pushed too far. People get deafened at last by this auctioneer's bellowing. If Zola is so concerned about his standing with posterity, why can't he give his contemporaries a chance to breathe? With Balzac still awaiting his statue, and Musset and so many others, Zola shows uncommon anxiety to see his own set up in his lifetime. To make sure about it, he has gone to work to make it himself.

*GOOD GOVERNMENT ISSUE ENOUGH.*

PROF. TAUSSIG has some sound remarks, in his article in the *Political Science Quarterly*, on "good government as an end in itself." "What the American community now needs more than anything else is a bracing and improvement of its political machinery—a general reform, of which civil-service reform is but a part." He says this apropos of the "insinuating use of the offices" made by President Cleveland to secure the passage of the silver-purchase-repeal and the tariff laws. It must be admitted to be an open question whether, parties and politicians being what they are, silver-purchase repeal could have been wrested from an unwilling Congress on any other terms. We have the testimony of a leading Republican Senator that it could not, and that it was God's mercy to the country that Cleveland was in the White House, instead of Harrison, in 1893, to put the bill through the Senate at all hazards. It is obvious that Mr. Cleveland himself was persuaded that the thing could be done in no other way. The great advance which he has since made towards taking offices out of politics is proof enough that he submitted to the abuses of the spoils system as he did last year, only because he felt compelled to do so on patriotic grounds, for the time being.

In this he was but following the example of the father of the spoils system in this country. No one can read Thomas Jefferson's "Anas" without seeing that he was thoroughly convinced that Hamilton and the Federalists were enemies of republican institutions. He sincerely believed that they were monarchists at heart, and that they intended to restore the monarchy. Consequently any weapon was lawful to use against them. To turn them and their adherents out of office was a patriotic duty. Hence we find Jefferson jotting down such entries as this within four days after becoming President:

> "John Lee, collector of Penobscot, a royalist & very violent. To be removed."
> "Mass. Not change the marshal tho' federal, he is moderate and prudent and will be republican."
> "Maine. Davis to be removed as he will not resign. He is violent."

We recur to these well-known facts only to show how true it is that, from the beginning to the present day, the partisan use of offices and the degradation of the civil service have been due to some great "issue" dividing the voters into hostile factions that treat each other not only as enemies but as enemies of the country. How this was inevitably intensified during the war, everybody knows. Some of the most unmitigated scoundrels known to our history helped the Republican party save the country, but made it seem scarcely worth saving by their thievery and insolence in office. The tariff issue followed the rebellion only to inherit from it the same spirit of political proscription. Good men in both parties have been so intent on the issue that they either have not seen, or have felt that they must condone, the shameless traffic in offices that has gone on "for the good of the cause." In short, great political issues have set men to striving madly for the control of the Government by methods and in ways that have brought Government itself into disgrace and contempt, and made its renovation in personnel and operation the first duty of a political party that means to accomplish anything by means of the Government after getting control of it.

It is this condition of affairs that gives the Republican party an immense opportunity. What some of its members deplore as a great calamity—namely, that it is coming back to power without any "issue"—may really be made an unspeakable blessing to it and to the nation as well. Good government itself is issue enough. The only platform necessary is the good old resolution to see to it that the republic take no harm. Administration of the business of the Government as a business is a plank strong enough to hold up any party. Nor would a campaign or an administration on such an issue be humdrum and fail to "fire the popular heart." The popular heart never glows with so genial a fire as when rogues are compelled to drop their official spoil, when useless offices are abolished, and economy and efficiency made the standard of the public service. We have often heard of campaigns of "unparalleled enthusiasm," but it is safe to say that enthusiasm such as "Tippecanoe and Tyler too," or "Blaine, Blaine, James G. Blaine," never saw, would attend the work of a party that set about destroying sinecures, making public servants do a full day's work, and giving a poor man with merit as good a chance in political life as the ignoramus with a "barrel" or the ward ruffian with a "pull."

There can be no doubt that the times are ripe for such a new departure in our politics. The disappearance of other issues has brought this greatest issue of all to the front as never before. The rekindled interest in municipal government, now so conspicuous the country over, is one of the signs of a great change in the popular temper on the subject of a general improvement of our political machinery. The way of the reformer in nation or State or city never lay so straight before him. The departments at Washington are stuffed with drones and supernumeraries. The consular service is almost a sheer waste of the people's money. Protection rampant in the government of Ohio and free trade triumphant in the government of the State of New York have turned over the charitable institutions of the State, with the control of penal establishments and the public service, to bands of harpies and tricksters. With the issue gone that has made the mischief, the mischief should go also. Here is a commanding issue fairly thrusting itself on the Republican party. Here is a "mandate" more imperative than any it ever took from the hands of bosses or paymasters. If it does not heed it, and runs off again after cunningly devised mandates of its own, the sure prospect before it is another such sad awakening as came to it in 1890 and 1892, and a rueful expostulation to the people in the words of the poet:

> "On me no more a mandate lay
> Thou wouldst not have me to obey."

*THE IMPORTANCE OF RAILWAY PROSPERITY.*

THE discussion of the pooling bill and the annual report of the Interstate-Commerce Commission have directed public attention again to the question of the revenues of our railways, and the relation of those revenues to the general prosperity. The commission, while giving a modified assent to the plan for legalizing railway pools, says that such pooling ought not to be permitted unless something is done for the localities not affected. "It seems clear to us that places not covered by the pooling contract should receive as ample protection in conditional pooling legislation as those which may be directly affected by the pool, and the authority to modify the pooling contract should also extend to roads and facilities which are not directly affected by the contract."

We are not quite sure just what the commissioners mean. Cities or towns situated between pooling points would be directly affected by the short-haul section of the law now in force; if broader questions are referred to, such as the relative rates from Chicago and from New York to points in the Southern States—a burning question at present—then the commission need no more authority than they now have; but in any case at the moment the general question of the solvency of our railways must overshadow any problem which concerns the details of railway tariffs.

It must be conceded by every thoughtful man that the industry of transportation is not receiving the earnings due to it. The statistical report of the commission just issued for the year ending last June shows that after the payment of dividends there was a shortage of $28,000,000. Not only was there a great decrease in traffic, according to the commission's figures, but there was a further decline in rates, so that during the year the sum of money earned on the shares of all the railways in the United States was but half that of the previous year, and that was small compared to the capital. When it is considered that 25 per cent. of our railway companies and of our railway mileage is to-day operated by receivers, while the mercantile failures average about 1 per cent. of the number of persons in business, it must be obvious that transportation is suffering a commercial injustice compared with other trading or manufacturing industries.

The large amount of capital invested in railway property, and the importance to the community of a fair return upon that investment, make a phase of the question which has often been dwelt upon; but there is a further side to the matter. On the 30th of June, 1893, the number of men employed on the railways of the United States was 873,602. If we estimate that the average family consists of no more than two children, we have about 3,000,000 persons directly dependent upon transportation for their living. The effect of a discharge of even a part of these men, or of a reduction in their wages, is felt immediately in every town and city through which a railroad runs. It is a common complaint among what are called supply-men that the railways are buying little or no materials and are not paying for what they buy. The public do not realize how large a part of the product of our various factories, shops, and mines is dependent for a market directly or indirectly upon transportation. Lack of buying orders for rails, materials, and equipment forms no small factor in the long-continued depression of the iron industry; and so through the whole list. The extreme severity with which the operating expenses of our railways have been cut down may be a source of satisfaction to the holders of bonds or shares; but to the observer whose view takes in the whole industrial situation such radical reduction of expenses means an equally radical reduction in the amount of manufactured goods consumed, and in the labor necessary to produce those goods.

For these various reasons, it is clear that, with the sole exception of agriculture—which has problems of its own to face—there is no single industry whose prosperity so concerns the whole country as that of the railways. One may go further and say that full prosperity cannot be expected in the United States until the commercial right of the railway capitalist to a profit from the operation of his roads is acknowledged. It is, of course, out of the question to expect that railways shall be prosperous when every other business is depressed, but the point which we are now insisting upon is, that the railway industry is sustaining losses of earnings out of all proportion. It is only equity to claim that these corporations should suffer losses no greater in comparison than those which the times are inflicting upon other mercantile interests; and with the gain to revenue which the practical application of this principle would bring we should have more money spent for wages, and for equipments and renewals, which the railway plants are needing. It is true that certain roads are still paying their regular dividends—though these are comparatively few—but the statistics just published by the Interstate Commission tell a story of great depression for the railways as a whole.

It ought further to be remarked that the gain in revenues which would come from such legislation as the bill permitting pooling, would not prove a loss to the producing interests of the country. The printed tariffs of the railways are not now maintained; but the reduction made below such tariffs goes principally to fill the pockets, not of the many, but of the few large forwarders who know how to take advantage of the circumstances; in most cases they do not reach the farmer or manufacturer. In short, it would be a step toward a better condition of business throughout the United States if by some legislation the railways were permitted to increase their revenues until these were put on a level with the earnings of the mercantile community in general.

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### *WHITE AND BLACK IN THE NOVEMBER ELECTIONS.*

THERE are twenty-eight congressional districts, all in the Southern States, in each of which the negroes constitute more than one-half of the total population. In the Fifty-fourth Congress, for the first time since the war, every one of these districts will be represented by a Democrat. Even in Tennessee and North Carolina, in which the Democrats suffered defeat, the two negro districts (the Tenth Tennessee and the Second North Carolina) returned Democrats to Congress. Out of the 61 Representatives elected from the States of South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, and Arkansas, 59 are Democrats. It is a noteworthy fact that in the Alabama district in which a protectionist Populist was successful, and in the Texas district returning a Republican, the negro vote is insignificant, being but 10 per cent. of the whole in the former, and only 6 per cent. in the latter.

The truth is, that in the recent elections the black districts were almost the only portions of the country in which the Democratic losses were not great. According to the late Republican contention, such a state of things could not result from a free and fair election. Perhaps it did not, but it is even more certain that, since the 6th of last November, Senator Gorman is the only man in the whole country who has found any Republican willing to reënact a federal election law if he could. The only practical effect of the old law was to reduce to greater impotence in the South the party whose rights it was intended to protect. Since 1876 there has never been a Congress in which more than four or five of the negro districts returned Republicans or anybody but Democrats, and in most of them the Democrats had all but two or three Representatives—in some of them all but one. In the next Congress they will have all. On the other hand, the more the Republicans attempted to compel the white minorities in the black belts to permit the negro majorities to rule, the more completely did the Republicans alienate the white men of the border Southern States. So long as the Republicans felt that the Southern whites were practically all Democrats, and were likely to remain so, no matter what the Republican party did or left undone, so long were the Republicans, or some of them, certain to talk about force bills; for, as Mr. Bryce says in speaking on this subject, "To know that you are legally entitled to votes which force or fraud prevents you from getting, is enough to exasperate a saint."

The returns of the November elections in the more northern of the Southern States give the Republicans plenty of ground to hope that, if they can keep the race question out of politics, they may in the future contest those States, at least, as hopefully as the Democrats can the great majority of those of the North. Indeed, the two States of Missouri and Tennessee elect more Republicans to the next Congress than all the States of the North return Democrats. Of the eight northernmost of the Southern States, namely, Delaware, Maryland, the Virginias, North Carolina, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Missouri, the Republicans carried five—Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia, Tennessee, and Missouri. In alliance with the Populists they won North Carolina. The Democrats were successful in Virginia and Kentucky only. More noteworthy still, the Democrats elected a minority of the Representatives from these States, choosing 32, as against 31 Republicans and 3 Populists.

If the decade from March 4, 1861, to March 4, 1871, be excluded, when a large part of the white voters in these States were either in open rebellion or were disfranchised, there has never before been an election since the "Tippecanoe and Tyler too" campaign in 1840, in which an absolute majority of all the Representatives from the States in question were not Democrats. In them, doubtless, the Republicans received the great bulk of the negro vote, and without that vote would have fared very much worse than they did; but, even in them, every one of the four districts in which the negroes constitute a majority of the entire population went Democratic. In a number of the white districts, on the other hand, the Republican pluralities were greater than the total negro vote, showing that in them, at least, the majority of the whites had voted for the successful candidates.

In the far Southern States, containing most of the heavy negro districts, the Democratic party, as already pointed out, has secured all but two of the Representatives; and the two exceptions come from white districts. The last-mentioned States, even before the war, were very much more constant in their devotion to the Democracy than were those further north. Twenty years ago, however, as a rule, the Republicans chosen from Southern States came from negro districts mostly; now they come from white districts exclusively.

### *FOOTBALL AND MANNERS.*

MANY people have been disposed to consider our picture as to the effect of football on the manners as well as morals of its enthusiasts, as overdrawn, but the discussion over Hinkey is every day giving it strong support, and we commend this discussion to the careful consideration of parents. Hinkey is a young man of twenty-three, who will graduate next summer. He has been charged with a very serious offence—the form of cheating known as "slugging." The old custom in Europe, and in later years in the South, was to meet such charges by fighting the person who made them. In later and more civilized times, the accused is expected to disprove them. In England, four years ago, Lord Durham charged Sir George Chetwynd with cheating in a race by having his horse "pulled." Chetwynd had to answer or be ruled off the English race-courses. Arbitrators were accordingly appointed by the Jockey Club, and the parties appeared before them with their witnesses and some of the leading counsel of the English bar. Lord Durham proved his case, and Chetwynd disappeared from the turf.

Hinkey has never shown the slightest disposition to adopt any such course. The only defence he has produced is various declarations by his own friends that they have looked into the charges and found them false, or that "from inquiries they have made" they believe them to be false, or that the accuser is an infamous liar, or that football players, including Hinkey, are very honorable or religious men. The notion that it is the public, and not the Yale football men or Hinkey's private friends only, who need to be satisfied, does not seem to have occurred to them. What is wanted is proof, publicly offered, before some competent tribunal, in the presence of the other side, and subject to its cross-examination, that Hinkey did not on a certain date, in a certain match, "knee" a certain man. Thus far the proof offered by the accusers is overwhelmingly strong. A considerable number of honorable men say they saw it, though we believe on Hinkey's side hundreds are ready to swear they did *not* see it. But it all needs sifting by a court of some kind, and one of the objects of a college education is to make young men sensitive under charges of this nature, and eager for investigation. Any training which makes them shrink from such investigation, and meet imputations on their honor with abuse, or threats, or "cuss words," fathers and mothers may rest assured, is bad.

That football seems to have some such effect may be readily gathered from the events of the last few weeks. It is only a week ago that a meeting of a Yale Alumni Association was held in Hartford, Conn. One of the principal persons present was a prominent New England clergyman, the Rev. Dr. Twichell. Not one word was said by him or any one else about the necessity of meeting the charges against Hinkey in the way now customary among men of honor in the Northern States and in England. No one said Hinkey must clear himself. What Dr. Twichell said was that the charges "were calumnious and abominable," and then a young man named Huntington, jr., declared that "if Hinkey would thrash the editor of the New York *Evening Post*, he would become the most popular man in the country." The report does not record any protest against this language on the part of the clergyman, and it all ended in an invitation to Hinkey to a dinner. The whole scene was one which might well have been laid in South Carolina in the fifties, when we used to boil so over the Southern custom of "thrashing" critics. Who would have believed that such an illustration of manners and morals among college graduates would be possible in the heart of New England in the nineties, in the presence of a divine? Well, nobody; at least nobody who did not foresee football. The other day in Florida, Mr. Metcalf, the former editor of the *Forum*, and now editor of the Jacksonville *Citizen*, was waited on by a local police commissioner and church member, who put a pistol to his head and threatened to kill him for some comments on his official conduct. We all said, particularly when the church took no notice of it, "How Southern!" But evidently we are not far from a similar state of things here if no means of abating the football mania can be discovered. Here is a young man who is supposed to have been learning to be modest, law-abiding, peaceable, reverent, patient, and honorable, in a richly endowed institution, and he is advised, in the presence of a pastor, to meet imputations on his character not with refutation, but with a big stick.

That the football mania leads naturally to such displays is not difficult to show. One of its defences, by a Yale professor, insists on the "absolute necessity of personal encounters of some sort to the education of young men, especially men of the strongest character." This is the doctrine under which before the war the manners of Southern young men were formed, and to it were universally ascribed the savage street fights and the quarrelsome and lawless temper which disgraced Southern society and filled the North with horror. Its production to-day by a New England teacher for the benefit of New England youths, shocking as it is, is the direct product of the football craze. The game, in the first place, or rather the preparation for it, greatly exalts physical strength and prowess, and does so at the time of a man's life when he is most susceptible to such influences. He finds fame and honor in rich measure in the possession of such qualities, displayed, not in any useful industry, but simply in knocking people about, throwing them down, rolling them over, kicking and "kneeing" them. This is not all, however, or the worst. It is the one game in which loss of temper, or even desire to win, tempts constantly to the infliction of personal injury on one's opponents. It is the one game, too, in which such injury can be inflicted by an exasperated player with least chance of detection. The proposal to increase the number of umpires, and the presence of police on the ground, to prevent cheating, show how great the temptation to cheat by the use of unlawful violence is, and how difficult it is to prevent it. And no man can live long under this temptation without finding growing up within him a savage temper, an indifference to suffering, and a disposition to meet criticism with kicks and cuffs.

We have been surprised by the appearance, within thirty years of our war and within the shadow of Memorial Hall, of the assertion that football was a good preparation for modern warfare. But it is still more surprising that we should so soon have forgotten the effect on the slaveholder which we used to ascribe to the unrestrained power of "larruping" the negroes. There is nothing better established by history than that the practice of committing violence on the bodies of fellow-men has an extremely bad effect on manners, that it diminishes the respect for humanity, begets indifference to persuasion, and greatly increases the respect for simple muscle. The history of pugilism, of naval and military flogging, of slavery, of torture, all makes this lesson clear and impressive. That we should have to argue it all over again, and should witness illustrations of it in New York and New England in 1894, is surely most singular, and, to a student of human nature, most interesting.

### *DESCARTES AND HIS WORKS.*

AN edition of all the writings of Descartes really does not exist. Every collection is incomplete, and gives only translations either of the French writings into Latin or of the Latin writings into French. The French ministry of public instruction has now assumed the duty of bringing out a worthy edition. M. Charles Adam, in the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* for November 15, considers what researches have to be made and how much can be expected from the new edition. In regard to Descartes himself and his philosophy, extremely little is to be expected. He is the subject of one of the best biographies that ever was written, that of Baillet, which has totally eclipsed an earlier one in Latin by Pierre Borel, containing some valuable information not in Baillet. The frontispiece of Baillet's book, by the way, is engraved from the admirable portrait, familiar to everybody at first or second hand, by Franz Hals, in the Louvre. That engraving, though not remarkable otherwise, is interesting as showing details which to day can hardly be made out in the original without something to call attention to them. As for Descartes's writings, it would not matter much now if they were all destroyed. He himself called his philosophy an application of his geometry; but rather the achievement lay in showing how mathematical reasoning was to be applied to philosophy. It was an idea so simple, so statuesque, that we all get the full bene-

fit of it though we never look into the original expression of it. Every educated man reads the 'Discours de la Méthode'—most educated men the 'Méditations'—at least, it was so when a college life was a literary, and not an athletic, life. But few philosophers are less pored over. A metaphysician will devote more time to the histories of Cartesianism by Bordas-Demoulin and Bouillier than to the simple words of its author.

Of course, whoever wishes to understand the history of science will pay a more minute attention to the details of the writings of Descartes, and also to his correspondence. And it may be that diligent research will yet bring to light letters by him and to him not altogether unimportant for the study of the intellectual status of his times. But not very much can be expected, even in that direction—certainly nothing comparable for an instant with the mine of historical information with which the new edition of Huygens is enriching the world. After all, it is no great hardship to have to read Descartes in the Elzevirs, and in the various volumes of *Opera posthuma* and *inedita* which have been dribbling down to us during the past two centuries and a half.

Descartes's three dreams, which mark the beginning of his philosophical career, were dreamed November 10, 1619, and he died in February, 1650, during a visit to Queen Christina in Stockholm. He had carried with him to Sweden a chest containing those of his papers which he considered interesting, and while there had busied himself, at the Queen's command, with arranging them. After his death the papers in the chest were inventoried, and so were, separately, those which he had left behind in Holland. The inventory of the chest, given in brief form by Borel, was found not many years since in its original bad French among the papers of Christian Huygens. The other inventory we know nothing about, but it could have contained nothing valuable except letters; and the best of his letters were in the chest in Sweden. M. Adam clearly proves that there are only a few pages in that chest whose loss is to be regretted. The head of the house of Descartes, the elder brother of the great philosopher, looked upon him as the Squire du Perron, who was demeaning himself in an eccentric and scarcely dignified way in busying himself with science; and he readily made a present of the chest and its contents to the French ambassador in Sweden, M. Chanut. Chanut in turn gave it to his brother-in-law Clerselier, who published two volumes of posthumous writings. He intended to bring out a third, but died in 1684 without having done so, leaving the papers as a legacy to J. B. Legrand, together with 500 livres for whoever would undertake their publication. Legrand, in 1690, writes to a correspondent: "Je vous diray pour votre consolation, Monsieur, que tous les manuscrits de M. Descartes qui n'ont point été imprimez sont en ma possession, outre 120 lettres que j'ai recueillies de diverses personnes, sans parler des mémoires qui me sont venus de la part de sa famille." There was a niece who seems to have conceived the idea that uncle René was rather a man to be proud of than otherwise; the more so as she looked upon his fame as an appanage of the family, a sort of addition to the coat of arms. The Abbé Legrand allowed Baillet the use of all the manuscripts. M. Adam suspects, on slight grounds, that Baillet's celebrated biography may be "at least in part" (which seems to us particularly weak, for it has certainly not been worked over unless possibly to render it more catholic) the work of Legrand. Legrand, dying in 1704, left the papers and the 500 livres to a M. Marmion, who died the following year, bequeathing the papers and the 500 livres to the mother of the Abbé Legrand. Nothing more is known of their history.

One thing there was in that chest that human curiosity cannot but desire to see. Incidentally we may mention that the chest on its way to Paris was sunk in a river-boat, was recovered, and all the papers as well dried as might be, and that from them were printed some of the invaluable correspondence which is contained in the edition of Cousin (to mention the least rare book which contains the bulk of it). But the curiosity we mean is a blank book which Decartes began "Anno 1619, kalendis Januariis." It began with a mathematical essay of eighteen leaves, entitled "Parnassus." The conditions favorable to mathematical genius—the stuff of which it is made, was just at that instant in its most plastic state. One would be glad to see what it was that the man who, in a few months, was about to invent analytical geometry, then thought worthy of that ambitious title. Then "après six feuillets vides est un escrit qui contient autres six feuillets, en prenant le liure d'un autre sens, les discours intitulés: *Olympica*." Among those pieces was the narrative of the three dreams, not so very extraordinary in themselves, but producing an extraordinary impression upon Descartes. The inventory says that on the margin was written "11 Novembre cepi intelligere fundamentum inuenti mirabilis." But, according to Baillet, who had the book before him, there was a date, 10 Nov. 1619, in the text, and 11 Nov. 1620, in the margin. This affords an excellent touchstone for the precious simplicity of commentators. The writing, if we had it, would disclose how the marvellous discovery appeared to its author at its first conception, and before he began to think how to put it into a shape acceptable to the general public. Then, "reprenant le liure en droit sens," two leaves of "quelques considérations sur les sciences." Next, half a page of algebra. Then a few lines of *Democritica*. Then, again turning the book, five and one half leaves of *Experimenta*. Finally, four pages entitled, "Præambula, initium sapientiæ est timor Domini." What a study for the psychologist would be there!

## THE "MAN WITHOUT A COUNTRY" A HUNDRED YEARS AGO.

NEW YORK, December, 1894.

THE original manuscript of Thomas Paine's memorial, sent from his Luxembourg prison to Monroe, American Minister in Paris, is in possession of Mr. Alfred Morrison, London. I have recently compared it with the earliest and latest editions of the Memorial in England and America, and find that this very interesting document has never been really published in either country. I have no doubt that Mr. Morrison's MS. is the identical one written by Paine in prison. It bears evidence of preparation for the French translator in Paris, where alone it has appeared with any fulness. There are erasures of several passages, still quite legible, proper enough in the private Memorial, but which would not have been repeated in a copy for the press. It appeared in Paris with this long title:

"Mémoire de Thomas Payne, autographe et signé de sa main: addressé à M. Monroe, ministre des États-Unis en France, pour réclamer sa mise en liberté comme citoyen Américain, 10 Sept., 1794.

"Robespierre avait fait arrêter Th. Payne en 1793: il fut conduit au Luxembourg où le glaive fut longtemps suspendu sur sa tête. Après onze mois de captivité, il recouvra la liberté, sur la réclamation du ministre Américain—c'était après la chûte de Robespierre. Il reprit sa place à la Convention, le 8 decembre, 1794 (18 frimaire an iii.)

"Ce mémoire contient des renseignemens curieux sur la conduite politique de Th. Payne en France pendant la Révolution, et à l'époque du procès de Louis XVI. Ce n'est point, dit-il, comme Quaker qu'il ne vota pas La Mort du Roi, mais par un sentiment d'humanité, qui ne tenait à ses principes religieux.—VILLENAVE."

Matthieu Guillaume Thérèse Villenave (born 1762) was a journalist. The date is not given, but the pamphlet appeared in 1795. It contains nearly all of the written Memorial, and a portrait of Paine "peint par Ped [Peale] à Philadelphie, dessiné par F. Bonneville, gravé par Sandoz." The same picture is engraved in the American pamphlet (1796) containing the much-abridged Memorial, but beneath it, "Bolt sc. 1703."* In the latter pamphlet, published by "Benj. Franklin Bache, No. 112 Market Street," extracts from the Memorial appear as an Appendix to the famous "Letter to George Washington." About nine pages of the MS. are omitted, some of them perhaps by Bache, who had to consider the situation of the so-called "French Party" in America. This party might have been damaged by such a reminder of the wrongs of the Revolution as the subjoined sketch of a scene in the Convention, which has not been described by French or English historians, though briefly alluded to by Guizot and Louis Blanc. After stating that every American in Paris knew of his purpose to return to America so soon as a constitution was adopted in France, Paine continues:

' But it was not the Americans only, but the Convention also, that knew what my intentions were upon that subject. In my last discourse, delivered at the Tribune of the Convention, January 19, 1793, on the motion for suspending the execution of Louis XVI., I said (the Deputy Bancal read the translation in French): 'It unfortunately happens that the person who is the subject of the present discussion is considered by the Americans as having been the friend of their revolution. His execution will be an affliction to them, and it is in your power not to wound the feelings of your ally. Could I speak the French language, I would descend to your bar, and in their name become your petitioner to respite the execution of the sentence.'—'As the Convention was elected for the express purpose of forming a constitution, its continuance cannot be longer than four or five months more at furthest; and if, after my *return to America*, I should employ myself in writing the history of the French Revolution, I had rather record a thousand errors on the side of mercy than be obliged to tell one act of severe justice'—'Ah, citizens! give not the tyrant of England the triumph of seeing the man perish on a scaffold who had aided my much-loved America.'

"Does this look as if I had abandoned America? If she abandons me in the situation I am in, to gratify the enemies of humanity, let that disgrace be to herself. But I know the people of America better than to believe it, tho' I undertake not to answer for every individual.

"When this discourse was pronounced, Marat launched himself into the middle of the hall and said that I 'voted against the punishment of death because I was a Quaker.' I replied that I voted against it 'both morally and politically.' I certainly went a great way, considering the rage of the times,

* This fine portrait of Paine is one of two painted by Charles Willson Peale, and is now in Independence Hall. The other was among the portraits of eminent Americans which, after long exhibition in Philadelphia by Rembrandt Peale, were sold by him to Mr. Macdonough. They were purchased from him by the Boston Museum, with the exception of the Paine, which was bought by Joseph Jefferson, the actor. Mr. Jefferson intended to present it to some public institution, but it was burned with his house at Buzzard's Bay. I have this history from Mr. Jefferson, who adds, "The cruel fire roasted the splendid *Infidel*, so I presume the saints are satisfied."

in endeavoring to prevent that execution. I had many reasons for so doing. I judged, and events have shewn that I judged rightly, that if they once began shedding blood, there was no knowing where it would end; and as to what the world might call *honour*, the execution would appear like a nation killing a mouse; and, in a political view, would seem to transfer the hereditary claim to some more formidable enemy. The man could do no more mischief; and that which he had done was not only from the vice of his education, but was as much the fault of the Nation, in restoring him after he had absconded June 21st, 1791, as it was his. I made the proposal for imprisonment until the end of the war, instead of the punishment of death. Upwards of three hundred members voted for that proposal. The sentence of absolute death (for some members had voted the punishment of death conditionally) was carried by a majority of twenty-five out of more than seven hundred."

Such is the testimony of this perfectly qualified witness to an incident of large historical significance, and it now for the first time reaches the light in his own language. "I return," he then says, "from this digression to the proper subject of my Memorial." This is his claim to liberation as an American citizen, charged with no crime. Paine, against whom there was never any charge, was imprisoned under a revolutionary edict against "foreigners," and his release refused on the pretext that he was a Frenchman! This last pretext was suggested by his enemy, Gouverneur Morris, United States Minister, who wrote to the French Minister, "Il [Paine] fut adopté citoyen français, et ensuite élu Membre de la Convention. Sa conduite depuis cette époque n'est pas de mon ressort." The American Minister, having thus renounced "jurisdiction" (*ressort*) over Paine, as a "French citizen," at the same time wrote to his own Government that he had claimed Paine as an American citizen, but that the French Government claimed that he was their citizen, and held him for "crimes imputed to him." There was no such imputation, but the American Government, to which the pretended reclamation was never sent, could do no more. The lying letter of Morris to his Government being kept a profound secret, the seeming non-interference of Washington was regarded in America as evidence that Paine was a French citizen, while in France it was regarded as proof of the President's hostility to Paine, who, solely on this account, would have been executed but for Robespierre's fall. After that, Robespierre's prisoners were all released, but Paine, not being under any accusation by Robespierre or his party, was held by the supposed desire of Washington.

More than six weeks had passed after Robespierre's fall when the solitary prisoner received a letter from Mr. Whiteside, a Philadelphian in Paris, saying that Monroe had no orders respecting him, and "from what I can learn from all the late Americans, you are not considered either by the Government, or by the individuals, as an American citizen. You have been made a French citizen, which you have accepted, and you have further made yourself a servant of the French Republic; and, therefore, it would be out of character for an American Minister to interfere in their internal concerns." Paine supposed Whiteside his friend, but Monroe's comment on the letter (September 18) renders it pretty certain that the letter was inspired by Morris, still in France. This letter led Paine to write his Memorial, and among the passages suppressed in the American pamphlet is the following:

"It is somewhat extraordinary that the idea of my not being a citizen of America should have arisen only at the time that I am imprisoned in France because or on the pretence that I am a foreigner. The case involves a strange contradiction of ideas. None of the Americans who came to France while I was at liberty, had conceived any such idea or circulated any such opinion; and why it should arise now is a matter yet to be explained. However discordant the late American Minister, Gouverneur Morris, and the late French Committee of Public Safety were, it suited the purpose of both that I should be continued in arrestation. The former wished to prevent my return to America, that I should not expose his misconduct, and the latter lest I should publish to the world the history of its wickedness. Whilst that Minister and that Committee continued, I had no expectation of liberty."

Not having a copy of the Constitution in prison, Paine makes the mistake of supposing that the article (i., section 9, clause 8), forbidding persons holding office under the United States from accepting any office under a foreign State, read "citizen," and shows its inapplicability to himself. He reminds Monroe that he became an American citizen by the Revolution, as all Americans did; that in addition he had twice taken an official oath of allegiance there, and none in France or any other country; that he had accepted an invitation to assist in framing a constitution for a country in which no government existed; and that his citizenship in France was simply honorary like that conferred at the same time on many eminent foreigners. He affirms his constancy to America:

"I have never abandoned her in thought, word, or deed; and I feel it incumbent on me to give this assurance to the friends I have in that country, and with whom I have always intended and am determined, if the possibility exists, to close the scene of my life. It is there that I have made myself a home. It is there that I have given the service of my best days. America never saw me flinch from her cause in the most gloomy and perilous of her situations; and I know there are those in that country who will not flinch from me."

In conclusion he proposes that Monroe shall reclaim him conditionally, "until the opinion of Congress can be obtained on the subject of my citizenship of America, and that I remain in liberty under the protection of the Minister during that interval."

In August and September, 1792, the National Assembly made twenty-eight foreigners honorary citizens of France, among them Paine, Washington, Hamilton, Madison, and Joel Barlow. That the Convention did not regard such citizenship as conferring any rights or liabilities was shown not merely by Paine's imprisonment as "a foreigner," but by the fact that when Joel Barlow wished to become an actual French citizen, it had to be effected by a special decree of the Convention. This decree, dated February 17, 1793, admitting "Joel Barlow au titre et aux droits de citoyen français," signed by the President (Dubois de Crancé) and other officers of the Convention, I discovered in March last in the State Archives at Paris (États-Unis, vol. 37, fol. 130). Barlow presently became United States Consul in Algiers, then Minister to France, no question being raised about his citizenship, not even by his political opponent, Gouverneur Morris, who had been in Paris when he was naturalized. Nor was the question about Paine genuine. But even after this was settled, by the action of Washington, Randolph, and Monroe, such was the secrecy, during those days of negotiation with England, which had outlawed Paine, that the popular belief remained that the Government had refused to recognize Paine as a citizen. His vote was actually refused at New Rochelle on that ground. It is droll to find him applying to Barlow (at Washington) for a certificate (on which to prosecute the inspectors) that he (Barlow) "and other Americans in Paris went in a body to the Convention to reclaim me." Whether the actual French citizen so far assisted the American citizen I know not, but Paine's suit failed, and he never cast a vote under the Union he helped to found.

Barlow apparently made a good thing out of his French citizenship, besides escaping perils in France, and perhaps from his native land (anent Scioto); but it should be said that ideas of citizenship had not then crystallized. Less than two years before, Washington and Jefferson were proposing to the French Chargé d'Affaires, Louis Otto, a large reciprocity in citizenship. This is recorded in the State Archives at Paris (États-Unis, vol. 35). April 4, 1791, Otto writes home, "The plan of the President and Mr. Jefferson is to naturalize in America all French citizens, as regards commerce." October 24, 1791, Otto, having just been with Jefferson at Mount Vernon, reports the Secretary as saying to him there, that if he (Jefferson) were to frame a treaty of commerce, "it should consist of a single article, and that would be, to naturalize respectively all French and all United States citizens, and place both on a footing of perfect equality in all the ports of the two nations, whether in Europe or other parts of the world." Monroe proved Paine to be in no real sense a French citizen, but wrote him that even if he had been one, it "by no means deprived him of being an American one." "The Congress have never decided upon citizenship in a manner to regard the present case." But it took Monroe three months to cut the knot that bound Paine after all Robespierre's victims were released—that knot being a secret letter of his predecessor declaring Paine a French citizen, to whom the American Minister's "jurisdiction" did not extend.

Ten years before, Washington wrote to Madison: "Must the merits and services of *Common Sense* continue to glide down the stream of time, unrewarded by this country? His writings certainly have had a powerful effect on the public mind—ought they not then to meet an adequate return?" Now Washington is unconsciously holding his old comrade a prisoner. One after another the prisoners of Robespierre have departed. Paine alone paces the solitary corridors of the Luxembourg, wondering, as he wrote to Monroe, what the motives of his imprisonment could be. His sufferings were greater than I knew when writing his biography. The supplies were diminished: he had no candle in his cell, no soap; and at length was in want of the necessaries of life. In his fifty-eighth year, more aged by troubles, insufficient food and clothing bring on an abscess that threatens to end the life the guillotine had spared. He writes to Monroe that he is without friends, neglected by his country, in need, his health gone, and asks for a little money. America, he says, can gain little credit by such neglect of a citizen. The abscess was still eating into Paine's side when he wrote the bitter letter to Washington which has been so severely judged. Had Paine's care for his American citizenship been less, had he imitated the example of Barlow, he also might have escaped trouble under the Reign of Terror, and afterwards cast an unchallenged vote at New Rochelle. As it was, Jarvis wrote truly under his picture of the dead Paine: "A man who devoted his whole life to two objects—rights of man and freedom of conscience—had his vote denied when living, and was denied a grave when dead."

MONCURE D. CONWAY.

# Correspondence.

## REFORM BY REPEAL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: So much learned obscurity is being indulged in about the "elasticity" and other mechanical and ideal qualities of currency, that we are in danger of forgetting that stability and confidence are the really essential qualities, and these have been pretty effectually legislated to death during many years past. It should not be in the least surprising that the slowly gathering but inevitable consequences of so many wild experiments of the past are beginning to show themselves and to startle those who have anything to lose. Nevertheless, if a maximum of zeal and a minimum of reflection should impel the present depositaries of power to radical and sweeping changes, even of the disorders plainly existing, it would be quite possible to convert mere confusion and distress into chaos and ruin.

The present condition, being mainly traceable to bad legislation in the past, would seem at least partly curable by the easy expedient of retracing such adventures—that is, by simple measures of repeal—deferring reconstructive legislation for further discussion and reflection. A great historian, with whom our statesmen at least should be familiar, has asserted the generally disastrous results of experimental legislation on social and technical subjects, and in support of his view has pointed out that the most beneficial legislation recorded in the annals of every age and race of mankind has invariably been *legislation repealing some former legislation.*

Be that as it may, a most beneficial start has been made in our case by the repeal of the Sherman Act, thus suspending the further creation of silver certificates practically redeemable in gold. Assuming that there are outstanding of these and other demand notes of the Government several hundred millions in amount, which must, as the law now stands, be reissued as fast as received by the Treasury for payment, the next step, as now generally admitted, is to get those demand liabilities paid off and definitively extinguished. But it is not hard to see the great danger of sudden and ruinous contraction that might ensue if this end, however excellent, were precipitated by rash or suddenly contrived schemes, relying for the replacement of that great mass of existing currency on certain expected action of National and State banks, which is by no means certain of occurring as anticipated.

It would seem that two measures of simple repeal can be suggested which could in no event work harm, and must advance our financial stability a long way in the right direction. These are the repeal of the legislative clause requiring the constant reissue of the Government demand notes, and a modification of the bond security and excessive taxes required from the national banks. If to these measures of simple repeal should be added affirmative authority to the Executive to issue low interest-bearing gold bonds to assist the process of retirement, and to meet possible emergencies, so much will have been accomplished toward recovering stability and confidence in the currency that the country might afford to defer further perilous experiments till the subject shall have been more thoroughly discussed at home and abroad.

I say *abroad* advisedly, because it is evident that the tendency of all foreign-held American securities is, and has long been, homeward to their place of issue. How many of these returning obligations have been already absorbed here, and how many are still to come in case of continued want of confidence, are matters of dread uncertainty. There is not one citizen, from laborer to capitalist, whose fortunes are not vitally affected by this uncertainty; for so long as the process continues, it must work a steady reduction of the capital available here for all the operations of industry. Notwithstanding the present engorgement of unemployed money at financial centres, every dollar of such reduction must be severely felt by all classes at the first signs of a recovery of our productive industries. And there is no way of checking this portentous loss of foreign capital heretofore available at a low cost for our uses, except the restoration, at any cost, of confidence in American currency; for this last in every country underlies all financial credit, and is equally essential for the attraction or retention of foreign capital.

Yours very respectfully,

I. J. Wistar.

Philadelphia, December 21, 1894.

## SLAVE HOLDINGS IN VIRGINIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The reviewer of my article, "The Slave Owner of Princess Anne County, Virginia, 1810," which appeared in the *William and Mary Quarterly* for January and July, in the *Nation*, August 23, requested me to look for the census report for 1820. I have done so, but without success, but the following, derived from the personal-property returns for 1820 and 1830, may prove of interest to all who are interested in the history of slavery. There were in Princess Anne County in 1820 4,812 whites, 3,705 slaves, and 251 free blacks. Of the slaves above twelve years of age,

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 220 | persons | owned | 1 | each | 220 |
| 119 | " | " | 2 | " | 238 |
| 74 | " | " | 3 | " | 222 |
| 52 | " | " | 4 | " | 208 |
| 27 | " | " | 5 | " | 135 |
| 21 | " | " | 6 | " | 126 |
| 19 | " | " | 7 | " | 133 |
| 11 | " | " | 8 | " | 88 |
| 7 | " | " | 9 | " | 63 |
| 7 | " | " | 10 | " | 70 |
| 5 | " | " | 11 | " | 55 |
| 8 | " | " | 12 | " | 96 |
| 4 | " | " | 13 | " | 52 |
| 3 | " | " | 14 | " | 42 |
| 4 | " | " | 15 | " | 60 |
| 3 | " | " | 18 | " | 54 |
| 1 | " | " | 22 | " | 22 |
| 1 | " | " | 26 | " | 26 |
| 586 | | | | | 1,910 |

In 1830 there were in the county 5,033 whites, 3,726 slaves, and 343 free blacks, and the numbers of owners of slaves above twelve years of age were:

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 204 | persons | owned | 1 | each | 204 |
| 121 | " | " | 2 | " | 242 |
| 74 | " | " | 3 | " | 222 |
| 57 | " | " | 4 | " | 228 |
| 49 | " | " | 5 | " | 215 |
| 21 | " | " | 6 | " | 126 |
| 11 | " | " | 7 | " | 77 |
| 9 | " | " | 8 | " | 72 |
| 19 | " | " | 9 | " | 117 |
| 7 | " | " | 10 | " | 70 |
| 7 | " | " | 11 | " | 77 |
| 2 | " | " | 12 | " | 24 |
| 5 | " | " | 13 | " | 65 |
| 2 | " | " | 14 | " | 28 |
| 2 | " | " | 15 | " | 30 |
| 2 | " | " | 16 | " | 32 |
| 2 | " | " | 17 | " | 34 |
| 1 | " | " | 19 | " | 19 |
| 1 | " | " | 20 | " | 20 |
| 1 | " | " | 22 | " | 22 |
| 1 | " | " | 29 | " | 29 |
| 586 | | | | | 1,953 |

Yours respectfully, Edward W. James.

Richmond, Va., December 14, 1894.

[These data are valuable as showing the movement of population, which for the county in question was 9,500 in 1810; 8,768 in 1820; 9,102 in 1830, with an oscillating decline also exhibited in the total number of slaves—3,926, 3,705, 3,726 respectively. From the two tables we obtain a constant ratio for slave children under twelve, namely, 48 per cent. Whether in a State notoriously given to slave-breeding this ratio is excessive, or the reverse, we do not know; nor whether the apparent exemption of infant slave property from taxation was an intentional premium upon that industry.—Ed. Nation.]

## THE ATHLETIC YARDSTICK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The effect of football upon the college intellect deserves investigation by college psychologists. The president of a Western college of the better grade—he is professor of psychology, too, by the way—congratulated his two hundred students in chapel assembled upon the (alleged) fact "that their progress and success in study during the term just finished had been fully equal to their success in intercollegiate athletics and football."

And the pitiful thing about it was that not even a freshman smiled.—Respectfully, J.

## THE SPIRITUAL YARDSTICK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There is food for reflection in the following account of the founding of Yale College given by President Thomas Clap in 1766:

"Ten of the principal Ministers in the Colony were nominated and agreed upon by a general Consent, both of the Ministers and People, to stand as Trustees or Undertakers to found, erect, and govern a College. The Ministers so nominated met at *New-Haven* and formed themselves into a Body or Society, to consist of eleven Ministers, including a Rector, and agreed to Found a College in the Colony of Connecticut; which they did at their next Meeting, at *Branford*, in the following Manner, viz.: Each Member brought a Number of Books and presented them to the Body; and laying them on the Table said these Words, or to this Effect: '*I give these Books for the founding a College in this Colony.*' Then the Trustees as a Body took Possession of them, and appointed the Rev. Mr. *Russel* of *Branford* to be the Keeper of the Library, which then consisted of about forty Volumes in Folio." (*The Annals or History of Yale College*, p. 3.)—Respectfully, M.

## THE BURNING OF FROUDE'S 'NEMESIS OF FAITH.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I was at Oxford at the time of the publication of 'The Nemesis of Faith,' and my recollection differs from the account given in the passage quoted from the *Prospective Review* by Mr. Moncure Conway, if in that account it is implied that the burning of the book was the public act of the college. It was understood at the time, I believe, to have been the personal act of the Rev. Dr. William Sewell, one of the tutors, a well-known high-church writer, and a man, from his general character, likely to give vent to his feelings in such a demonstration.

With regard to the case of Froude, as well as to that of Shelley, it should be borne in mind that the college statutes in those times were distinctly religious, and that the colleges were receiving students on the understanding that they were places of religious education. I hardly see how the college could have retained

either Froude or Shelley under these conditions. Froude, as a Fellow, was a member of the governing and educating body, among the functions of which were religious instruction and supervision.

As I took an active part in the movement for the abolition of religious tests, I shall not be suspected of framing excuses for intolerance.

Yours faithfully, GOLDWIN SMITH.

TORONTO, December 22, 1894.

## BETTERMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the review of 'The Vermont Settlers and the New York Speculators' in the *Nation* of December 6 this statement is quoted and credited to "an American General and M. C., Gen. Vielé"—"*Betterment* is not an American word, but *benefit* is the word there used. . . . The word [betterment] is not to be found in the English language current in America."

The word is current not only in Vermont and in England, as your review points out, but its use is widely extended through this country, as the following references will show. Your quotation from Chief Justice Lyon of Wisconsin may be reinforced by like expressions stating that "these statutes are commonly known as *betterment* laws," Cooley (Mich.), 'Constitutional Limitations,' pp. 386 and 389; Story, J. (Mass.), in Bright vs. Boyd, 1 Story, 478; Chancellor Kent (N. Y.), vol. 2, Commentaries 336, note (*b*); Shipman, J. (Conn.), in Griswold vs. Bragg, 6 Fed. Rep., 342. "*Betterment* Laws, 22 *Law Reporter* 1," is found in Jones's 'Index to Legal Periodicals.' "The value of *betterments* or improvements made on land," and similar expressions, Albee vs. May, 2 Paine C. Ct., 74; Deffeback vs. Hawke, 115 U. S., 399 (a Dakota case), in brief of counsel. "*Betterments* which they have added to the land," 3 Pomeroy's 'Equity,' 190 4, note *b* (San Francisco). "An addition or *betterment* of a building," Phillips (Washington, D. C.), 'Mechanics' Liens,' section 174, first edition. "The claim for *betterments*," Sedgwick and Wait (N. Y.), 'Trial of Title to Land,' 467; also, "compensation [to mortgagee] for *betterments*," Perry's note, 2 Story, 'Equity Jurisprudence,' section 799a, tenth edition (Boston). The heading *betterments* with cross references is found in the U. S. Digest, First Series (Boston), in the American Digests for 1888-1894 (except 1892), Digest of Federal Reporter, Digest of N. W. Reporter (St. Paul), in the General Digests for 1892 and 1893 (Rochester), and in the Complete Digests (N. Y.) for 1887, 1888, 1889.

This last contains the only suggestion of the use of *benefit* as a substitute for betterment, the cross-reference being to "assessments for *benefits* from local improvements"; but this is not an instance of the use of *benefits* as meaning betterments, but (and there is a decided difference) of the use of betterments as including *benefits*—that is, it extends betterments to something which has not heretofore been included within the definition of that term. But I have not been able to find a single example of the use of the word *benefit* as the equivalent of "betterments or improvements made on lands" (2 Paine C. Ct., 74, Judge Paine, Reporter, 1834), which is the sense in which it is stated in the above quotation to be used in this country. In that sense I have been unable to find it used at all.—Yours, etc.,

C. B. BLAIR.

CHICAGO, December 14, 1894.

# Notes.

ROBERT CLARKE & Co., Cincinnati, have in press 'The National Military Park: Chickamauga—Chattanooga: An Historical Guide, with maps and illustrations,' by H V. Boynton.

P. Blakiston, Son & Co., Philadelphia, will soon publish 'The Dynamics of Life,' by William R. Gowers, M.D., of London.

Ginn & Co., Boston, have nearly ready 'Alfred de Musset: Selections from his Poetry and Comedies,' edited with notes by Prof. L Oscar Kuhns of Wesleyan University.

Dr. Benjamin Rand of the Harvard Philosophical Department will shortly issue a third edition of his 'Selections Illustrating Economic History since the Seven Years' War.' He will likewise publish in connection therewith a revised bibliography of economic history, which will also appear in separate form simultaneously in English, French, and German.

Macmillan & Co. announce 'Greek Studies,' being the posthumous papers of Walter Pater, collected by his friend Mr. Shadwell of Oriel College; 'The Making of the England of Elizabeth,' by Allen B. Hinds; two volumes of Scott's poetical works, edited by Andrew Lang, uniform in style with the Dryburgh Edition of the Waverley Novels; and further volumes in the "Ex-Libris Series," namely, on the 'Decoration and Illustration of Books,' by Walter Crane, on 'Modern Book Illustration,' by Joseph Pennell, on 'Decorative Heraldry,' by G. W. Eve, as well as a history of 'Alphabets,' by Edward F. Strange.

J. Selwin Tait & Sons publish immediately 'Napoleon III. and Lady Stuart,' from the French of Pierre de Lano.

Announcement is made of an illustrated 'Catalogue of Existing Danish Portraits,' under the editorship of E. F. S. Lund, a specimen sheet of which has recently been published in Copenhagen. In its general plan it resembles the similar Norwegian work edited by Anker and Huitfeldt-Kaas (1886), but the treatment will be more complete. The reproductions, of which there will be a great number, will consist of finely executed phototypes, and the text will give the size and form of all paintings, the artists' names, and other particulars. This undertaking ought to prove a valuable aid to the study of Danish history and biography. In view of the large number of Danes in this country, many of whom undoubtedly possess family portraits, it may not be out of place to state that blanks to be filled out with the desired information may be obtained from the editor, Cand.-jur. E. F. S. Lund, Annisegaard per Helsinge, Denmark.

A year ago we noticed at some length the first volume of Prof. Pasquale Villari's 'I primi due Secoli della Storia di Firenze,' and we now have the pleasure of welcoming its counterpart in English translation by Mme. Villari ('The First Two Centuries of Florentine History: The Republic and Parties of the Time of Dante.' New York: Scribners). The generous typography is supplemented by numerous half-tone illustrations of Tuscan and Roman remains and mediæval antiquities, and there is an index.

The same firm sends us the fourth edition of Mrs. Bell's ("N. D'Anvers") 'Elementary History of Art,' newly revised by her. The number of pages has actually been reduced one-quarter, while the bulk remains about the same; the compressed page remaining agreeable to the eye and legible. Valuable additions are a table of contents, wanting in the third edition, a list of illustrations likewise, and a glossary of technical terms used in architecture and sculpture. The American portion has been but slightly modified, and takes note of the new school of painters only by nominal mention in a summary manner.

In conjunction with Chatto & Windus, London, Messrs. Scribner publish a third series of 'Original Plays by W. S. Gilbert,' containing the text of "Comedy and Tragedy," "Foggerty's Farm," "Rosencrantz and Guildenstern," "Patience," "Princess Ida," "The Mikado," "Ruddigore," "The Yeomen of the Guard," "The Gondoliers," "The Mountebanks," and "Utopia Limited."

Calverley's 'Verses and Fly-Leaves' has been delightfully "printed and bound by the Knickerbocker Press, New York (G. P. Putnam's Sons)," with a manifest design upon the pocket of the purchaser, first in paying the price of this tempting volume, and then in carrying it about the person. Turning to the lines "Forever," we perceive that our friend "Papyrius Cursor" prudently stopped short in his recent quotation of them against the proof-reader's convention of a double word:

> "Forever! 'Tis a single word:
> And yet our fathers deemed it two:
> Nor am I confident they err'd;
> Are you?"

The Joseph Knight Co. (Boston) publish as a holiday volume 'Some Old-Time Beauties,' ten portraits of famous beauties by Reynolds, Gainsborough, Romney, Lawrence, and others, "with embellishment and comment by Thomson Willing." The comment is mildly gossiping and entertaining, the embellishment is clever if florid, and the portraits, being reproduced from engravings, not from the originals, are of little value as examples of the art of the painters represented, though answering their purpose of satisfying curiosity as to the personal appearance of the sitters. The book is prettily got up and likely to be popular as a gift-book.

Those who delight in epigrams will find an abundance, fairly Englished, in three little volumes of 'French Folly in Maxims'—of Philosophy, of Letters, and of Art (Brentano's). They are edited, with introductions, by M. Henri Pène du Bois, who has chosen almost wholly from writers of the present century, including not a few of the living. A large number of the maxims are more or less cynical observations on women. The proof-reading in the matter of accents is a little slipshod.

Mr. W. Salt Brassington's 'History of the Art of Bookbinding, with some account of the Books of the Ancients' (Macmillan), is a curious, rambling, ill-digested work, containing much, however, that is really interesting. The author does not reveal any just understanding of the principles of decoration, but he brings together a good deal of information not otherwise accessible, and supplies a great many illustrations from all sorts of sources. He directs attention to certain books clothed in Ireland and having a lovely Celtic ornament. He reproduces several of the rich and little-known stamped-leather bindings made chiefly at Durham, and pays some tribute to the many beautiful books having embroidered covers. His illustrations embrace half-a-dozen book-covers of pierced silver, in the style which certain American silversmiths have recently revived with distinct success. Very little attention is bestowed on the great French binders.

Bird-lovers will not have missed Mr. Bradford Torrey's agreeable articles on bird-life in

Florida, first printed in the *Atlantic Monthly*, and now republished in book form ('A Florida Sketch-book.' Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Those who have wandered in the "flatwoods," along the Atlantic beaches, or among the flowery lanes of Tallahassee, will recognize with pleasure, in these pages, the truthfulness of local color and the genuine woodland aroma of the Orange State. Mr. Torrey's humor is never of the biting kind, and his devotion to his feathered friends is not so intense as to exclude attention to the amiable peculiarities of the negro and the Cracker, or involve neglect of those characteristics of climate and flora which charm or annoy, according to the visitor's temperament or point of view. The result is that from this little collection of more or less desultory sketches one may gain a better idea of Florida as it appears to sympathetic but not uncritical Northern eyes, than from many guide-books or gazetteers. The reader will find nothing extraordinary or startling, possibly little of enthralling interest, yet he can hardly fail to agree with the author's closing remark that "To have lived in the sun, to have loved natural beauty, to have felt the majesty of trees, to have enjoyed the sweetness of flowers and the music of birds—so much, at least, is not vanity nor vexation of spirit."

A holiday book that is late in coming to hand is Mrs. Browning's 'Sonnets from the Portuguese,' decorated and illustrated by Frederick Colin Tilney (London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Scribners). Mr. Tilney's work, none of which do we remember meeting with before, is certainly interesting. Each sonnet is elaborately lettered by the artist—a fact somewhat to be regretted from the point of view of ready legibility—and framed with a decorative and symbolical border, and there are a few full-page drawings besides. The art is of very various quality, some of it trivial and some in bad taste, and none of it very perfect technically; but it occasionally reaches a surprising power and almost grandeur of invention. The frontispiece and the full page illustration to the seventh sonnet are specially notable, and, while imitative of neither, remind one of the quality of thought of Burne-Jones and Watts. Even this latter composition, however, the best in the book, is marred by clumsy drawing, while such things as the decorations to sonnets 40 and 41 sink to the level of the cheaper work in the minor magazines. The book is furnished with an Introduction by Edmund Gosse, which gives the history of the poems and an enthusiastic critical estimate of them, and with an "Artist's Preface," which explains at somewhat unnecessary length the intention and symbolism of the ornament.

The 'Century Cyclopedia of Names' avoids indicating the pronunciation of Munchausen by a cross-reference to Münchhausen. Whether the common *Muntchawsen* was in the mind of the author, is exposed to some doubt by the title of the third edition (1786), "Baron Munnikhouson, commonly pronounced Munchausen." We take this from a new edition of 'The Surprising Adventures of Baron Munchausen,' issued in bold type by Charles Scribner's Sons, with an historical introduction in which the German-English invention is fixed upon R. E. Raspe as surely, perhaps, as it can ever be. Youthful readers will still take the 'Adventures' "straight," without a suspicion of mixed authorship as revealed by the bibliography, but their elders can, with the present editor's guidance, pick out the chapters which probably composed the original edition of 1785, now quite invisible, and certainly the extant second edition. Two disciples of Aubrey Beardsley, Messrs. Strang and Clark, have furnished new illustrations which do not merit Mr. Seccombe's praise of them as sequels to Doré's and Cruikshank's.

'Shepp's New York City Illustrated' (Hegger) portrays what the ordinary stranger would like to see in this metropolis, with a text that gives a fair superficial account of streets, quarters, populace, public institutions, private dwellings, markets, police, charities, sports, manners and customs, etc. The views among the foreign colonies and in the slums are quite as interesting as the interiors of millionaire homes. There are some portraits also. The compilers have studiously avoided advertisements. Many of the photographs are obviously very freshly taken, and the praise of the Police Department is tempered by the recent revelations of the Lexow Committee.

"Quieta non movere" is not the motto of the venerable *Almanach de Gotha* (Gotha: Perthes; New York: Westermann). Its issue for the coming year (the 132d) exhibits a remarkable industry in overhauling and courage in enlarging. Space has been yielded principally to the genealogical portion, so as, for example, to include mention of every member of an English family deriving from a duke; but also, as the editors point out, the "aristocracy of intelligence" has been regarded, and for the first time the names of university curators and directors are given. The personnel of French, Dutch, and English colonial administration has been carefully revised, as well as that of the Japanese marine, which cuts a new figure on the international horizon. The names of ships of war, and torpedo-boat statistics, are other innovations. By pure accident the new Czar and his bride find themselves pictured beside President Casimir-Perier and Prince Win disch-Graetz; and by pure luck the new German chancellorship is able to be noted among the additions at the end of the plump volume of 1,367 pages.

"A Forgotten Island" is the appropriate title of an article in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for November describing Nikaria, the Icaria of classic times. Its 12,800 inhabitants are all Greeks, though the island belongs to Turkey. They are mostly charcoal-burners and farmers, their principal crop being black raisins of a superior quality. There are a few ancient remains, one a ruined temple, possibly of the Taurian Artemis. The other articles are an orographic description of the Spanish Peninsula and an account of a journey across the Chilian Andes to Lake Nahuel-Huapi. On its shores the Spaniards of the sixteenth century placed their "enchanted city of the Cæsars," in which were boundless treasures.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for December opens with the sixth and concluding paper upon Swedish hydrographic research in the Baltic and North Seas. The ten plates which accompany it are intended mainly to show the salinity and temperature of different sections. The other articles are a description of Bhutan, by Lieut.-Col. Godwin-Austen, and an account of the Island of Saghalin, which we noticed when it originally appeared in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*.

A timely paper is the account of Mantchuria in the *Geographical Journal* for December by Mr. A. R. Agassiz of the Imperial Chinese Customs. A sketch of the country, both geographical and historical, is followed by a detailed description of its industries and commerce. Chief among its exports are beans, which are by far the most important of Mantchuria's products. Next comes the bean-cake, the refuse after the oil is extracted, which is used in southern China in fertilizing the sugar-cane. Cotton goods form the great bulk of the imports, and of these more than two-thirds are American manufacture, drills and sheetings. The net total of pieces of cotton goods imported in 1892 was 984,106, or more than four times the quantity imported twenty years ago. The prosperity to which these facts testify will increase rapidly, it is hoped, with the opening of the whole country to Chinese colonization, the construction of railways, and the development of its great agricultural and mineral wealth. There is also an interesting sketch of China by Baron F. von Richthofen, in which, while saying a good word for the civil mandarins, he characterizes the military mandarins as "devoid of ambition, negligent in enforcing discipline, and fraudulent, especially in the particular of drawing pay for troops which do not exist." Referring to the victories of the Japanese, he says that even if the present dynasty should be overthrown, the new one "would be in reality Chinese," and quotes approvingly the remark of a former American resident: "If one tries to overthrow China, and inflicts on her the deadliest wounds, it is all the same as if one whipped the sea."

Among the periodical ventures of the new year the *Magazine of Travel* makes a good appearance with the January number (10 Astor Place, New York). There are well-illustrated articles on Mexico, Southern California, Switzerland, and Alaska (by Lieut. W. G. Cutler, U. S. N.); and non-illustrated on "The Mountain Paradise of Virginia" (by C. D. Lanier) and "Hunting in the Cattle Country" (by Theodore Roosevelt). There is a poem by Ella Wheeler Wilcox, and a story, and even an article on the financial situation. Personally conducted winter tours and a Travellers' Bureau of Information are a part of the enterprise. The book reviews are not remarkable.

The *Figaro* of November 29 announces that M. Ernest Lavisse of the French Academy has succeeded the lamented James Darmesteter in the direction of the *Revue de Paris*. M. Louis Ganderax, who was associated with Darmesteter in the review, will continue his functions as before.

The Government at Athens seems to be really stirred by the dangers which threaten the Parthenon, and which the late earthquakes have both increased and made more apparent. A month ago a commission was appointed to make a careful examination of the structure and settle upon the steps to be taken to prevent it from falling into ruin. The architects and archæologists who compose this commission have had many meetings, but unhappily find themselves unable to agree upon any definite plan of effecting the repairs. The majority, four in number, wish to replace the parts that are crumbling, or cracked and unsafe, by new materials; the minority, which consists of only one, Mr. Tschiller, urges, on the other hand, the preservation of the monument just as it stands, strengthening with rods and bands of iron the parts that seem likely to fall. Between these two views the Government has not been able to decide, and has sent to Berlin to consult a specialist in Greek restorations, whom it asks to come to Athens, make the proper examinations, and decide on what shall be done. None of all this, or certainly not very much of it, will seem reassuring to the lovers of Greek antiquity.

Mary Logan's 'Guide to the Italian Pictures at Hampton Court, with short studies of the Artists,' "written for the Kyrle Society," is tastefully and conveniently printed, and yet

sells for twopence (London: A. D. Innes & Co.). The author attempts—and we congratulate her on her success—to draw the attention of the visitor to the jewels of a painfully promiscuous collection, and to give him the information and, when possible, the frame of mind needful for appreciating and enjoying them. In the course of her pamphlet "Mary Logan" (Mrs. Costelloe) gives more sympathetic and reconstructive characterizations of such painters as Giorgione, Bonifazio, Lotto, Savoldo, Tintoretto, Bordone, Bassano, and Dosso Dossi than will easily be found elsewhere. The serious student will find here many a happy suggestion, as, for instance, the one pointing to Morto da Feltre as the probable painter of a "Concert" at Hampton Court ascribed to Lotto, and of the "Three Ages" in the Pitti, there ascribed to Lotto also, but by Morelli to Giorgione. As to the intelligent sightseer, he will be very lucky if he can begin to see pictures under such competent guidance.

The State Historical Society of Wisconsin has just held its forty-second annual meeting. Its library now numbers 167,295 volumes and pamphlets, the accessions during the year having been 4,597 books and 2,676 pamphlets. Its newspaper department includes 8,000 bound volumes, a catalogue of which, with historical and other notes, has been long in preparation. This work was reported so near completion that it will be printed early in 1895. About 350 volumes date from before the nineteenth century. It was resolved to urge the Legislature that will meet in January to erect a new building, partly because the gem has outgrown its casket, but especially because the structure now occupied is pronounced by experts far less fire-proof than had been believed. A paper was read regarding early shipping on Lake Superior. It was shown from recondite sources that decked vessels were there afloat in 1731, and that they have continued to show themselves there with little interruption ever since.

—With the present (December) number ends *Astronomy and Astro-Physics*, of which three large volumes (1892-94) have been published by Prof. Payne of the Goodsell Observatory at Northfield, Minnesota. Previously the name of this progressive journal had been the *Sidereal Messenger*, of which ten volumes were issued, the first in 1883. On the renewal and formal inauguration of astronomical activities at Chicago University, that institution has now purchased the new magazine outright, and Prof. Hale, director of the Yerkes Observatory, and for three years co-editor of *Astronomy and Astrophysics* with Prof. Payne, has merged that publication into an entirely novel magazine, to be entitled the *Astrophysical Journal*, with an unparalleled board of editorial management, including Cornu of Paris, Dunér of Upsala, Huggins of London, Tacchini of Rome, and Vogel of Berlin; together with the American names, not less distinguished, of Hastings of Yale, Michelson of Chicago, Pickering of Harvard, Rowland of Baltimore, and Young of Princeton. In the immediate management of the new periodical, Prof. Hale will be ably seconded by Prof. Keeler, formerly an associate of Prof. Langley, and now director of the Allegheny Observatory. In it the astronomer and the astro-physicist will be able to meet on common ground, and the scope of the *Astrophysical Journal* will be broad, including laboratory researches, photographs and drawings, descriptions and theories of sun, moon, planets, satellites, comets, shooting stars, nebular star clusters, and the milky way. To the reproduction of the latest photographs of astronomical and physical phenomena especial attention will be given; and the editors' intimate relations with the observatories and laboratories of Europe and America will enable them always to have the best at their disposal. Not least important will be the departments of "Minor Contributions and Notes," and the "Bibliographies" in each number, the first of which is to be issued in January, 1895. Subscriptions at $4 annually (eighteen shillings throughout the Postal Union) are receivable by the University Press Division, University of Chicago. For the new journal, which will be truly international in character, we venture to predict that handsome success which its enlightened and authoritative management will no doubt fully deserve.

—It is somewhat late in the day to call attention to Bliss's 'Calendar of the Papal Registers relating to Great Britain and Ireland' (London: Stationery Office), which forms a valuable addition to the historical material issued under the direction of the Master of the Rolls. There is no series of documents so important for mediæval history as the papal registers, and the activity shown in rendering their treasures accessible to the public, since the Vatican archives have been thrown open to scholars, is a most gratifying indication of the interest felt in the scientific study of the past. England has followed the example set by Germany and France, and though the interest of the enterprise is diminished by limiting it to insular concerns, it has the advantage of promising earlier completion. The present volume, extending from 1198 to 1304, embraces the stormy reigns of John, of Henry III., and of Edward I., during a considerable portion of which England was a fief of the Holy See, and the documents here calendared throw considerable light upon the details of papal interference with its domestic concerns, while towards the end we have the papal complaints of the bold legislation of Edward in emancipating his sovereignty. Mr. Bliss has disregarded the Continental usage, and has given his condensations of the letters in English, which seems to us a mistake. Such a work is likely to be consulted only by students to whom Latin is familiar, and one misses the verbatim transcripts of the controlling clauses which give such confidence in using them. In a translation there always lurks the doubt whether the translator has accurately caught the exact significance of his text, and this is peculiarly the case in matters so technical as the ecclesiastical Latin of the papal chancery. In turning over the pages we have met one or two instances in which we feel convinced that an error has been made in the version, and the conscientious scholar must often feel perplexed and uncertain as to the exact value of that which he desires to use. In such matters the *ipsissima verba* are sometimes invaluable. There are, moreover, occasional indications of carelessness, which do not tend to cause implicit reliance on Mr. Bliss's accuracy. There is a certain amount of pedantry in giving the dates according to the Roman calendar, but if this is done it should be all in Latin, and such expressions as "6 Id. May" and "12 Kal. June" have a somewhat incongruous effect. Whether proper names should be anglicized or not is perhaps an open question, but there can be none as to curious hybrids such as "John Caietan degli Orsini"; and the conversion of the name of one of the editors of the Registers of Boniface VIII. from "Digard" to "Sigard" can scarce be a printer's blunder.

—For some time members of the Institute and professors of the Sorbonne have been receiving memoirs relating to questions of the higher mathematics signed by the name of Paul Vernier. Like communications have appeared in the scientific journals. Some time last June, a letter came out in one of these periodicals, in which the process of demonstration employed was one that seemed to be borrowed from M. Painlevé, professor of differential and integral calculus at the Sorbonne. M. Painlevé sent at once a sharp note protesting against the pillage of his discovery. In reply came a private letter of excuse to say that the writer had not known of the discovery in question, and that M. Painlevé would perhaps forgive the unconscious plagiarism of a collegian not yet eighteen years old, pupil of a lycée near Nancy. The Sorbonne professor lost no time in making inquiries into the history of this remarkable youth, and found that he was the son of a medical man honorably known at Lyons, who had been by no means well pleased at the youth's invincible passion for mathematics. The upshot of the whole affair is that Paul Vernier has received the high and somewhat rare honor of being admitted without examination to the École Normale as a pupil *hors cadre*, and is receiving a foretaste of fame in the columns of the Paris newspapers. One of the current anecdotes about him may be repeated. He went into the last *concours* for the École Polytechnique, and got zero for his mathematical paper. He had so completely lost himself in drawing unexpected and picturesque conclusions from the problem set him that he quite forgot to solve it.

—The second volume of Dr. Hans Blum's 'Fürst Bismarck und seine Zeit' (Munich: Beck; New York: Westermann) covers a period of ten eventful years (1853-1863), beginning with the Oriental complications which led to the Crimean war, and ending with the agitated condition of political affairs in Germany on the eve of the outbreak of hostilities with Denmark. During the first half of this decade Bismarck continued to represent Prussia in the Federal Diet at Frankfort; in 1859, after the constitution of the regency, he was sent as ambassador to St. Petersburg, whence he was transferred in May, 1862, to Paris; in September of the same year he was recalled to Berlin as head of the ministry, with the direction of foreign affairs as his special department. When he was summoned to this responsible office, a serious conflict had arisen between the monarch and the House of Deputies, owing to the rejection of the budget for the reorganization of the army, which William I. deemed absolutely essential to the strength and safety of the State, and would rather surrender the crown than relinquish. Indeed, the King had already signed his abdication when Bismarck arrived at Babelsberg, and declared his willingness to accept the post of prime minister and to carry on the Government, if necessary, without a budget. This firmness inspired the sovereign with new courage and hope, and he tore in pieces the act of abdication, which had been the expression of his perplexity and despair. It was due to Bismarck's influence more than to any other cause that Prussia maintained an armed neutrality during the Italian war of independence in 1859, and refused to yield to the pressure of the English Tory Cabinet and form an offensive and defensive alli-

ance with Austria. In this respect he pursued the same policy as in the Crimean war. Events had only confirmed him in the conviction that the German question could never be satisfactorily solved so long as Austria remained a German Power. "I perceive," he wrote from St. Petersburg to Baron von Schleinitz, May 12, 1859, "in our federal relations an infirmity of Prussia, which we must heal sooner or later *ferro et igni;* nor shall I be willing to inscribe 'German' instead of 'Prussian' on our banner until we have formed a closer and fitter union with the rest of our countrymen; the word loses its charm if applied to the present confederative nexus." The more Austria diminished her prestige and her power by political blundering, the easier he felt it would be to accomplish her ejectment when the proper time should come.

—A conspicuous and meritorious feature of Blum's biography is the admirable manner in which he weaves into the narration Bismarck's own utterances, derived from conversations, letters, speeches, official reports and other documents, and thus lets the man speak for himself. This method is especially desirable in describing the career of a man like Bismarck, whose sayings were so uniformly pithy and pat to the purpose, and whose keenness and directness of insight, never blurred by sentimentalism, often found expression in fine irony and cutting sarcasm. Thus he says of the Austrian minister, Count Buol: "He is ruled exclusively by vanity, whether he is cleaning his nails or concluding treaties." When, in 1854, Frederic William IV. wrote to Queen Victoria that Prussia, as a Protestant Power, should have the sympathy and support of Englishmen, Bismarck replied, "Die Baumwolle sitzt ihnen viel tiefer als der Protestantismus im Leibe." (Cotton roots much deeper in them than Protestantism.) As regards unjust suspicions of a leaning to Bonapartism, he wrote from Paris: "I have much of the nature of the duck, which lets the water run off from its feathers, and it is a pretty long way from my scarfskin to my heart." German patience under provocation he characterizes as follows: "We Sons of Teut have to be reduced to dire straits before we get up our spunk; so long as we have anything to lose we are afraid; but no sooner are we stripped and flogged than every one is a lion." For the same reason he wrote to Gerlach that the King ought not to permit any minister to come to the council without half a bottle of champagne in his maw: "Our politics will then take a more worthy tone." Lively descriptions of Bismarck's vacation tours in Russia and southern France serve as a pleasant relief from a surfeit of political discussion and diplomatic intrigue.

## RECENT NOVELS.

*The Vagabonds.* By Margaret L. Woods. Macmillan & Co.

*Polly:* A Christmas Recollection. By Thomas Nelson Page. Illustrated by A. Castaigne. Charles Scribner's Sons.

*The Burial of the Guns.* By Thomas Nelson Page. Charles Scribner's Sons.

*P'tit Matinic'*, and Other Monotones. By George Wharton Edwards. The Century Co.

*The Highway of Sorrow.* By Hesba Stretton and * * * * * *. Dodd, Mead & Co.

*A Drama in Dutch.* By Z. Z. New York: Macmillan.

*Sarah:* A Survival. By Sydney Christian. Harper & Bros.

*Beside the Bonnie Brier Bush.* By Ian Maclaren. Dodd, Mead & Co.

'THE Vagabonds' is a tale of many merits, none transcendent, but all worthy of attention. The *dramatis personæ* are not altogether rightly named, seeing that all are more or less permanently associated with Stockwell's high-class travelling circus and menagerie, and several are endued with a loyalty of attachment to that motley institution which breasts more conventionally clad sometimes do not feel for anything. It is around the warm-hearted clown, Joe or Joey, and his vicissitudes of fortune in regard to the young wife he has wedded, that interest chiefly centres. Susan, cold to the husband she has taken as protector against a dissolute father, is all too susceptible to the charms of the handsome young German acrobat Fritz; hence the woes that ensue to all three, but mainly, in the end, to the great-hearted little grotesque Joe, who, if he cannot win his wife's affection, nor even, at the last, owing to an overlooked but substantial legal impediment to their union, keep her for himself, manages to preserve the reader's sympathy throughout. Never, one thinks, were vagabonds so well provided with the rudiments of virtue as these. Vulgarians to the core, with the music-halls as the goal of ambition, their record is nevertheless not of fleshly sins. Joe's history is rather of the development of a spiritual nature, born of the throes of wounded love and trampled benevolence. It is in the dreaded "awspital" that this birth is accomplished and Sister Honoria introduced to the plot, if so straightforwardly narrated a story may be said to have a plot. The episode in which Joe and his enemy Fritz are brought face to face with death, by a power beyond the control of either, is by far the strongest in the book. The moonlight, the threatening sea at the base of the sheer cliff, Fritz fleeing from the maddened elephant, and Joe helpless on its back, compose a situation of terror and suspense that is treated with full dramatic effect. Evidently, close and careful study of a peculiar people has gone to the successful making of a story which, sad in the main, is by no means unrelieved by humor.

Mr. Page's publishers have supplied a new example to the old adage concerning fine feathers and fine birds. They have put his short story 'Polly' into a delicate cover of small folio form, and have printed it on paper with a glaze so high that, no matter at what angle the volume is held, it never leaves the print undisputed possession of the field of vision; and they have singled out for these distinctions a heroine who is not of the ilk of fair ones who are worth following under difficulties to the end of their fate. Polly is a young lady belonging south of Mason and Dixon's line; she has a choleric uncle breathing threats of disinheritance from a soft heart; and she has a lover who turns pale whenever he should, and has the facial play proper to his situation. She is also very fond of a drunken negro servant. She displays great variety of complexion herself, clasps her arms freely about her uncle's neck, and sets one wondering what in the world she will find to do with herself when, as in the course of nature she must, she leaves off "tears and sobs and caresses." If it is captious to pick flaws in a "Christmas Recollection," as this story is further entitled, the apology therefor must be lack of a choice. One would fain point out niceties of style and narrative as an offset to lack of substance; but the query is how to do this when the English runs in general about in this wise: "So that although he did not take his degree, he had gotten the start which enabled him to complete his studies during the time he was taking care of his mother, which he did until her death, so that as soon as he was admitted to the bar he made his mark."

Much nearer the usual level of Mr. Page's excellence is the volume which takes its title, 'The Burial of the Guns,' from the second of its six stories. Even at the risk of harping on an ungracious point, it is to be insisted that it is a pity to spoil a really eloquent and moving paragraph, descriptive of the rally of Confederate veterans in Richmond, on the occasion of the unveiling of a monument, with a climax so ill-worded as the following: "Not one of them all but was self-sustaining, sustained by the South, or had ever even for one moment thought in his direst extremity that he would have what was, undone." It would hardly be possible, even for a new Irving with a new *Rip*, to present more humanely or more in the spirit of a literary good Samaritan the remnants of dignity of character left to the battered drunkard who is the hero of this story, "The Gray Jacket of 'No. 4.'" The title-story is, as one surmises, the history of an episode in the surrender of the forces of the Southern Confederacy. It tells well and touchingly of the bravery, loyalty, and spirit of self-sacrifice that animated the followers of that lost cause. "Little Darby," too, reflects qualities of feeling and powers of action and endurance in its personages that amply make their peace with readers of any political dye. The finest skill in portrayal of character has, however, been reserved for "My Cousin Fanny," a sketch in which effective realism, lightened by delicate irony and some very exquisite touches of feeling, has produced a woman's portrait of admirable lifelikeness and finish—always barring the imperfection already indicated.

With the concluding two sketches of the excessively pretty little volume whose title one would rather read than try to pronounce, no offence whatever is to be taken if they are considered solely on their own merits. Although "A Disturber of Faith" is merely a bit of conjuring with some of the stock properties of sensational fiction, the sleight of hand is brisk and up to the mark; while in "Old Grimes's Masterpiece" there is individuality of handling sufficient to wring new pathos from an ancient source of the pathetic. Nevertheless, in both there is offence, and that serious; for both usurp what the reader had fondly and justifiably been deeming the place of others of another nature. Did Mr. Edwards really believe, one asks in one's disappointment, that he had reached the term and limit of his P'tit Matinic' inspiration when he allowed this foreign matter to crowd upon it? Or was it the fatal and deadly haste to get into a volume that prevented the due rounding of its contents? Seldom are nature and human nature more skilfully drawn at once, with word and pencil together, than in these few slight sketches of the wild island and people that fringe the Maine coast. The author's weird adventure on the "Head of Ol' Gull" has in it the element of the hair-breadth that is doubly thrilling where the sea and the semi-savagery of character it breeds are concerned. But a sequel to this beginning of a mystery about a latter-day contraband cave seems an artistic debt no less than the proper meed of the reader's curiosity. The "patriarch's" daughter Polly, too, and the "Prodigal"

are tantalizingly withdrawn from view as soon as introduced. Recalling the pleasantry and humor that characterize their relatives whom one is allowed to meet face to face here, one is inclined to say that "Thou shalt not rush into covers (however ornamental)" should stand beside "Thou shalt not rush into print" in the literary decalogue.

Miss Stretton states in her preface that she has written her novel in collaboration with a well-known Russian author, now an exile in England, who has supplied her with the outlines of her story, especially with the prison and Siberian incidents, which, he assures her, are founded on facts. For her information about Stundism, its tenets and organization, she acknowledges her indebtedness to an anonymous pamphlet recently published. She frankly announces that her object in writing the story is to make known the sorrows and martyrdom of the Stundists. In view of the fact that Stundism is confined exclusively to the peasants and lower classes, no very complicated plot or delicate psychological analysis of intellectual emotions was to be expected. If the task had been a study of the same sort of religious belief among the upper classes, known as Pashkoffism, it certainly would have been beyond the author's powers, even with the help of the Russian collaborator, whom we may assume to be M. Felix Volkhovsky. In many respects, thanks to him, as she says, the local coloring is very good; but it must be confessed that broad rather than delicate effects are aimed at when a child three months old is represented as trying to say "father," and when other incidents of a similar inaccurate nature are introduced.

The story of the "conversion" of the hero and others from the Russian Church to the "true religion"—that is to say, Stundism, or Protestantism—is well told, but differs little, except in the names of the characters and a few characteristic Russian phrases, from the story of a Methodist revival in an English or American village. "Conversion" from the Ritualistic Anglican Church, the equivalent of the Russian Church, would be discussed in precisely the same tone. The fundamental error in both cases is the un Christian assumption that there can be no true religion, either in faith or in practice, where there are ceremonies of any sort. Every fair-minded person, however, knows that this is false. Though 'The Highway of Sorrow' is not, in itself, sufficiently powerful to produce much commotion outside of a limited circle of non-episcopal readers, it is a popular presentation of a subject which is constantly being referred to. It is, therefore, proper to suggest here, by an example, why the Russian Government "persecutes" Stundists. A couple of years ago a case was reported from the government of Saratoff in southeastern Russia, where a Stundist preacher had announced his power to raise the dead, and had killed a girl of fourteen years of age, with the consent of her parents, in order that he might display his miraculous powers before the congregation. After he had prayed over her for two hours without avail, the parents reported him to the police. He was arrested; and probably he was sent to Siberia, like any other murderer. Those who know the dreadful extremes to which religious frenzy drives the Russian Protestant sects will feel surprised at nothing except at the parents' resort to the police.

The forceful completeness and conscious self-repression of the style are what strikes the reader most agreeably in "Z. Z.'s" story of the Dutch colony in London. There is a certain hardness and coldness about the condensed description of places and states of mind of the actors in the "drama." The effect is to prevent sympathy with Peter van Eijk when his wife deserts him and during the rest of his lonely life; and also with his son's struggles. The delineation of the narrow-minded, self-sufficient Dutch people is so perfect that it rather unfortunately tends to preclude that emotion or affection for any of the characters which is one of the reader's legitimate demands. Pity and impatience possess his mind when he lays down the book, at the too real climax, where the long-suffering Peter not only loses the bride who might have compensated for his past pain, but goes out into the night an exile, leaving his hard-earned fortune to the son (who was stolen from him in babyhood, whom he has never had the happiness to know, even at the last, who is now his rival in love), in order that that son may marry the girl who is dear to him. Dramatic, very well written, on the whole, fresh and strong, 'A Drama in Dutch' will win appreciation, if not great fame, for its author.

Without a tinge of morbidness or trace of cant, the story of 'Sarah' unfolds and comes to perfection, leaving a pleasant sense of the endurance of those homely virtues which are prosaic only to the vulgar and the commonplace. Sprung from a long line of ancestry belonging to that class which not only has made rural England exceedingly fair to look upon, but has been the backbone of the nation, Sarah Thornborough came into a goodly heritage of certain robust qualities which, in the crude stages of her early years, afforded considerable moral exercise to her guardians—a paternal uncle and aunt of stanch Puritan antecedents. "Aunt Rachel" was gifted with that ascetic sense of responsibility—a sort of moral hair shirt—which makes not only the wearer but the special object of concern uncomfortable. "Uncle Dan," who belongs among those rare characters that impress us like a tale of knight-errantry, while their lines of life do not lead to such dizzy heights as make an earnest following seem impossible, inspired the ardent spirit of Sarah with a devotion which served to keep her impatient feet from many a quicksand. Jacob Frant, the farm-steward, shrewd, taciturn, penetrated with Old-Testament poetry and prophecy, bears no small share in the moulding of the heroine's character, and is a lifelike study.

We have had so many descriptions of English country homes where the pursuit of what is grimly styled "sport" is so all-engrossing as to preclude the idea of books forming any essential part of daily living, that the picture of "Meads," where wholesome, homely interests and activities are supplemented by daily companionship with good old English authors, is a welcome change. Between the comfortable elegance of Meads and the crudeness and shabbiness of one of those dreary "villas" which line the monotonously regular roads of suburban London, there would seem to be a great gulf fixed; but the author has bridged it substantially, illustrating in the character who was to become the worthy successor of Daniel Thornborough, the fact that the makings of a man do not necessarily consist in wealth, or leisure, or harmonious surroundings. There is a pleasant change of scene to the romantic Basque country, which Sarah visited in her impetuous, egoistic youth, defiant of sorrow. Years after, when grief had stricken her, the impression made by a chance meeting and a few earnest words led her to return thither in a vague seeking for help, and thus discover the friend who walks beside her when old Jacob Frant, as he leans over his garden gate gazing across the meadow slope, cries out, "Who is this that cometh up from the wilderness leaning upon her beloved, . . . fair as the moon, clear as the sun?" A modern spirit pervades the book, English traditional prejudices being treated with quiet humor; and the story, strong without being unsavory, shows that inevitable social changes need not prevent the survival of what is good and true.

It begins to look as if the Scotch clergy would soon be as hot for writing fiction as they once were against reading it. If we could think they would all succeed as well as Mr. Crockett and the gentleman who has now come forward to join him under the name of Ian Maclaren, we would only wish that, as a Covenanter would say, all the Lord's people were even as Eldad and Medad. We should also wish, while about it, that Mr. Maclaren had hit upon a happier name for his book. 'Beside the Bonnie Brier Bush' is a title to make most readers run for high ground to get out of the way of a flood of sentimentality; but the first few pages will speedily invite them down again, as to a burn which is often wild and picturesque, but which rarely flows over its banks. The preacher, it is true, sometimes gets the better of the writer, and makes his dourest characters drop into a religious fancifulness which is both unlikely and a little repellent. He has such a talent for simple pathos that it is not surprising to find him occasionally pathetic beyond nature. But, as a rule, he is restrained and gets his effects without any tricks. His Drumtochty people acquire great vividness before they have ceased to move in and out before you in the several groups of loosely related stories which Mr. Maclaren has to tell about them, and fairly vindicate the right of their village to take its place beside Thrums. Many delightful things are said by and of them, and the author's style is usually swift and direct. By such work as this Mr. Maclaren has a better chance of being remembered than he would have had for writing all of the once-famous 'Scotch Sermons.'

## RECENT FOLK-LORE PUBLICATIONS.

So thoroughly have the popular tales of most of the States of Europe been collected within the past few years that scholars are now turning to remoter fields for materials to support or confute the various theories of the origin and diffusion of this branch of folk-lore. Indeed, the chief value of one of these theories lies in the importance it attributes to the beliefs of savages as expressed in their tales and customs. The four volumes before us reveal in a striking manner this tendency. One deals with the remotest province of Europe, another is a collection of the lore of a tribe of American Indians, the third is devoted to the examination of a classic legend in its relation to anthropology, and the fourth is an attempt to glean a few fresh ears from a carefully harvested field.

The scope of the first is sufficiently indicated by the title, 'Georgian Folk Tales' (London: David Nutt, "Grimm Library," No. 1). The translation is by Marjory Wardrop, and hers, the translator says, is the first attempt to render into English any part of the varied and interesting secular literature of the Georgian people. The stories here presented are Georgian, Mingrelian, and Gurian, representing the vast majority of the inhabitants of a once independent State. The geographical position of the country renders the study of its popular

tales especially profitable, as it should have received and preserved the most varied traditions of Europe and Asia. The relation of the tales in the collection before us to those of Russia and Asia is dismissed by the translator with the remark "that the points of resemblance between the following stories and those quoted by the late Mr. Ralston in his well-known 'Russian Folk Tales' are so numerous and so apparent that I have not thought it necessary to refer to them in the notes"; and the Asiatic parallels are limited to an occasional reference to 'Les Traditions Populaires de l'Asie Mineure,' by Carnoy and Nicolaides. It may be said in a general way that the well-known stories of Europe are represented in the volume, and that the specific Oriental element is conspicuous by its absence. New material is small, consisting chiefly of stories belonging in the category of jests and the like. It is also true that the versions are not so regular as those in Grimm, for instance, and that the different episodes are often distorted or misplaced. This is the case in other collections of stories from similar localities where various currents of transmission have met and combined. In spite of all this, the stories have preserved their identity in a way which carries with it the conviction that the fairy-tale is not a chance combination of episodes, but was invented once somewhere and transmitted always in substantially the same form.

The second volume of the "Grimm Library" is 'The Legend of Perseus,' a study of tradition in story, custom, and belief, by E. S. Hartland. As in Mr. Frazer's classic 'Golden Bough,' the author is overwhelmed with the mass of material at his disposal, and ends by weakening the impression he wishes to produce by citing an inordinate number of examples. In works of this kind a large part of the text should, it seems to us, be relegated to the notes, where the geographical distribution of the custom or belief could be sufficiently indicated. Still, Mr. Hartland has produced a most scholarly and fascinating book, and those who have not followed the progress of similar investigations will be startled by its suggestiveness. The first volume is devoted to the incident of the hero's supernatural birth. The forthcoming volume will discuss the "Life-token" (not found in the classical legend), or sympathetic object which indicates the danger or death of the hero, the "Rescue of Andromeda," and the "Quest of the Gorgon's Head." There is an excellent bibliography, and we are promised an index with the concluding volume.

We have had recently a number of interesting collections of Indian Tales, but Mr. C. F. Lummis's 'The Man Who Married the Moon, and Other Pueblo Indian Folk-Stories' (The Century Co.), is easily the most entertaining, if not the most valuable to scholars. The stories are admirably told by the collector. The book furnishes some important parallels to which the collector has omitted all reference. "The Coyote and the Bear," p. 30 (the coyote fishes through the ice with his tail), is the well-known 'Uncle Remus' story (xxv.). "How Mr. Rabbit Lost His Fine Bushy Tail" (for European variants see Gerber's 'Great Russian Animal Tales,' p. 48). "The Race of the Tails," p. 99, is of the same class of stories as "Mr. Rabbit Finds His Match at Last," in 'Uncle Remus,' where the rabbit is outrun by the terrapin: in the Pueblo story the coyote is distanced by the rabbit (see Gerber, p. 68). "Honest Big-Ears," p. 103, where the donkey catches the thievish coyote by pretending to be dead, recalls one of the episodes in the 'Roman de Renard' (see Gerber, p. 47), which occurs in various forms in 'Uncle Remus.' "The Coyote," p. 222, contains the episode of an animal being made to believe that a hill will fall down upon him if he does not support it, also found in African folk-lore (see *South African Folk-Lore Journal*, i., p. 72), and the episode of the reflection of the moon in water being taken for a cheese (also in the 'Roman de Renard,' see Robert, 'Fables inédites,' ii., 298 [Lafontaine, xi., 6], and Schmidt, 'Disciplina Clericalis,' p. 69). Even more significant than these, as bearing on the question of the diffusion of popular tales, is the story entitled "The Man Who Wouldn't Keep Sunday," p. 161, which is a variant of one of the most widespread of European folk-tales (Grimm, No. 107, "The Two Travellers"). Of this there exist a number of Spanish versions, one of which, in the 'Libro de los Gatos,' is as old as the fourteenth century. The story was probably introduced among the Pueblo Indians by the early Spanish discoverers. We have not space to mention all the attractive features of this collection, among which is found the counterpart of the Oriental trick of making a flower, etc., grow in the presence of the spectators. Enough, however, has been said to show that the book deserves to be classed with the best of its kind yet produced in our country.

Mr. Jacobs, after supplementing his 'English Fairy Tales' with 'More English Fairy Tales,' now performs a like service for his second series, and gives the children another charming book—'More Celtic Fairy Tales' (G. P. Putnam's Sons), illustrated by Mr. J. D. Batten in his usual delightful style. This volume, which, the author says, is the last, for the present, devoted to the tales of Great Britain, is made up chiefly of material which has appeared since Mr. Jacobs's latest book on this subject. Although the compiler did not have so large a store to draw from as in the parent volume, the newer seems to us far more readable and amusing. The same method is pursued—the stories are retold and the incidents sometimes altered, but these changes are always mentioned in the notes, and Mr. Jacobs's style has improved under criticism. The notes, as usual, are scholarly, but show signs of haste. In that to the "Legend of Knockgrapton," p. 231, no mention is made of the fact that the story is found in France, Italy, Spain, and Turkey, as well as in Ireland and Japan. There would seem, then, no reasonable doubt that it had been imported into the last-named country from Europe. As to the story of "The Hobyahs" ('More English Fairy Tales,' p.118) having been introduced into the United States from Japan, we have our doubts, although Mr. Jacobs tells us that Japanese influence has been considerable here. The story of "How Cormac MacArt Went to Faery," p. 204, finds a parallel in most of the countries of Europe (an Italian one is in Pitrè, 111, and Gonzenbach, 88, where may be found copious references to other versions by Köhler). It is to be hoped that Mr. Jacobs will now turn his attention to other fields. He has still the whole of the Continent left, to say nothing of the treasures of mediæval lore so little known to English readers.

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*The Life of Daniel Defoe.* By Thomas Wright. Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. 1894.

We have here a biography of one of the most energetic and restlessly active of mortals—merchant, manufacturer, and traveller; politician, polemic, journalist, poet (of a sort), satirist, and novelist; who has left to the world more than two hundred and fifty printed works, large and small, among which are at least two immortal masterpieces; trusted by one ministry, imprisoned and pilloried by another; now living in a noble mansion, now hiding from his creditors, and who (according to his own statement) had been "thirteen times rich and poor." An adequate notice of such a life, with so many enigmas, so many curious interests, and so tangled up in the intricate politics of William's and Anne's reigns, would require almost as many pages as we can afford it sentences. So, having said that this work—despite a singularly disparate style, oscillating between the magniloquent and the jocosely familiar—is full of interest, we pass on to the particular feature which has most amused us, and which, in some sort, implies a criticism of the whole book.

Mr. Wright, in addition to many of the endearing traits of that delightful creature the *gobemouche*, has a positive genius for the discovery of mare's nests, and we could fancy we hear Defoe chuckling in his coffin as he sees his baits confidingly swallowed more than a century and a half after his death. For example: after his 'Crusoe' had been a year before the public, Defoe wrote a third part in which he affirmed that the book was not a mere romance, but an allegory of his own life, in which every adventure of Robinson had a counterpart in reality. Mr. Wright, though he tells us in full how Defoe used Selkirk's papers, and "founded his *Crusoe*" upon that mariner's adventures combined with other narratives, gulps this bait whole. He falls to calculating, and, finding that Crusoe was born twenty-seven years before Defoe, concludes that he has only to add that number of years to any incident in Crusoe's life to fix the date of its prototype in Defoe's. Crusoe sailed from Hull September 1, 1651; Defoe therefore left Newington September 1, 1678. Crusoe was alarmed by savages in the twenty-third year of his residence; this corresponds to Defoe's apprehensions of violence after Sacheverell's trial. As Crusoe visited the north of his island, so Defoe visited Scotland; and as Crusoe returned to his old residence in the south, so Defoe came back to London—and so forth.

But Defoe goes further, and with the utmost gravity declares that he had a real servant named "Friday," "a savage and afterwards a Christian," who was his companion for many years, and at last was taken from him by force, and "died in the hands that took him"; and again Mr. Wright believes every word of it. The questions, where Defoe got his savage, when, why, and by whom he was taken by force, and how it happens that nobody else makes any allusion to so singular a person and his violent abduction, do not trouble our biographer in the least. Nay, he is convinced that this "man Friday," the ex-savage, was the real author of various writings attributed to Defoe: the 'Secret History of the White Staff,' a vindication of Harley's policy, the 'Minutes of Mesnager,' and others. And yet he tells us that Defoe was indebted to Selkirk and Rogers for the idea of "Friday," when he has just assured us that he had for years had the actual "Friday" in his household—a savage who could write political articles in a style not to be distinguished from Defoe's own! If, now, it had been Swift's 'Modest Proposal,' the thing would have borne some color.

Extraordinary as this *gobemoucherie* is, there is a bit that goes beyond it. Defoe, in his 'Serious Reflections,' says: "I have heard of a man that, upon some extraordinary disgust which he took at the unsuitable conversation of some of his nearest relations, . . .

suddenly resolved never to speak any more. . . . Not all the tears or entreaties of his friends, no, not of his wife and children, could prevail with him to break his silence." And he goes on to say that this strange perversity ruined his family and broke up his home; his children, with the exception of one daughter, left him, as did his wife, who became insane. In this state he persisted for nearly twenty-nine years, when he resumed his speech after an attack of sickness. Now there is probably no mortal in the world, except Mr. Wright, who would dream of applying this literally to Defoe, who does not speak of it as happening to himself, but to another person, and condemns such conduct as insensate cruelty. And even Mr. Wright sees that the features of the dispersion of the family, the insanity of the wife, and the absolute dumbness cannot be made to fit. But Defoe mentions "nearly twenty-nine years," and these, his biographer sees clearly, must be the twenty-eight years Crusoe was on his island. To fix the dates we have only to perform a simple arithmetical problem:

"Crusoe was wrecked on his island (on which he stayed twenty-eight years, two months, and nineteen days) 30th September, 1659; adding twenty-seven years makes Defoe's life of silence to commence 30th September, 1686; and from this date to the date of the commencement of his great illness, when, as we presume, he resumed his speech, is twenty-eight years, two months and about a half."

From 1686, therefore (three years after his marriage), to 1714, we are assured that Defoe did not speak a word to his wife or family. That none of his numerous hostile critics reproaches him with such unnatural conduct; that his friends and children in their letters never allude to it; that Defoe speaks of his happiest hours having been spent in the bosom of his family, and that his wife's brother, in his will (made just before the close of this "period of silence"), mentions Defoe with respect, and makes his bequest to Defoe's children conditional on their showing the utmost tenderness and affection for their father—all these facts have no weight against the magical number of twenty-eight years.

We are told that the only relic of Defoe (other than MSS.) known to be in existence is his seal. It so happens that we can correct this statement from sources that were not accessible to Mr. Wright. In 1718 Elizabeth Maxwell, daughter of Defoe's sister, being crossed in a love-affair, took the rash step of running away from home and embarking as a "redemptioner" on a ship bound for Philadelphia. On her arrival at that port her services were sold to Andrew Job, a farmer of Cecil County, Maryland, who took her into his household. Here she was kindly treated, and in 1725 she became the wife of Andrew's son Thomas. Now for the first time, when she was respectably settled in life, she communicated with her mother and uncle. Daniel responded in a long letter, telling her that her mother was dead, and sending her at the same time a lot of furniture, partly her mother's and partly his own, among which were two ancient chairs, heirlooms in the family, which had, he said, "descended from their Flemish ancestors," and which he had used in his own study. One of these is now (or was in 1881) in the possession of Elizabeth's descendant, James Trimble, and the other in that of the Delaware Historical Society. Other interesting particulars may be seen in Johnston's 'History of Cecil County,' whence this information is derived.

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*Wild Animals in Captivity*, or Orpheus at the Zoo, and Other Papers. By C. J. Cornish. Macmillan & Co. 1894. Pp. viii, 340. 8vo. Illustrated.

THE publishers present in this volume a reprint of articles which originally appeared in the *Spectator* and other British journals, together with some hitherto unpublished chapters illustrated by admirable photographs of animals from life by Gambier Bolton, with a few reproductions of Japanese drawings of animals. The Bolton photographs, which number a baker's dozen, will be prized by every one interested in wild animals. The best of them have hardly been surpassed in their class. The Japanese sketches, however, are not especially noteworthy, and much better ones might have been selected from the children's story-book of Japanese fairy-tales, printed in Tokio with English text at the instance of Prof. Basil Hall Chamberlain.

Apart from the illustrations, the book is not remarkable, being chiefly made up of sketchy papers, based on observations by the author at the Zoölogical Gardens, Regent's Park, London. These articles, while pleasantly written, hardly rise to the dignity of either literature or science, though young people unacquainted with natural history will find in them, stated with sufficient accuracy, numerous facts about animals, birds, and insects which it is well they should know. The only parts of the book which possess any flavor of originality are those which treat of some simple experiments on the susceptibility of various animals to musical sounds, and a discussion of a few points connected with patterns of coloration in animals.

The author, assisted by a violinist and later by a piccolo-player, visited a number of the cages and noted the behavior of their inmates. The tarantula showed no evidence of being affected by music, but a nest of scorpions became violently agitated on the production of high and piercing notes. Snakes, especially the cobras, justified their reputation in Oriental story by marked responsiveness to and apparent interest in the sound of the violin. Most four-footed animals were more or less pleasantly excited by the music; the wolves and jackals, exceptionally, showed strong dislike and fear, partly mingled with curiosity; and the African elephant was evidently dissatisfied with the performance. Discords were universally received with a sudden start and signs of displeasure; all animals except cobras and wolves showed pleasure and curiosity when listening to soft and melancholy music, and all exhibited extreme dislike of loud, harsh sounds. The piccolo, among the instruments tried, met with the least approval, while the flute and violin were better liked. An imitation of bagpipes was enthusiastically received by the orang-outang, a young animal which had at first been much agitated and somewhat alarmed by the violin.

Much more thorough and long-continued observation and experiment would be required to serve as an adequate basis for generalization in regard to this branch of animal æsthetics, but even these preliminary data have an interest, and, as far as they go, accord very well with the popular beliefs in regard to such matters current in the regions from which the respective animals were obtained.

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*Threescore and Ten Years* (1820 to 1890): Recollections. By W. J. Linton. Scribners.

AUTOBIOGRAPHY being a field in which the great successes depend very little on the celebrity of the autobiographer—witness the perennial entertainment furnished by Herbert of Cherbury—we cannot take up a new volume of memoirs without having our eagerness aroused. Knowing something of Mr. Linton's varied past, we expected that his 'Recollections' would be full of interest. In this we have not been wholly disappointed; where they fall short is in their reticence. Mr. Linton is not sufficiently confiding. He gives neither a connected narrative of his own external fortunes and intellectual progress, nor a vivid enough account of many of the eminent men with whom he had relations. At times it seems as if he were bent on making merely a list of all the painters, or all the actors, whom he had known; but, since the purpose of memoirs should be to revivify personalities, and not names, the objection to this method need not be enlarged upon.

We state the shortcoming first in order that we may devote the rest of our space to the points of excellence in the book. Foremost among these is Mr. Linton's frankness: though he may omit to tell us about men whom we wish to hear about, what he does tell he tells with downright candor. Having been a life-long fighter, and more often than not the champion of lost causes, he has a strong, aggressive style, and an independent way of judging the men and events that he describes.

Mr. Linton's earliest recollection is of hearing the great bell of St. Paul's toll for the death of George III. Shortly after, the funeral procession of Queen Caroline, "the shabbiest notable funeral I ever saw," passed his father's door. At the age of sixteen he was apprenticed to a wood-engraver, and for many years his art and his radical principles took all his time. Chartism engaged his enthusiasm from the start. His reminiscences of Hetherington and the other martyrs to free speech and a free press are as valuable as they are interesting, and will serve to remind the present generation of some of the real grievances against which the English people battled less than sixty years ago. We are apt to take it for granted that freedom of utterance always existed in England, whereas it required long agitation, accompanied by official brutality, to secure its recognition. Mr. Linton's pictures of his fellow-agitators, during the Chartist and other movements, will help historians to fill several gaps; for it is from such a book as this that much important matter concerning the secondary, yet indispensable, workers in a great cause can be derived.

The artistic and literary circle in which Mr. Linton passed much of his early manhood recalls Dickens and his world. Life, we feel, was precarious, so far as ability to pay bills constitutes life. Artists were always waiting for remittances; authors were constantly expecting a visit from the deputy sheriff; yet there was much conviviality, much warm affection, much kindliness and mutual helpfulness. Mr. Linton himself dwelt for several years in the Lake country, where he bought Brantwood, an estate which he subsequently sold to Ruskin. At no time does he allow his personality a freer rein than when he describes his walks through the region which Wordsworth and Coleridge had already immortalized. We could wish that he had been as communicative concerning Mazzini's methods, and the *modus operandi* of the European Republicans, of whom he was, if not a leader, certainly a devoted and trusted lieutenant, as he is concerning a sunrise seen from Scawfell. The human interest far transcends that of a cloud combination fifty years ago.

Mr. Linton's profession often brought him into relations with Cruikshank, Leech, and other artists. His earnestness in reform and his ability as a writer gained him the acquaintance of politicians and literary men. We have space for only two or three quotations, where many might be made. The first illustrates a side of Carlyle's character which Froude, with his inherent incapacity for telling the truth, so unfairly neglected:

"A young German had become a member of a queer society or community, raw vegetarian and else, located at Alcott House, on Ham Common, near Richmond on Thames. . . . The ways of the society were very much out of the common; but one morning the young German went beyond them. He was found in the garden digging '*mit nodings on*.' The poor fellow was crazy, crazier than the community could stand. Carlyle took charge of the stranger in his own house until friends in Germany could have care of him. Many hard words may be forgiven for such a generously gentle act."

Leigh Hunt Mr. Linton describes as "that most delightful of old men," with whom he passed many an evening while Mrs. Hunt peeled walnuts for them. In Paris, just after the February revolution, he says, "Thiers, a mean old-clothes man in appearance, passed me once, . . . followed immediately by Gen. Cavaignac. I could not repress a wish that the tall, grim soldier would pick up the historic liar and fling the noisome thing to the ground." Margaret Fuller he found "a little plain Yankee woman, . . . plain, but interesting and attractive, whose speech was earnest and to the purpose." "Howitt was a square, sturdily-built, but not large, Quaker, who, when out, generally carried a big stick; the type of the Quaker who would not take up arms, but who, when the ship in which he was a passenger was boarded by an enemy, held out his hands against one of the boarders with the quiet remark, 'Friend! thee hath no business here,' and pushed him off."

The following view of Dickens is worth quoting:

"For all his genius as a novelist, I have always thought that his real vocation was as an actor of low comedy, much as the world might have lost by the change. Warm-hearted and sentimental, but not unselfish, he was not the gentleman. There was no grace of manner, no soul of nobility in him. When he and Wilkie Collins and Wills [the editor of *Household Words*] went out, taking Dickens's doctor with them, to eat 'the most expensive dinner they could get,' it was an action that marked the Amphytrion of the feast, if not the others also. It is an unpleasant anecdote, but it was told me by the doctor himself, who had to prescribe for all three next day. The doctor's fees, of course, would be reckoned as part of the expensiveness of the dinner."

We have drawn from Mr. Linton's reminiscences of the celebrities of the past generation, but the reader of his book will find much about the celebrities, both British and American, of our own time. For Mr. Linton's acquaintance is cosmopolitan and his interests are catholic, and he has an engraver's power of putting much emphasis on a line or stroke.

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*The English Novel;* Being a short sketch of its history from the earliest times to the appearance of 'Waverley.' By Walter Raleigh. Charles Scribner's Sons.

On the cover of this neat little volume are printed the words, "The University Series." The lettering is sunk in the cloth and is of the same dull-red color, as if the author, though resolute to give his offspring the seal of respectability and scholarship, were still reluctant to vex the ghost of his good grandmother. Mr. Raleigh's book is addressed to his pupils, whose intelligence he compliments by confining himself to narrative and critical comment, leaving to them the pleasure of inferential philosophizing and generalization. He thus escapes the narrow, dogmatic air of the average professional instructor of youth, and handles his subject with a freedom and candor which are very agreeable to readers qualified, by age at least, to draw their own conclusions. Full knowledge and clear vision, extending over three centuries and a half, give him an authority which can well afford to dispense with that process, commoner among historians of literature than it should be, the substitution of personal theory and predilection for lucid, connected narrative and unprejudiced statement of facts. Mr. Raleigh's task was to trace the ancient lineage of prose fiction, to reveal its traditions, and particularly to note the master hands by which they have been transmitted, to show its growth in language, scope, and form, and to indicate the relation between it and the essential spirit of successive periods. All this he has done, as a teacher should, in such manner as only a man of literary instinct and discretion could.

This is not the hour when the novel stands in sore need of justification, nor at any time, perhaps, has any modesty been called for from a form of literature that was born with Sir Thomas Malory and brought to perfection by Sir Walter Scott. Such fair and blameless knights are fit to preside with any muse, and able to lend something of their own dignity and worth to their calling, if not to all the bad children who have followed it, for whom they must perforce stand sponsors. Very bad indeed some of these children have been, and among the worst several of Sir Walter's later posterity, with whom, however, Mr. Raleigh has at present nothing to do. Time will settle them, and any mention they may ever get in a "university series" will not be honorable. This verdict of time Mr. Raleigh reads very justly, and shows how it sums up what have been and must continue to be the abiding characteristics of English prose fiction—imaginative treatment of human passion and emotion, and, woven with that (sometimes dominant, sometimes subservient), realistic description of details of life and character, be they commonplace or extraordinary. He also shows, though again inferentially, that through all the long sequence runs a strong moral intention, a desire in one way or another to better and elevate mankind. It may be said that not one English novelist who has utterly failed to set up some ideal of beauty in human conduct has survived his generation.

We have spoken of the author's abstention from intrusion of personal preference; still in *two* instances, at least, that does assert itself. Undoubtedly he loves Henry Fielding and Jane Austen, the extreme expressions of sex in literature. It is perhaps well that the day has arrived when a teacher of literature may say of 'Tom Jones':

"Whether regarded for its art or for its thought, whether treated as detached scenes of the human comedy, as an example of plot architecture, or as an attempt at the solution of certain wide problems of life, no truer, saner book has ever been written."

Recognition and defiance of anxious parents and censors breathe from a subsequent passage:

"Under what precise set of conditions and exactly by what persons he [Fielding] may be read is a question that need trouble no one long. Books are written for those who can understand them; their possible effect on those who cannot is a subject of medical rather than of literary inquiry."

Jane Austen scores another modern masculine victim. Let it be granted that in her sphere she was perfect, but her sphere was contracted; it is absolutely known to women, and the addition of a great literary gift to certain talents possessed by every amusing and popular gossip is not enough to overcome them with awe and ecstasy.

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*Naples*, the City of Parthenope, and Its Environs. By Clara Erskine Clement. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.

If there are volumes that it may be unwise to read before seeing Italy, lest they should lay up disappointment for a reader less sensitive than their writer to delicate æsthetic impressions, this is not one of them. Its pages are steeped in fact and the atmosphere that accompanies fact—not in temperament, or the atmosphere that temperament creates and that is art. They record no newly-invented sensations, but they offer a fair portion of the pleasure that may be derived from intelligent commonplace, well-ordered and cheerfully aware of its limitations. The author is laudably concerned with accuracy, and agreeably frank in admitting ignorance of many matters, though in certain instances, notably in that of the seductive ballad poetry of the Neapolitans, she begs off, on the plea of lack of space, from giving information that so large a volume on Naples—over three hundred small octavo pages—can hardly be excused for omitting.

The first two-thirds of the book, though it may be found useful as an epitome of facts and events, is not interesting reading. To have become such, a review of the broken and piecemeal history of the kingdom of Naples and Sicily would have had to be fused, not compiled. Here fact is added to fact without knowledge where to dwell and where to pass lightly. Much more successfully carried out is the part that deals with the life of the swarming, noisy, gesticulating, holiday-loving populace. Their superstitions, their personal habits and public manners are not merely enumerated, but are interpreted with sympathy. A chaotic recollection of the picturesque and pell-mell confusion of what seemed to Clough "the great sinful streets of Naples" may be pleasantly cleared up and set in order by a perusal of this account of them. The fascination of the lottery for the poverty-stricken masses, and the scene of the *tombola*, are graphically described, but the reader will look in vain for a sequel brought down to date of Mme. Mario's revelations in the *Nation* of the horrors of subterranean life, though the conditions of life in the *fondaci*, or tenements, and the disappointing efforts towards improving them, are dwelt on at some length.

Of the descriptions of places along the shores of the charmed bay, that which includes Herculaneum, Vesuvius, and Pompeii is the least satisfactory, that of Capri the most so. An account of the excursion to the summit of Vesuvius is waived with a reference to the guide-book, and a vague allusion to the ascent from Torre dell' Annunziata, so full of the fascinating accompaniments of loneliness and awe, and toilsome intimacy with the weird fields of powdered lava, shifting like warm quicksand beneath the feet of those who avoid the ascent by rail. The failure to produce an even faintly adequate impression of a single feature of Pompeii may be set down to the same archæological insensibility that ignores the collection of sculpture in the magnificent museum. But

what is told of the open-air life and sights of Capri is sufficient in quality and quantity to furnish a tourist with an excellent travelling outfit of information. The photogravure selected for illustration of the island is of the inevitable steps to Anacapri, a subject which an author ever so little intent on originality should certainly have avoided. The deep-red guard cover to the book has an association that seems to promise the delightful white vellum and gilt tooling of the Italian binders beneath. Although this promise is not realized, no fault is to be found with the *ensemble* of the volume except the lack of a small outline map, which would have made such a practical addition to its value.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Rev. J. C. The Leisure of God, and Other Studies in the Spiritual Evolution. Boston: Universalist Publishing House.
Aldrich, Anne R. Gabriel Lusk. C. T. Dillingham & Co.
Barr, Robert. In the Midst of Alarms. 2d ed. F. A. Stokes Co. 75 cents.
Barlow, Jane. The End of Elfintown. Illustrated. Macmillan. $1.50.
Berenson, Bernhard. Lorenzo Lotto: An Essay in Constructive Art Criticism. Putnams. $3.50.
Bingham, Clifton. Tea-Kettle Songs. Raphael Tuck & Sons.
Blair, E. T. Henry of Navarre and the Religious Wars. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $4.
Brabourne, Lord. The Magic Oak Tree, and Prince Filderkin. [The Children's Library.] London: Unwin; New York: Macmillan. 75 cents.
Chadwick, Rev J. W. Old and New Unitarian Belief. Boston: G. H. Ellis. $1 50.
Chamberlain, H. R. 6,000 Tons of Gold. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent. $1.25.
Doyle, A. C. Beyond the City. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Doyle, A. C. The Parasite. Harpers. $1.
Doyle, A. C. The White Company. Illustrated. Harpers. $1.75.
Egerton, George. Discords. London: John Lane; Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Ferguson, Henry. Essays in American History. James Pott & Co. $1.25.
Ferguson, Prof. Henry. Four Periods in the Life of the Church. James Pott & Co. $1.25.
Firth, Emma M. Stories of Old Greece. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents.
Göhre, Paul. Three Months in a Workshop: A Practical Study. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Gould, J. M., and Tucker, G. F. The Federal Income Tax Explained. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Graetz, Prof. H. History of the Jews. Vol. IV. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society.
Gulliver's Travels. Illustrated. Macmillan. $2.
Hare, A. J. C. The Life and Letters of Maria Edgeworth. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
Harpers, C. G. The Marches of Wales. Illustrated. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Scribners, $4.
Harper, Prof. G. McL. Hugo's Hernani. Henry Holt & Co.
Kukula, R., and Trübner, K. Minerva: Jahrbuch der Gelehrten Welt. 1894—1895. Strassburg: K. J. Trübner; New York; Westermann.
Lads and Lassies. Illustrated. Raphael Tuck & Sons.
Lewes, Louis. The Women of Shakspere. London: Hodder Bros.; New York; Putnams. $2.50.
Lewis, E. H. The History of the English Paragraph. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
Mackay, Eric. Love Letters of a Violinist, and Other Poems. Brentano's. $2.50.
Maspero, Prof. G. The Dawn of Civilization. Egypt and Chaldæa. Appletons. $7 50.
McCauley, Fannie M. Tennyson's Elaine. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 25 cents.
Payne, F. M. Lessons in Practical Penmanship and Typewriting. Excelsior Publishing House.
Pennell, D. S. Dew-Drops. Philadelphia: W. H. Pile's Sons. 75 cents.
Pennell, D. S. Wavelets. Philadelphia: W. H. Pile's Sons. 65 cents.
Phyfe, W. H. P. 5,000 Words Often Misspelled. Putnams.
Pompéry, Mlle. E. de. Petites Histoires Enfantines. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 20 cents.
Preece, Louise. A System of Physical Culture Prepared expressly for Public School Work. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. $2.
Price, Eleanor C. In the Lion's Mouth: The Story of Two English Children in France, 1789—1793. Macmillan. $1.50.
Price, W. T. William Charles Macready. Brentano's. 75 cents.
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Ramsay, Prof. W., and Lanciani, Prof. Rodolfo. A Manual of Roman Antiquities. New ed. Scribners. $3.
Rodway, James. In the Guiana Forest: Studies of Nature in Relation to the Struggle for Life. Scribners. $2.
Shakspere's All's Well That Ends Well, and Twelfth Night. [The Temple Shakspere.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. Each 45 cents.
Sharpe, R. R. London and the Kingdom. Vol. II. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
Sheppard, Rev. Edgar. Memorials of St. James's Palace. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $10.50.
Shepp, J. W., and D. B. New York City. Illustrated. Heggers.
Skeat, Prof. W. W. The Complete Works of Geoffrey Chaucer. Vol. V. Notes to the Canterbury Tales. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $4.
Stratemeyer, Edward. The Last Cruise of the *Spitfire*. Merriam Co.
Steele, Rev. J. N. The Importance of Musical Knowledge to the Priesthood of the Church. James Pott & Co. 50 cents.
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Trevor, Col. G. H. Rhymes of Rajputana. Macmillan. $2.
Wiele, Marguerite Van de. Le Sire de Ryebeke. Paris: *L'Art*.
Wise, T. J. Spenser's Faerie Queene. Book I., Cantos I.—IV., Illustrated. London: George Allen; New York: Macmillan. $3.
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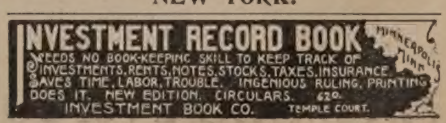
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